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Digital and Social Media Marketing

Emerging Applications and Theoretical Development

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In Tribute to the Loving Memory of My
Mother: Anarkali Dwivedi
(01 January 1941–21 April 2019)

Yogesh K. Dwivedi

Preface

Rapid emergence and widespread adoption of Information and Communications Technologies (ICTs) and digital and social media is having a significant impact on the way people communicate and fulfill their socioeconomic, emotional, and material needs (Shareef et al. 2018; Shiau et al. 2017, 2018). ICTs and digital media, such as emails, search engines, smartphones, websites, and social media sites, are already being used widely by individuals for a range of activities including searching daily news and updates on critical events; connecting with family and friends; reviewing products, services, and places; selling and buying goods; accessing transportation, tourism, and personal financial services; communicating and sharing information through electronic word of mouth (eWOM); and workplace management (Alalwan et al. 2017; Algharabat et al., 2017, 2018; Arora et al. 2019; Hossain et al. 2019; Ismagilova et al. 2017, 2019a, b; Kamboj et al. 2018; Kapoor et al. 2018; Kaushik et al. 2018; Kizgin et al. 2018, 2019; Shareef et al. 2016a, b, 2017, 2019a, b; Singh et al. 2017). Furthermore, radical increase in both temporal and geographical reach is empowering consumers to exert influence on brands, products, and services (Algharabat et al. 2019; Plume et al. 2016). These technologies are also being harnessed by businesses for various purposes including distribution and selling of goods, retailing of consumer services, customer relationship management, and influencing consumer behavior by employing digital marketing practices (Dwivedi et al. 2015, 2017; Kapoor et al. 2016, 2018; Yang et al. 2017).

Technological advancement has resulted in evolution of consumer behavior through "digital metamorphosis" leading to the formation of "digital consumer culture," which is a novel and largely unexplored area presenting fertile ground for academics, researchers, and practitioners interested in understanding this unfolding phenomenon. This research workshop, along with the edited volume by Springer Nature (entitled *Digital and Social Media Marketing—Emerging Applications and Theoretical Development*) and special issue of the *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, aims to bring together a variety of disciplines and a scholarly community for the advancement of knowledge regarding practice

and research related to digital and social media marketing (Aswani et al. 2018). To achieve this goal, systematic literature reviews leading to theory development and empirical papers employing quantitative, qualitative, and/or critical methods are welcomed. Consideration will be given to submissions focusing on digital marketing-specific theory building/development, measurement development and validation, and testing of existing marketing and information systems theories and models for evaluating their suitability for extending knowledge in this emerging academic domain.

The Call for Papers solicited submissions in two main categories: full research papers and short research-in-progress papers. Each submission was reviewed by at least two knowledgeable academics in the field, in a double-blind review process. A total of 24 submissions were considered for final acceptance and publication including those from various countries across the world such as the UK, the USA, Canada, Ireland, India, Jordan, the Netherlands, Saudi Arabia, Spain, etc. These final sets of papers were clustered into four groups, each of which is outlined below.

The papers appearing in Part I address the theme of social media marketing. Based on the review of social media marketing literature, Lal, Ismagilova, Dwivedi, and Kwayu aim to provide a review of return on investment in social media marketing with a specific focus on intangible outcomes such as brand awareness, customer engagement/relationship, and electronic word of mouth (eWOM). A study by Foroudi, Nazarian, and Aziz aimed to identify the key elements and outcomes of fashion e-blogs and what effects fashion e-blogs have on women's intention to use them. An exploratory conceptual research by Algharabat, Rana, Alalwan, and Baabdullah examined the impact of social media commerce constructs on social trust and customer value co-creation. The research by Ased and Ezzi explored the demographic differences on consumers' adoption of social commerce in Saudi Arabia. Sharma, Anuja, and Alavi developed a research instrument to study the impact of consumer brand perception, consumer brand relationship, and consumer buying behavior on online apparel shopping. Alzubaidi's research aims to contribute to the marketing literature from a non-Western perspective through a qualitative exploration of the concepts associated with consumers' pro-environmental behavior in Saudi Arabia. The last paper of this section is by Qasem, Algharabat, Alalwan, and Hajawi, which focuses on understanding what stops customers at collectivist cultures from using services such as renting or sharing clothing items with retailers.

Part II contains papers relating to social media analytics. Kaul, Mittal, Chaudhary, and Arora have attempted to analyze celebrity tweets and classify them into two distinct approaches, i.e., fixed classification into six predefined categories and generating a category if the tweet does not belong to any defined category to provide relevant recommendations to practitioners. The first classification was done in three different ways, i.e., by applying naïve Bayes, decision tree, and support vector machine, whereas authors used latent Dirichlet allocation for generating a new category. The second research in this part is by Bijarnia, Ilavarasan, and Kar, which compares two sharing economy platforms—i.e., Ola and Uber taxi services—in

transportation in India in terms of customer experiences for service quality. The research downloaded tweets using Twitter API for both Ola and Uber and used Twitter Analytics for analyzing the data obtained. Moreover, the SERQUAL model is used as a guiding framework for analysis.

Part III comprises manuscripts relating to emerging technology and digital marketing. Ray, Bala, and Dasgupta build a conceptual model for technical online courses related to career choices with the notion that the concepts of psychology, marketing, and technology can help improve the rate of technology adoption and educational marketing. The paper by Mogaji, Olaleye, and Ukpabi contributes to the use of emerging technologies such as artificial intelligence and machine learning for digital marketing, big data acquisition, management, and analytics and their impact on advertising effectiveness (Gutierrez et al. 2019). The research by Padilla-Piernas, Parra-Merono, and Beltran-Bueno aims to investigate how the main hotel chains based in Spain use app store optimization (ASO) to make their hotel applications more visible and easier to find for current potential customers in the main mobile app stores (e.g., Google Store and iOS). Steinmetz introduces the female relational perspective as the missing link in the Internet of Things in smart cities. He proposes new vignettes for marketing in smart cities where female relational perspective, superdiversity, non-cultural bias, all-inclusive multiculturalism, and Internet of Things are combined. Realizing the scant consideration given to technology adoption, adaptation, and appropriation, Muhammad, Dey, Alwi, and Babu conducted a literature review to explore the underlying antecedents and discrete adaptation behavior.

Finally, Part IV constitutes of ten papers relating to digital marketing—case studies and practitioner experiences. Curiel attempted to highlight the potential that lies within international social media marketing, describe the challenges that organizations can find in its application, and provide some guidance on areas global marketers would need to consider before embarking on a successful social media strategy for their international markets. Kuttimani, Rana, and Dwivedi used Flintobox case study to examine multi-channel digital marketing strategy in the context of emerging economy like India. Guimond investigates the ways in which activists and corporations interact via social media, harnessing its power to take political stands and engage their stakeholders to create social change. Howard used review and messaging analysis to form localization hypotheses for e-commerce female clothing websites for Russian market. In context of online product localization, Ciocca discussed the challenges and solutions in global online marketplaces. Keating and Singh explore ways in which brands have misstepped in their hyperlocalization efforts at the expense of perceived brand authenticity. Kirmond focussed her case study on the localization strategy of its website as a digital media outlet. Zahopoulos aims to discuss why it is important and how it can be helpful to begin using neuromarketing techniques in the global digital marketing and localization industry. Rodriguez-Moran examined social media marketing in the global marketplace through the lens of two dimensions of the Hofstede national culture model—individualism and collectivism and masculinity and femininity. De Boer has

discussed how social networking sites—specifically Facebook and LinkedIn—can play an important role in creating a realistic impression of a school.

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Contents

Part I
Social Media Marketing

Chapter 1
Return on Investment in Social Media Marketing: Literature Review and Suggestions for Future Research

Banita Lal, Elvira Ismagilova, Yogesh K. Dwivedi, and Shirumisha Kwayu

1.1 Introduction

According to recent statistical reports, more than four billion out of approximately 7.4 billion people across the world use the internet (We Are Social 2018). While over half of the world's population is said to be online, the number of active social media users reached 3297 million in April 2018 (Statista 2018). As a result of the growing trends of internet usage and social media engagement, businesses have begun to readily embrace social media technology in order to promote their products and services via social media platforms (Michopoulou and Moisa 2019).

In relation to communication, it is widely acknowledged that social media facilitates and enhances communication between businesses and customers (Aladwani and Dwivedi 2018; Gallaugher and Ransbotham 2010; Kamboj et al. 2018; Shareef et al. 2018; Shiau et al. 2018, 2017) in ways that previous sets of Information technology (IT) could not afford. Unlike traditional IT, social media affords organisations with visibility, persistence, editability and association of information (Treem and Leonardi 2012). For instance, the provision of real time information to

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stakeholders (employees, customers, supplier and shareholders) is an important functionality addressed by social media (Nedbal et al. 2013) as it allows information to be shared (visible, editable, persistent and association) among stakeholders while removing possibilities of information asymmetry within organisations, consequently creating efficient and effective channels of information systems. The capability of social media to address such functionalities distinguishes social media from traditional IT across a range of attributes such as how content is contributed, structured and organised and flows of interaction (Steinhüser et al. 2011). Given the popularity and uptake of social media, companies have realised the huge potentials of social media, which includes the role of customer knowledge in enhancing a company's knowledge (Kaske et al. 2012), which can result in potentially regarding outcomes for both.

With respect to the business–customer relationship, the one thing that is common between social media activities is the ability to improve and exploit user relationships: evidence suggests that social media can increase relational outcomes such as online reputation and relationship strength (Risius and Beck 2015; Shareef et al. 2019). However, despite the huge promise, there remain challenges around the implementation of social media and measuring the returns of social media. The fact that organisations are said to be struggling to implement social media (Effing and Spil 2016) has subsequently resulted in an increasing body of literature looking at social media strategy and their formulation (Wilson et al. 2011). Further, despite the potential of social media and the growing commercial relevance of social media (AlAlwan et al. 2017; Dwivedi et al. 2015; Kapoor et al. 2018; Risius and Beck 2015), some scholars are more cautious in their assessment of the impact of social media and point to a lack of research in this still-emerging field (Macnamara and Zerfass 2012). For instance, it is asserted that "what we have seen has barely scratched the surface of what is coming and what is possible… there remain significant challenges both in the conceptualization of social media value and in its measurement" (Aral et al. 2013, p. 3) and a need to distinguish not only the direct effects of social media but also the impact on strategy. Stockdale et al. (2012) further highlight that empirical evidence of perceived social media value is currently scarce and largely anecdotal, and that the debate on this topic mirrors the on-going debate on the general use of IT to create business value: there is a recognition that measuring business value from IT has long been a problem for businesses. Nevertheless, despite the fact that the return on investment (ROI) of social media initiatives is difficult to identify and quantify, the need to establish a framework that enables the profitability of social media is said to be evident (Kaske et al. 2012).

Thus, what is noticeable within the literature is that in relation to the topic of social media and ROI, there is currently a lack of empirical research. This may be owing to the fact that many organisations are still trying to comprehend how to develop a social media strategy and identify the skills required for successful strategy execution, which has led to less attention being given to the actual metrics that companies will aim to use. Specifically focusing on the marketing context, significant attempts have been made by researchers to identify how to measure key impacts

of social media in relation to marketing; however, there remains a lack of empirical data and no comprehensive overview of what "ROI" can mean for an organisation seeking returns on their social media adoption. By knowing how to measure the return on investment from social media, it is asserted that companies can produce valuable insights which can help to enhance marketing strategies in promoting products and services (Misirlis and Vlachopoulou 2018). Thus, the aim of this chapter is to identify how previous studies have defined ROI in the context of social media marketing and to appreciate what metrics they have used to measure ROI in social media.

The structure of the chapter is as follows: first, the overview of existing research on social media is presented, followed by a section which discusses the ways in which previous studies have measured the return on investment in the context of social media marketing. Finally, the chapter is concluded, outlining limitations of previous research on social media marketing and proposing directions for future studies.

1.2 Social Media

Research on social media has moved beyond the initial studies focusing on the effective implementation of social media (e.g. Culnan et al. 2010). Various streams of research are emerging (see recent reviews on this theme by AlAlwan et al. 2017; Dwivedi et al. 2015; Kapoor et al. 2018) as academic interest in social media continues to grow. For example, Go and You (2016) suggest that one stream of research seeks to define what social media applications are and classify types of social media applications based on their unique characteristics, whereas another stream of research attempts to establish the types of social media applications that organisations are using and how specific types contribute to creating and maintaining the organisation–customer relationship. There are several other studies (Agarwal and Nath 2013; Cabiddu et al. 2014; Dewan and Ramaprasad 2014; Gallaugher and Ransbotham 2010; Leonardi and Meyer 2015; Leonardi 2015; Luo et al. 2013; Marion, et al. 2014; Parveen et al. 2015; Treem 2015; Xiang and Gretzel 2010) that explore the effect of social media on organisational processes including sales, branding, product development, human resources management, customer service and knowledge management. These effects ultimately have an impact upon the practices and performance within organisations. Furthermore, these studies highlight how social media is altering different aspects of an organisation's processes and structure. By structure, scholars (Harper 2015) mean context at which patterns of activities are carried out in relation to the purpose of the organisation. Process refers to a systematic series of actions directed by organisational members towards a goal (Harris et al. 2013).

From the above, and from the growing body of literature, it can be deduced that social media "represent one of the most transformative impacts of information technology on business, both within and outside firm boundaries"; this transformation is

said to extend beyond marketing and consumer behaviour, the way businesses relate to employees, for knowledge and expertise exchange within organisations, the disruption of industries such as news and publishing and redefining others such as retail (Aral et al. 2013, p. 3). Building on the transformative notion of social media, Scott and Orlikowski (2012) argue that social media generates multifaceted information dynamics that are propelling organisations in unexpected directions, redrawing boundaries and shifting relationships. It is because of the widely perceived benefits of social media (Stockdale et al. 2012) that private and public sector organisations' use of social media for corporate and organisational communication and public relations is increasing (Macnamara and Zerfass 2012).

1.3   Social Media and Measuring Impact/Return on Investment

Return on investment (ROI) is the relationship between profit and the investment that generates that profit and is widely used to examine the performance of an investment. As Kaske et al. (2012) highlight, executives are constantly having to consider trade-offs between competing strategic marketing initiatives and their decisions are largely based on profit maximisation. The authors further elaborate that traditional ROI measures have various challenges that have to be addressed when establishing a meaningful metric for social media since: (1) ROI measures ignore the long-term impact of brand equity which can lead to an underestimation of the financial impact of social media initiatives and creating forecasts for future time periods will be inaccurate; (2) senior management rely hugely on financial metrics; however, such metrics are insufficient to quantify and justify marketing investments which calls for non-financial metrics to be used. However, the latter "generally lack the level of approval that hard financial figures enjoy" despite being increasingly used (Kaske et al. 2012, p. 3900). Whether companies are adopting social media because they know it works or because they are afraid of not using it, how much a company chooses to invest in social media and how much they will continue to spend will depend on how effective the social media initiative proves to be in the longer term: the measurement of the ROI of social media/effectiveness is therefore a key factor in the long-term success of activities such as social media marketing (Gilfoil and Jobs 2012).

Thus, ROI fulfils the business need for a tangible profit from an investment. However, as literature increasingly suggests, there are a variety of new metrics that need to be considered when considering social media and, for instance, marketing. Social media marketing is said to be markedly different to other traditional methods of marketing in a number of ways. For example, compared to traditional marketing, social media/digital marketing is said to allow for the creation of quicker and easier marketing campaigns, faster and wider reach of a larger audience and more ease in measuring the effectiveness of a campaign through analytics (Dwivedi et al. 2015; Sathya 2015). Accordingly, it is said to require different

attention and strategy in order to achieve a more positive brand image and loyalty (Erdoğmuş and Cicek 2012).

Previously, metrics such as market share and sales volume were amongst the metrics being used in measuring marketing performance (Uitz 2012). There are attempts to measure social media performance by using likes, comments, ratings, clicks and changes in market share (Berkowitz 2009). Studies distinguish between different types of metrics such as activity based-metrics (followers, likes, shares), result-based metrics (conversations), volume measures (number of fans, likes, posts) and sentiment measures (provides information regarding overall emotions of the social media streams) (Dahl et al. 2016; Etlinger and Li 2011). However, some researchers argue that social media activity is immeasurable (DiStaso et al. 2011), while others state that not all measures are meaningless and the data should be interpreted and analysed with great care (Michopoulou and Moisa 2019). Buhalis and Mamalakis (2015) highlight further that previously, measuring the performance of online advertising involved using simple metrics such as the number of unique visitors, number of page views and cost per clicks and that now, different performance indicators are used to measure engagement, traffic, customer service, conversations and others, suggesting that different authors use different approaches and metrics to social media ROI. Hoffman and Fodor (2010) explicitly asked the question: "can you measure the ROI of your social media marketing?" and themselves responded "yes", so long as organisations are willing to forget traditional calculations of ROI. Instead of emphasising their own marketing investments and calculating the returns in terms of customer response, the authors suggest that managers should begin by considering consumer motivations to use social media and then measure the social media investments customers make as they engage with the marketers' brands. Thus, ROI cannot always be measured in financial terms, but in terms of customer behaviours (consumer investment) connected to a particular social media platform. Consumers' investment can include measures such as number of visits and time spent on the web site, valence of online reviews and, for example, number of posts on twitter about the brand. These investments can be applied to measure key marketing outcomes such as change in customer engagement, change in brand awareness and increases in electronic word of mouth (eWOM) communications. It is important for marketers to focus on objectives that allow them to focus on the value of using social media environments. In the social media environment, marketers are provided with opportunities to develop social media programmes which can help to deal with companies' objectives such as awareness, engagement and word of mouth communications. Metrics for social media applications should depend on the objectives (Hoffman and Fodor 2010). The following section presents measures used in the context of social media marketing.

Brand awareness. Brand awareness refers to the strength of brand presence on a consumer's mind (O'Guinn and Albert 2009). It plays an important role in consumer knowledge about a brand, which helps them to recognise and recall the brand (O'Guinn and Albert 2009; Riorini 2018) and influence their purchase intention (Chi-Hsun 2008; Kiseol 2010). Consumers who have high brand consciousness believe that brands represent their status (Liao and Wang 2009). Companies employ social

media to provide information about the company and increase consumer awareness of their brand. Brand consciousness can influence consumers to share their experiences and provide references through social media platforms to other consumers (Ismail 2017). Previous studies found a positive relationship between social media marketing and brand awareness (Siddique and Rashidi 2015; Riorini 2018; Yang and Kankanhalli 2014). For example, Riorini (2018) found a positive influence of social media marketing on brand consciousness of fashion products in Indonesia.

Traditionally, brand awareness was measured by using tracking studies and surveys. Online, marketers can use metrics such as search ranking; the number of times that a brand name is mentioned, the number of unique visits on the websites and the number of return visits on the website (Hoffman and Fodor 2010).

To increase consumer awareness about a brand, managers can provide informative and attractive news about the product and services that the brand is offering and use guarantees about the price and quality. Also, managers should create community groups on social media platforms, use customer loyalty programmes and provide discounts for consumers who used social media for purchasing (Riorini 2018).

Customer engagement/relationship. Customer engagement is defined as repeated interactions with satisfaction between customer and a company. Customer engagement enhances a customer's emotional connection with the company, product or brand (Shevlin 2007). Customer engagement plays an important role in predicting business performance and increasing sales (Neff 2007; Sedley 2008; Yang and Kankanhalli 2014). Undoubtedly, companies need to build strong relationships with their existing customers. Yang and Kankanhalli (2014) proposed a positive relationship between social media messages and customer engagement in China from their study on micro blogging platform Sina Weibo, which is similar to Twitter. Another study by Kim and Ko (2010) found that social media marketing positively influences customer relationships which, in turn, positively influences consumers' purchase intentions in the context of luxury fashion products in South Korea. It is important for companies to create trusted and intimate relationships with their existing clients. Companies should supply entertainment aspects of social media content and activities: every activity enabled by social media should provide entertainment to the customer (Kim and Ko 2010).

Yang and Kankanhalli (2014) attempted to provide metrics for customer engagement where it is measured as a formative variable that includes comments, likes and reposts. To measure engagement, the authors propose examining the ratio of likes (number of likes/number of total followers), comments (number of comments/number of total followers) and reposts (number of reposts/number of total followers). Some authors, on the other hand, argue that it can be problematic to measure consumer engagement. For example, Schultz and Peltier (2013) suggest that constructs such as "consumer-brand engagement" remain elusive constructs to define, conceptualise and operationalise within both a social media context and a broader consumer behaviour and marketing perspective. This therefore raises the question "are we actually measuring concepts/desired outcomes such as consumer engagement and are the metrics we use sufficient?"

Electronic Word of Mouth communications (eWOM). eWOM is defined as "the dynamic and on-going information exchange process between potential, actual, or former consumers regarding a product, service, brand, or company, which is available to a multitude of people and institutions via the internet" (Ismagilova et al. 2017 p. 18). eWOM communications play an important role on the consumer purchase decision (Ismagilova et al. 2019a; Sandes and Urdan 2013). Previous studies found that eWOM can affect a consumer's information adoption, attitude towards a product/service/brand/company and purchase behaviour (Ismagilova et al. 2019b; Lis 2013; Tsao et al. 2015). It is acknowledged that marketers aim to generate positive eWOM by using social media (Dwivedi et al. 2015; Kumar and Mirchandani 2012).

Considering the significance of eWOM, it is crucial for businesses to monitor eWOM conversations related to their brand/product/service/company which occur in the social media environment. By doing so, companies can have access to valuable information as well as influential people ("influencers")—individuals who are influential in determining others' behaviour and are interested in the company's product or service (Kumar and Mirchandani 2012). By using influencers, monitoring and tracking positive eWOM and linking this to product and brand growth, businesses will be able to develop more effective social media campaigns and "should, as a result, start to see enhanced financial performance, more customer engagement and increased brand awareness" (Kumar and Mirchandani 2012, p. 57). Companies can incentivise influencers via tangible benefits such as freebies and/or intangible benefits such as recognition in a social network to spread positive eWOM and create a buzz around the company's products and services. However, it is important to target influencers who are particularly interested in the company's category of services and products. Kumar and Mirchandani (2012) developed three new metrics to calculate the effect and value of social media influence: firstly, the Customer Influence Effect (CIE) which aims to measure the influence a user has on other users in a network. Secondly, the Stickiness Index (SI) aims to identify influencers who like to talk about a particular product/service and other types of topics these influencers discussed. Thirdly, the Customer Influence Value (CIV) accounts for an individual's influence on other customers and prospects to measure the monetary gain or loss realised by a social media campaign. In relation to an ice-cream company named Hokey Pokey which employed a seven-step process and utilised the said metrics, the authors state that the company realised increases of 40% in sales revenue growth, 83% in social media ROI and 49% in brand awareness.

In order to measure eWOM communications, companies can use the number of "likes", number of retweets/reposts, shares, incoming links, citations in other sites, tagging in social bookmarking, number of reviews posted, valence of reviews, number and valence of responses and number of references to reviews on other sites (Hoffman and Fodor 2010).

Table 1.1 provides a summary of key marketing outcomes, the associated metrics, key findings from the relevant studies, implications for marketers as well as limitations of the current studies on social media marketing and proposed future research directions.

Table 1.1 Key marketing outcomes

Effect of social media	Metrics	Key findings	Implication for marketers	Limitations/future research directions	Example of studies
Brand consciousness (awareness)	Number of times brand name is mentioned, number of unique visits on the websites, number of return visits on the website, search ranking, number of times bookmarked, number of tweets about the brand/ product/company, valence, number of followers/members. Number of page views, valence of posted content, number of reviews posted, number and valence of responses to reviews, number of with list adds, number of members/fans/followers/ reviews, number of installs of application, number of views of video/photo.	Brand consciousness refers to strength of brand presence on consumer's mind. It plays an important role in consumer knowledge about a brand, which helps them to recognise and recall the brand and influence their purchase intention.	To increase consumer awareness about brand managers can provide informative and attractive news about the product and services the brand is offering, use guarantee about the price and quality; create community groups in social media; use customer loyalty program and provide discounts for consumers who used social media for purchasing	(1) Studies are cross-sectional. Future research should perform a longitudinal study to see how social media marketing influences ROI in the long term. (2) Most of the studies focusing on Facebook and Twitter as social media platforms. Future research should focus on different types of platforms, which can improve marketing strategies for particular social media used.	Hoffman and Fodor (2010), Ismail (2017), Riorini (2018), Siddique and Rashidi (2015), Yang and Kankanhalli (2014)

| Customer engagement | Number of group members/followers/subscribers, number of comments, amount of user generated content, average length of time on site, number of responses to surveys (polls), length of the reviews, perceived helpfulness votes of the reviews, rate of activity (frequency of members personalizing their profiles, bios, etc.); ratio of likes (number of likes/number of total followers), comments (number of comments/number of total followers) and reposts (number of reposts/number of total followers). | It is defined as repeated interactions with satisfaction between customer and a company. Customer engagement enhances customer emotional connection with the company, product or brand improve business performance and increase sales. | Companies should provide entertaining content and make it easy for customers to engage in eWOM communications on their website. | (3) Focused on social influencers for b2c companies. Future research should use it various industrial settings (business to business). (4) Studies focus on limited categories of products (Kumar et al. 2013), future research should investigate the impact of social media marketing across different categories of products and services (Kumar et al. 2013). | Hoffman and Fodor (2010), Kumar and Mirchandani (2012), Yang and Kankanhalli (2014) |

Table 1.1 (continued)

Effect of social media	Metrics	Key findings	Implication for marketers	Limitations/future research directions	Example of studies
eWOM communications	Number of references to blog in other media, number of "likes", number of retweets/reposts, shares, incoming links, citations in other sites, tagging in social bookmarking, number of review posted, valence of reviews, number and valence of responses, number of references to reviews in other sites, number of times product included in users' lists, number of posts on wall, Customer Influence Effect (CIE), Stickiness Index, Customer Influence Value (CIV)	Marketers aim to generate positive eWOM by using social media. It is crucial for the businesses to monitor eWOM conversations related to their brand/product/service/company which occurring in the social media environment. By doing it companies can have an access to the valuable information and influential people ("influencers") as well as minimise the impact of negative eWOM.	Encourage providing online reviews (eWOM) from customers (Riorini 2018) and influences by using monetary (e.g. online vouchers, free delivery) and non-monetary incentives (e.g. reviewer of the month).	(5) Most of the studies investigate how social media marketing influence consumers, but limited number of studies investigate how it affects company's employees. It is important for future studies to fill this gap, especially in the case of small companies where the budget is usually limited. (6) Future research should consider emerging markets as findings can be different due to the cultural and social media adoption rates.	Hoffman and Fodor (2010), Kumar and Mirchandani (2012), Kumar et al. (2013)

1.4   Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Studies on ROI in the context of social media have the following limitations. First, most of the studies are cross-sectional. It is important for future research to perform a longitudinal study to see how social media marketing influences ROI in the long term. Second, the majority of studies focus on Facebook and Twitter as social media platforms (Spackman and Larsen 2017; Yang and Kankanhalli 2014). Future research should focus on different types of platforms which can improve marketing strategies for particular social media used. Third, studies focus on limited categories of products (Kumar et al. 2013) (e.g. luxury product, food) and future research should investigate the impact of social media marketing across different categories of products and services. Furthermore, the majority of studies investigate how social media marketing influences consumers, but a limited number of studies investigate how it affects the company's employees. It is important for future studies to fill this gap, especially in the case of small companies where the budget is usually limited. Fifth, studies focus on social media marketing for business to consumer (B2C) companies. Future research should use it in industrial settings (i.e., business to business context) as the results can be different due to the nature of the business. Sixth, studies on social media marketing have started focusing on ways to measure not only tangible ROI such as sales and purchases but also intangible such as eWOM, brand awareness and customer engagement (Hoffman and Fodor 2010; Kumar and Mirchandani 2012). However, more research is needed on intangible ROI and ways to measure it. Lastly, studies were performed in India (Kumar et al. 2013; Kumar and Mirchandani 2012), Spain (Saavedra et al. 2014), Turkey (Erdoğmuş and Cicek 2012), China (Yang and Kankanhalli 2014) and South Korea (Kim and Ko 2010). Future research should consider other countries as findings can be different due to the culture and social media adoption rates. Especially, future studies should pay attention to other emerging markets (such as Russia, Brazil and South Africa) as they suffer from the slow adoption rate of social media marketing. Some companies in these countries still rely more on traditional media for advertising of their products and services, as they are more trusted in comparison with social media channels (Ali et al. 2016; Olotewo 2016). Additionally, previous research claims that the consumer behaviour of emerging markets can vary from the developed market (Vohra and Bhardwaj 2016). As a result, marketing strategies which work good in developed markets may not work in the emerging nations.

1.5   Conclusion

This study identified main measures for ROI from previous studies on social media marketing. In order to measure the return generated by investing in social media, it is important to reconsider the traditional ROI approach (Hoffman and Fodor 2010; Lopresti 2014). Instead of calculating returns such as customer response, managers

need to start considering what motivations customers have to use social media. It is necessary to take into account not only short-term aims such as cost reduction and sales increases in the next month by using Facebook campaigns but also the long-term returns such as customer engagement, brand awareness and eWOM communications (Hoffman and Fodor 2010).

For social media strategy to be effective, it should have clearly defined marketing objectives, evaluate the opportunities and challenges and select a suitable form of social media to communicate with its existing and potential customers. Understanding ways of measuring ROI in the context of social media will help companies to improve their social media marketing strategy in promoting products and services, plan their budget and increase business performance.

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Chapter 2
The Effect of Fashion e-Blogs on Women's Intention to Use

Pantea Foroudi, Alireza Nazarian, and Ulfat Aziz

2.1 Introduction

As communication and information through digital platforms travel faster and faster, sharing experiences becomes easier and easier. As a result, this influences how the world communicates, especially in view of the current obsession with social media platforms.

Exposure in social media has a profound effect on the reputation of a business. Therefore, with its growing importance, it should not be seen as a fad but instead implemented as a new marketing strategy. The number of blogs that are currently written and read worldwide is hard to estimate but fashion-related blogs have increased by two million over recent years (Rickman and Cosenza 2007).

Formerly, consumers used to rely on the word of mouth opinions of others before purchasing a product. Now through social media and blogging it encourages "consumers' options for gathering unbiased product information from other consumers and provides the opportunity for consumers to offer their consumption-related advice by engaging in electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM)" (Hennig-Thurau et al. 2004, p. 39). Not only through this platform can you share personal experiences and recommendations in which currently, "approximately nine to ten million product or company-related comments from consumers are available to Internet" (Hennig-Thurau et al. 2004, p. 40), but you are also able to express your opinions to a large

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audience rather than an estimated maximum group of ten people. This reach is important, as the fashion industry relies on mass acceptance. Thus, the term "in fashion" was created. Nowadays, individuals are "using social networking platforms to communicate, but women are sharing their style through blogs at an ever-increasing rate" (Boyd 2015, p. 18).

What are the key elements and consequences of fashion e-blogs and what effects do fashion blogs have on women's intention to use them? There is a large body of research, in domains ranging from e-blogs, perceived ease of use, perceived usefulness and intention to use. The significance of this research is that even though social media, eWOM and blogs are becoming a normal way to communicate, the knowledge of the effects and influence of them on businesses are limited. While the use of blogs has already been widely investigated, the study of fashion e-blogs means that there is a gap in the research and makes the research valuable.

This chapter contributes to the research on blog brands. This study samples a significant segment of fashion blogging consumers. Overall, the investigation of the role of fashion blogs in determining women's intention to purchase is important, especially with the growing importance and influence of digital platforms today.

In the following sections, first we draw on existing research on fashion blogs. We identify (1) the key elements and consequences of fashion blogs and (2) how fashion blogs influence women's intention to purchase. Then, our conceptual model will be described. Finally, we conclude with a discussion and implications.

2.2 Blogs

In all industries, the concept of branding is valuable, but in a global, sprawling fashion market saturated with embryonic talents, good branding is indispensable (Gay 2014). This makes it crucial for businesses to explore every channel of communication for reaching the intended target market, in this case through the new approach of fashion blogging. Amir (2015) states that the word *blog* is the contraction from the word "weblog". This form of personal, user-generated content rather than edited information through a company is more attractive to consumers as it was more personable and relatable. According to Boyd (2015), the blogging platform can reach a much larger audience in much less time and, therefore, grabbing attention has become easier, affecting both businesses and readers, overall transforming the media dynamics.

Bloggers who, over a period of time, growa following are popularly considered to be "opinion leaders", as they have a powerful voice in society and affect businesses. "Opinion leaders influence because they generally have no personal stake in whether their opinions are heeded, so their opinions are perceived as unbiased and credible" (Hoyer et al. 2013, p. 304). This is especially important for the fashion industry as it is these people that can set the new fashion trends, essentially deciding what is "in" or "out" of fashion, affecting whether consumers purchase particular items or not.

Fashion blogs are critical players in the industry. Being fashionable requires individuals to keep up-to-date with the latest brands, collections and getting accurate information from influential people used to often end up being extremely costly. However, user-generated content through the platform of blogs has allowed for fashion to be more accessible to people. Even though, through the creation of fashion blogs, it is possible for anybody to share their opinions and either create or diminish a fashion concept "studies on the active blogging movement illustrate how rapidly a fashion cycle transpires online. Ideas circulated on blogs are generated, discussed, embellished, and forgotten on a quotidian cycle" (Liu and Donath 2006, p. 2). Since the spread of information online is rapid and not costly, investment should be made in quality information. Fashion bloggers, therefore, spend time and effort in researching and creating posts. As mentioned by Sedeke and Arora (2013), blog coverage of fashion online is easily accessible and interactive with its readers. They suggest that the interactive environment of blogs can be considered as a good marketing strategy for the fashion industry as the raw reviews and their growing social influence can guide readers on their purchasing intentions. It is understood that "more brands are shifting their focus toward integrated marketing campaigns that allow them to generate buzz around new products and strut their stuff" (Quin 2015) through the collaboration with blogs. For example, Burberry launched a "Burberry Kiss" campaign through the use of a blog and saw an increase in activity both online and offline (Quin 2015).

The area of blogs and fashion is fairly new and therefore it is first important to establish what essentially are the elements that can help create the blog and the consequences to it that can affect consumer decisions. It is important to understand as blogs are a part of the new digital era and people's acceptance of this is similar to what has already been investigated through new technology and innovations.

2.3 Research Framework

2.3.1 Technology Availability, Perceived Usefulness and Perceived Ease of Use

Rupanjali et al. (2013), defined technology availability as to how much individuals can believe in their systems. Dutot (2015) discovered that the more the technological infrastructures become easily and readily available, the more accessible and usable will be (p. 48) online applications, for example, fashion blogs as a focus for this study.

Renko and Druzijanic (2014) argue that companies' ability to use blogs effectively and their influence on readers need to be factors that should be understood to be beneficial and perceived to be useful to them. This suggests that through the correct use of the technology, the reader's perceived ease of use and usefulness would be impacted since it becomes more convenient for information finding and comparing becomes easier, thus the fashion blogs become more useful for users through the use of search bars, simple navigation and user-friendly interfaces (Zeithaml et al. 2002). Therefore, it was hypothesized that:

H1 The technology availability on fashion e-blogs impacts on (H1a) perceived usefulness and (H1b) perceived ease of use.

2.3.2 Content/Reviews, Perceived Usefulness and Perceived Ease of Use

In this research, content and reviews are considered to be essential elements of fashion blogs as well as their effects on perceived usefulness on blog readers. As explained by Cho and Sagynov (2015), content and reviews on fashion blogs can be described as the updated version of the traditional word of mouth (WOM) but online, which provides content to customers as they cannot physically see or feel the brand or products. The content and reviews posted on the blogs "describe product attributes in terms of usage situations and measure the product performance from a user's perspective" (Lee et al. 2008, p. 342). The offline method of determining if a product or brand is good or not is done through sensory methods and interacting with sales teams who try to influence decisions. However, with information available online and the introduction of fashion blogs, figuring out the usefulness of a product is decided through the content and reviews posted online. These are demonstrated visually through images, pictures, or videos or in a textual form through words, numbers or symbols (Li et al. 2015).

Content and reviews on fashion brands and products as provided through the online blogging platform has been perceived to be useful by readers since the availability of product information for comparisons has influenced their decisions offline, and increased their intentions to use the blogs again, also suggesting that personal reviews and recommendations posted on the blogs can be perceived to be useful to the readers (Tsao 2013). The ease of using the fashion blogs to find out reviews and general content has transformed consumers' offline habits and has been more useful to businesses as compared to the traditional media methods of advertising brands and products (Li and Hitt 2008). This is significant because fashion is an industry based on personal taste and opinions. Therefore, it was hypothesized that:

H2 Content/Reviews on fashion e-blogs impacts on (H2a) perceived usefulness and (H2b) perceived ease of use.

2.3.3 Social Influence, Perceived Usefulness and Perceived Ease of Use

Social influence is "another important situational factor influencing purchase behavior, refers to the interactive social influence of other people on impulse buying" (Tian and Lin 2015, p. 779) and for this particular study fashion blogs. Generally, "people often prefer to hear others' opinions before casting their vote" (Hertz et al.

2016, p. 164) on whether a product or brand is worthy of buying or not, especially in the case of fashion blogs in which consumers mainly rely on social approval to discover what is in and out of fashion. It can be understood that now individuals consider online communities, such as blogs, to have more of an influence on them compared to the traditional reference groups with whom they share mutual interests (De Valck et al. 2009).

Therefore, one blog's opinions on fashion could change the views of its reader instantly through social influence. Since fashion is a fast-moving industry, it is often the case that there is a great deal of discussion that takes place around trends and new styles (Kang and Park-Poaps 2011) and, for that reason, fashion blogs have influence that can be perceived as useful since readers would want to come back to the communities to see what the blogs are discussing in order to stay fashionable and this substantially increases their use of the blogs. For businesses especially, the usefulness of social influence from fashion blogs can be a make or break situation, since the blogs with large followings and high interactions could potentially lead to "viral marketing campaigns, i.e., using online consumer-to-consumer referrals as a means of multiplying the popularity of a brand, product, or company" (De Valck et al. 2009, p. 187) and generating sales merely through the level of social influence from blogs. The perceived ease of using, therefore, is also impacted by social influence on a fashion blog, as it would help users to find relevant information on the blogs easily. Consequently, it was hypothesized that:

H3 Social influence on fashion e-blogs impacts on (H3a) perceived usefulness and (H3b) perceived ease of use.

2.3.4   Security, Perceived Usefulness and Perceived Ease of Use

Safety and security are the two main factors which usually concern people online. Security can be described, "as a two dimensions concept including perceived security and privacy" (Dutot 2015, p. 47). As mentioned by Radomir and Nistor (2013), these two factors are essential when considering fashion blogs as a platform to influence their readers, since there is no physical contact involved and therefore the involvement of the consumers online through making comments on the blog plays a major role. Youn (2009) suggested that security on online platforms, such as fashion blogs, is a pivotal factor as there is usually uncertainty as to how the personal information will be used and who will be able to access it.

For businesses that are promoted by fashion blogs, security and the gathering of reader's information for future research and products can be seen as a complication as the interception of brands of products most of the time is unwanted. For that reason, if readers feel that their information is confidential and secure, then the blogs are perceived safe to use and readers using the blogs will not be monitored by businesses or any other unwanted attention. However, according to Rapp et al. (2009), most of the time readers are unaware on how their information inputted to

the blogs would be used, so the knowledge that the blogs are secure is perceived as useful and as it would encourage further participation. Therefore, it was hypothesized that security on blogs has an impact on their perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use. Therefore, we propose that:

H4 Security on fashion e-blogs impacts on (H4a) perceived usefulness and (H4b) perceived ease of use.

2.3.5   Trust, Perceived Usefulness and Perceived Ease of Use

The element of trust is crucial when it comes to considering fashion blogs. It is often considered that blogs that are seen as useful or easy to use by the reader if they meet their level of expectations of level of trustworthiness (Hudson et al. 2016) and consequently they are a way of building stronger relationships with the blog readers. According to Bleier and Eisenbeiss (2015), trust is a key component for consumers or, in this case, readers of fashion blogs in order to help them make decisions. So, if you trust what a fashion blog recommends is good to buy, the perceived usefulness of the information provided will influence the readers' intentions to use it again for decision making.

Trust can be defined as "a psychological state that comprises the intention to accept vulnerability based on positive expectations of the intentions or behaviors of another party" (Bleier and Eisenbeiss 2015, p. 396). According to Relling et al. (2016), trusting fashion blogs on new staples, for example, can result in a positive response from readers to increasing brand loyalty and overall enhancement of the relationship between the readers of the blog. Thus, trust and relationship building are the key when interacting online.

Fashion blogs that have high levels of interaction with their readers by encouraging participation build better quality relationships founded on trust (Hudson et al. 2016) Sandu and Abālāesei (2015) have shown that individuals have begun to have more trust in bloggers than marketers using traditional forms of communication. Consequently, trusting blogs can have "beneficial outcomes such as consumer loyalty, higher willingness-to-pay, repurchase intentions" (Saboo et al. 2015, p. 5), perceived ease of use and usefulness of information mentioned on the fashion blogs. Therefore, it was hypothesized that:

H5 Trust on fashion e-blogs impacts on (H5a) perceived usefulness and (H5b) perceived ease of use.

2.4 Effects of e-Blogs

2.4.1 Perceived Ease of Use, Perceived Usefulness and Intention of Use

As one of the key factors for the technology acceptance model (TAM), Davis (1989) describes that perceived ease of use is "the degree to which a person believes that use of a particular system would be free of effort" (p. 320). As understood when developing the research framework, TAM uses both perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness as dimensions to discover changes in behavioral intentions and how they influence intentions to use and acceptance of the new technology. For the context of this particular study "perceived ease of use refers to their perceptions regarding the process leading to the final" (Cho and Sagynov 2015, p. 26) result, thus, suggesting that if readers of fashion blogs, find it easy to use the blogs the intention to use will be affected too. Chen and Barnes (2007) also suggest that perceived ease of use is influential to the readers' intentions when attempting to adapt to new technology, such as blogs.

Blogs' primary focus is to provide a platform for interaction and information. Often the information provided can be seen as influential and useful to the reader, many times leading to impacting offline decisions and intention of use. The readers of fashion blogs demonstrate behaviour that shows their intention to use is in direct relationship with the individual's perceived ability to use (Qu et al. 2013). This suggests that the easier it is to use and understand blogs the more there is an increase in blog usage, whether it is to impact consumers' purchasing decisions or just the readers' overall interaction with the online community. Therefore, it was hypothesized that:

H6 Perceived ease of use on fashion e-blogs impacts on (H6a) perceived usefulness and (H6b) intention to use.

2.4.2 Perceived Usefulness and Intention to Use

Perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness are both significant components for the TAM framework. Davis (1989) defined perceived usefulness as "the degree to which a person believes that use of a particular system would enhance his or her job performance" (p. 320). This is a definition of the blogs online being investigated by readers and the relationship to their intention to use for the future. It highlights that "usefulness refers to the degree to which consumers believe using the Internet as a medium will improve their performance or productivity, thus enhancing the outcome" (Cho and Sagynov 2015, p. 24) of their overall experience.

Using fashion blogs assists in reinforcing the ideas suggested by the blog writers about what is being discussed, such as, for this particular study fashion reviews or
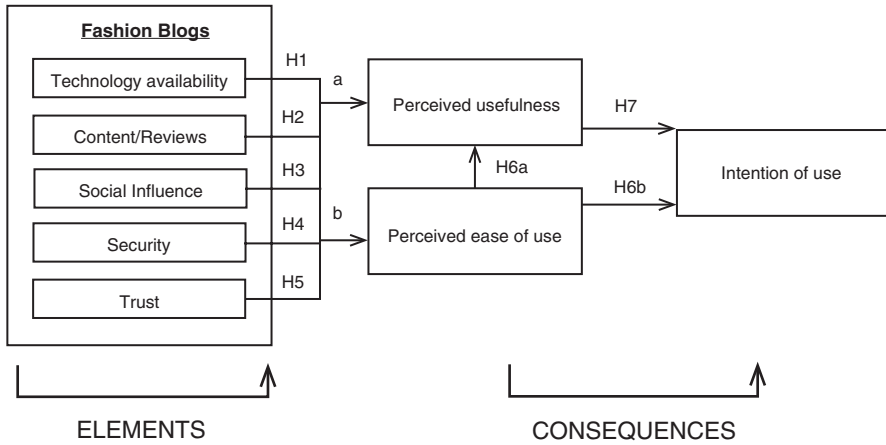
Fig. 2.1 Conceptual model

discussions. Bataineh et al. (2015) suggested the information provided on blogs can be expected to help in the perceived usefulness since if blogs seemed to be useful readers would intend to use them again to aid with making decisions. It is clear that the new eWOM platforms, such as fashion blogs and other social media, have transformed how consumers interact with brands and industries (Campbell et al. 2014). This is especially true of the information shared whether it is negative or positive which is perceived to be useful and affects the reader's intention to use (Saboo et al. 2015). Therefore, it was hypothesized that (Fig. 2.1):

H7 Perceived usefulness of fashion e-blogs impacts on an intention to use.

2.5 Methods

2.5.1 Data Collection

To carry out this research, quantitative data was collected to test and analyze the hypotheses. A self-completion online questionnaire was created, with short, specific questions related to the hypotheses and the data were analysed in order to attain the best possible results for this investigation. The questionnaire link was put online and shared across different social media platforms to maximize the reach and outcomes of the study, such as through personal Facebook pages.

The reason for focusing the study only on women was to make the research more specific, especially since women are now seen to be surpassing men in online consumption (Fallows 2005), so it was easy to decide that the sample focus for the research was to be women. However, for the study it is important to remember that there was no location, age or salary limitation placed on the participants, as it

allowed a better overview of blogger influence on all types of women readers, since the phenomenon is still very new and little investigation has been carried out on it.

The online survey was best suited for data collection as opposed to any other form of collection, such as the traditional pen and paper questionnaires. The online version has many different advantages, such as time efficiency and cost-efficiency, as the website used for the survey, "Typeform", was free of charge. The low cost, simpler coding methods and privacy guarantee (Kang and Park-Poaps 2011) were also benefits to the data collection process as opposed to any of the traditional routes.

Five blogs were selected according to the criteria of relevance in information on fashion and having a large amount of interaction with the readers (Kulmala et al. 2013). These blogs were selected from an article that was published that indicates the top 20 UK fashion blogs, which have a lot of interaction with readers. The fashion blogs "Raindrops of Sapphire", "The Fashion Police", "The Frugality", "5 Inch and Up" and "Retro Chick" were used in the current study. Since blogs are a platform with global reach and consumers, there was no specific geographical boundaries specified for the research except that the majority of survey responses were to be from the UK.

To evaluate our conceptual model, 52 responses were collected in a pilot study to test the validity, suitability and freedom from error of the measurements. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to recognize any patterns in the data (De Vaus 2002). In the main study, we obtained 150 usable questionnaires from women who interacted with the five fashion blogs included in the survey over a span of 2 weeks.

Of the usable responses, the majority of the participants, 38%, were aged 18–24, 26.7% were 25–34, 15.3% were 35–44, 10% were under 18 and, finally, the last 10% were 45 or older. According to the survey, 63% of the women were not heavy blog users which tends to confirm the suggestion of that blog reader/users are predominantly male. However, 36.7% of the participants were heavy blog users, before taking the test, and were browsing around the five case study blogs. This also confirms opinion that blogging is continuing to grow. A crosstabs descriptive test was also undertaken to help to understand at what age women become heavy blog users. The results in Table 6 show that 18–24-year-olds (20 out of 150 participants) were already heavy blog users, as compared to the other ages of women participating.

2.5.2 Measures

The measures of the survey were obtained from previous research. We used items recommended by Park (2009) and Wang and Lin (2011) to measure technology availability; from Dutot (2015), Park (2009) and Wang and Lin (2011) to measure content including reviews; from Dutot (2015), Hsu and Tsou (2011), Huang et al. (2010) and Wang and Lin (2011) to measure social influences; from Dutot (2015), Ho (2014), Hsu and Tsou (2011) and Huang et al. (2010) from Hsu and Tsou (2011), Hsu et al. (2013), Huang et al. (2010) to measure trust; from Dutot (2015), Hsu et al. (2013) and Huang et al. (2010) to measure perceived usefulness; from Dutot (2015),

Huang et al. (2010) and Park (2009) to measure perceived ease of use and from Hsu and Tsou (2011), Hsu et al. (2013) and Wang and Lin (2011) to measure intention of use. The items used in the current research were measured using a seven-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree) (see Table 2.1).

Table 2.1 Initial pool of items and key references

Items	References
Technology availability	
I am a heavy user of blogs. I had no difficulty accessing and using the blogs.	Park (2009)
The blogs systems are user friendly. The blogs provide rich multimedia playback functions. The blogs provide good searching functions.	Wang and Lin (2011)
Content/reviews	
I feel confident finding information on the blogs.	Park (2009)
The blogs' content/reviews help me shop.	Dutot (2015)
The blogs provide correct information. The blogs provide up-to-date information. The information provided on the blogs is useful to me.	Wang and Lin (2011)
Social influences	
The blogs influence my behaviour when buying products.	Dutot (2015)
Many people around me read blogs.	Wang and Lin (2011)
I can relate to other people through the blogs.	Hsu and Tsou (2011)
When reading information on the blogs, I feel the products are wanted. When reading information on the blogs, I feel the products are relevant to my life.	Huang et al. (2010)
Security	
I feel other people will not intercept my information transferred to blogs.	Dutot (2015)
I think the information receiving process on the blogs is free from being interfered by sales persons or friends.	Huang et al. (2010)
Participation in the blogs is perceptually interesting.	Hsu and Tsou (2011)
If I actively participated in the blogs, I would feel my details are safe. I frequently interacted with other members from the blogs and feel my details are safe.	Ho (2014)
Trust	
I believe the blogs' recommendations to be true. I trust information on the blogs to be true. The blogs are trustworthy.	Hsu et al. (2013)
I think the content/reviews on the blogs are reliable and trustworthy.	Huang et al. (2010)
I think that product information from the blogs is trustworthy.	Hsu and Tsou (2011)
Perceived usefulness	
Using the blogs can make things easier when considering brand and products.	Dutot (2015)
The blogs' recommendations will improve my shopping experience. The blogs' recommendations will enhance my shopping effectiveness. The blogs' recommendations can increase my productivity when shopping.	Hsu et al. (2013)

Table 2.1 (continued)

Items	References
I like to purchase credible and worthwhile products posted on the blogs.	Huang et al. (2010)
Perceived ease of use	
Overall, the blogs are easy to use. It is easy to become skillful at using the blogs.	Dutot (2015)
I think information on the blogs could be easily understood. I think the blogs provide good efficiency in information searching.	Huang et al. (2010)
Learning how to use the blogs is easy for me.	Park (2009)
Intention of use	
I will frequently shop after reading the blogs. I will strongly recommend others to read the blogs before purchasing.	Hsu et al. (2013)
It is worth reading the blogs. I will continue to use the blogs.	Wang and Lin (2011)
Given the opportunity, I intend to buy products that are posted (or discussed) on the blogs.	Hsu and Tsou (2011)

2.6 Analysis and Model Testing

Measuring the reliability of any type of data is essential as it helps to recognize the internal consistency of the variables being measured. For this study, the internal consistency reliability was tested using the Cronbach's Alpha technique to check the level of reliability for the total constructs being measured. The results for this show a score of 0.934, showing that the data is highly reliable and not manipulated as it exceeds the expected level of 0.7 (Andrew et al. 2011).

The different constructs were explored through correlation analysis. The Pearson's correlation coefficient, r, was conducted as can be seen from Table 2.1, in order to analyze the relationships between the different constructs (Jackson 2012) were measured with the r value to determine if they were significantly positive or negative. From Table 2.1, we can see technology availability (TA) and perceived usefulness (PU) are in a significant positive relationship ($r = 0.522$, $p < 0.05$). TA and perceived ease of use (PEU) showed a significant positive correlation ($r = 0.551$, $p < 0.05$). Content/reviews (CR) had a strong significant positive relationship with PU ($r = 0.742$, $p < 0.05$) and also had a significant positive association with PEU ($r = 0.673$, $p < 0.05$). Social influence (SI) had a significant positive correlation with PU ($r = 0.729$, $p < 0.05$) and PEU ($r = 0.593$, $p < 0.05$). Security (SE) also showed a significant positive relationship between both PU ($r = 0.553$, $p < 0.05$) and PEU ($r = 0.550$, $p < 0.05$). Trust (TR) had similar results showing a significant positive relationship with both PU ($r = 0.666$, $p < 0.05$) and PEU ($r = 0.552$, $p < 0.005$). PEU had a strong positive relationship with PU ($r = 0.728$, $p < 0.05$) and intention of use (IU) ($r = 0.624$, $p < 0.05$). Finally, PU also showed a strong positive significant correlation with IU ($r = 0.757$, $p < 0.05$) (Table 2.2).

Table 2.2 Pearson's correlation coefficients

	Technology availability	Content/reviews	Social influence	Security	Trust	Perceived usefulness	Perceived ease of use	Intention of use
Technology availability	1							
Content/reviews	0.619**	1						
Social influence	0.599**	0.726**	1					
Security	0.583**	0.623**	0.647**	1				
Trust	0.510**	0.702**	0.648**	0.665**	1			
Perceived usefulness	0.522**	0.742**	0.729**	0.553**	0.666**	1		
Perceived ease of use	0.551**	0.673**	0.593**	0.550**	0.552**	0.728**	1	
Intention of use	0.533**	0.712**	0.698**	0.707**	0.714**	0.757**	0.624**	1

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (Pearson correlation sig. (2-tailed)).

To further enhance the results and understand each variable better, a multiple linear regression was conducted to assess the relationship between the different independent and dependent variables (Hinton et al., 2014). These were tested with three different models. Model one was valid ($R2 = 0.710$, $p < 0.05$) and showed that this model addressed 71% of the variations, wherein TA, CR, SI, SE, TR and PEU were independent variables, and PU was the dependent variable. Model two was also valid ($R2 = 0.504$, $p < 0.05$) showing that the model addressed 50.4% of the variations, in which TA, CR, SE, SI and TR were independent variables and PEU was the dependent variable. The final model three was also valid ($R2 = 0.584$, $p < 0.05$), as it proposed that the model addressed 58.4% of the variations, in which PU and PEU were independent variables and IU was the dependent variable (Tables 2.3 and 2.4).

Table 2.3 Multiple regression summaries

Model	R	R square	Adjusted R square	Std. error of the estimate
1	0.843[a]	0.710	0.698	0.393
2	0.710[a]	0.504	0.486	0.534
3	0.764[a]	0.584	0.579	0.550

1. Predictors: (Constant), perceived ease of use; security; technology availability; trust; social influence; content/reviews
2. Predictors: (Constant), trust; technology availability; social influence; security; content/reviews
3. Predictors: (Constant); perceived ease of use; perceived usefulness

Table 2.4 Multiple regression coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients			Collinearity statistics	
		B	Std. error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	0.324	0.199		1.623	0.107		
	TA (technology availability)	−0.051	0.064	−0.049	−0.794	0.428	0.523	1.914
	CR (content/reviews)	0.224	0.082	0.219	2.729	0.007	0.315	3.176
	SI (social influence)	0.298	0.068	0.317	4.362	0.000	0.383	2.610
	SE (security)	−0.075	0.060	−0.085	−1.251	0.213	0.438	2.285
	TR (trust)	0.172	0.064	0.189	2.695	0.008	0.411	2.431
	PEU (perceived ease of use)	0.348	0.061	0.362	5.669	0.000	0.496	2.015
2	(Constant)	0.750	0.263		2.848	0.005		
	TA (technology availability)	0.158	0.086	0.148	1.838	0.068	0.535	1.870
	CR (content/reviews)	0.419	0.106	0.393	3.956	0.000	0.349	2.865
	SI (social influence)	0.109	0.092	0.112	1.184	0.238	0.387	2.585
	SE (security)	0.101	0.081	0.110	1.247	0.214	0.442	2.261
	TR (trust)	0.053	0.087	0.056	0.609	0.544	0.412	2.424

Table 2.4 (continued)

Model	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients			Collinearity statistics	
	B	Std. error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
3 (Constant)	0.030	0.253		0.119	0.905		
PU (perceived usefulness) PEU (perceived ease of use)	0.763 0.176	0.092 0.088	0.645 0.154	8.310 1.991	0.000 0.048	0.470 0.470	2.128 2.128

(1) Dependent Variable: PU; (2) Dependent Variable: PEU; (3) Dependent Variable: IU

2.6.1 Hypothesis Testing

All the hypotheses were tested and the results from the multiple regression analysis can be seen in Table 2.5, which highlights the standardized path coefficients (β), the standard error value and the p-value and the overall hypotheses result. The impact of technology availability (TA) on perceived usefulness (PU) is statistically insignificant ($\beta = 1.595$, $p = 0.428$). Thus, H1a is rejected. Similarly, TA had an insignificant impact on perceived ease of use (PEU) ($\beta = 0.086$, $p = 0.068$), so H1b is also rejected. Content/reviews (CR) had a significant impact on both PU ($\beta = 0.082$, $p = 0.007$) and PEU ($\beta = 0.106$, $p = 0.0001$). This means that both H2a and H2b are supported. Social influence (SI) had a statistically significant impact on PU ($\beta = 0.068$, $p = 0.0001$) but not on PEU ($\beta = 0.092$, $p = 0.238$). For that reason, H3a was supported but H3b was rejected. The impact of security (SE) on PU ($\beta = 0.060$, $p = 0.231$) and PEU ($\beta = 0.081$, $p = 0.214$) was shown to be insignificant; thus, H4a and H4b were both rejected. Similar to SI, trust (TR) had a significant impact on PU ($\beta = 0.064$, $p = 0.008$) and an insignificant impact on PEU ($\beta = 0.087$, $p = 0.544$). Therefore, H5a was supported and H5b was rejected. The impact of PEU on PU ($\beta = 0.061$, $p = 0.0001$) and intention of use (IU) ($\beta = 0.088$, $p = 0.048$) were both significant, so H6a and H6b are supported. Finally, the impact of PU on IU ($\beta = 0.092$, $p = 0.0001$) was also shown to be statistically significant and so was also supported. From the hypothesis testing, it was possible to determine the relationships between the different constructs; this can be seen in Fig. 2.2.

2.7 Discussion of Results

Technology Availability—The results illustrated that the positive relationship between the element of technology availability on fashion e-blogs and its impact on perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use. Interestingly, the results around technology availability suggested that there was no significant relationship between the constructs (TA on PU and PEU), which is inconsistent with the previous

Table 2.5 Results of hypotheses testing

Hypothesis	Relationship			β	S.E	P-value ($p < 0.05$)	Result
H1a	Technology availability	→	Perceived usefulness	−0.049	0.064	0.428	Rejected
H1b	Technology availability	→	Perceived ease of use	0.148	0.086	0.068	Rejected
H2a	Content/reviews	→	Perceived usefulness	0.219	0.082	0.007	Supported
H2b	Content/reviews	→	Perceived ease of use	0.393	0.106	0.0001	Supported
H3a	Social influence	→	Perceived usefulness	0.317	0.068	0.0001	Supported
H3b	Social influence	→	Perceived ease of use	0.112	0.092	0.238	Rejected
H4a	Security	→	Perceived usefulness	−0.085	0.060	0.231	Rejected
H4b	Security	→	Perceived ease of use	0.110	0.081	0.214	Rejected
H5a	Trust	→	Perceived usefulness	0.189	0.064	0.008	Supported
H5b	Trust	→	Perceived ease of use	0.056	0.087	0.544	Rejected
H6a	Perceived ease of use	→	Perceived usefulness	0.362	0.061	0.0001	Supported
H6b	Perceived ease of use	→	Intention of use	0.154	0.088	0.048	Supported
H7	Perceived usefulness	→	Intention of use	0.645	0.092	0.0001	Supported

literature about the construct. Previous researchers had suggested that if the correct technology is available to the consumer, then it will be easier to use and will eventually become more useful to them, especially with more visual aids or a friendlier user interface (Dutot 2015; Renko and Druzijanic 2014; Zeithaml et al. 2002). A possible justification for the difference in results from previous research could be that 36.7% were already heavy blog users before participation in the survey. This could imply that they previously had experience with blog interfaces and were already used to using the blogs that were suggested as a case study to them. Hence, the element of technology availability did not directly affect the readers' use or was seen as less critical in comparison to the rest of the elements and its impacts on perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use.

Content/Reviews—The results confirmed a positive relationship between content/reviews on fashion blogs and its significant impact on perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use. The results support the research of Tsao (2013), which highlights that content/reviews on fashion blogs help readers with their future decisions when considering certain brands or products as they are influenced by the recom-
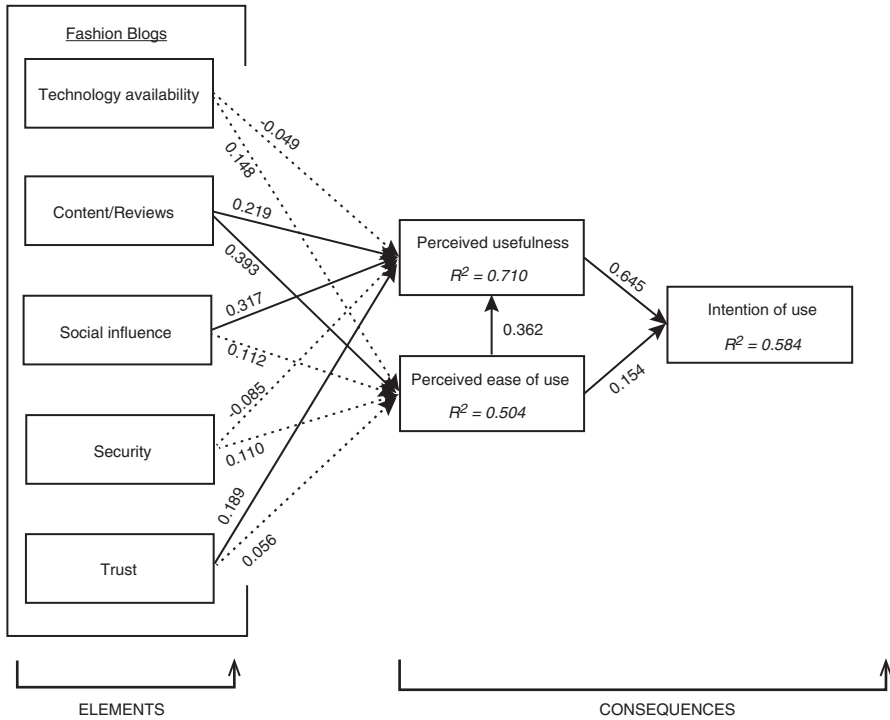
Fig. 2.2 Validated conceptual model

mendations and reviews provided by the blogs. Similarly, Li et al. (2015) had similar results from their research as they agreed that information provided online is easier to understand and for that reason becomes more useful to users. It confirms that content/reviews are the electronic version of word of mouth spread of communication (Cho and Sagynov 2015). It also highlights that those readers can find relevant content more easily and it seems to be a better method compared with traditional advertising (Li and Hitt 2008). The results surrounding content/reviews provide further evidence to the research already related to this construct.

Social Influence—From the findings, unexpectedly social influence showed a split on its impacts, since it showed a significant relationship to perceived usefulness but not to perceived ease of use. Our study supports the research of Hertz et al. (2016) which shows that individuals rely on others' approval and opinions before investing in something. This is mainly since fashion trends are primarily based upon society's influence. Therefore, social influence of blogs is highly supported and shown to be significant for its impact on perceived usefulness (Kang and Park-Poaps 2011). In contrast to the claims of previous studies of the effects of social influences on perceived usefulness, the findings showed an insignificant impact with perceived ease of use, contradicting the views of De Valck et al. (2009). Again, this could be linked to the fact that participants were already familiar with blogs and their social influence before, so its importance was undermined.

Security—Contrary to previous studies, the results highlighted that security was shown to have no impact on perceived usefulness or ease of use. Most of the time, when considering technology or fashion online, security is seen as a crucial component especially with knowing where your personal information will be used (Youn 2009; Rapp et al. 2009) becomes useful, and people are more comfortable and are more willing to use the blogs too. Involvement in the blogs especially with an industry like fashion in which individuals like to test or try the products, zero interference is essential when considering the privacy and security of the reader (Radomir and Nistor 2013). A possible explanation for this could be that the participants were only asked to browse the blogs since they had no reason to comment, participate or input any personal information. For that reason, the element of security could have been considered as an irrelevant factor for them when considering fashion blogs and their impact on perceived ease of use and usefulness, therefore, explaining the inconsistent results to those from previous studies.

Trust—The findings from the results reaffirm the impact of trust on perceived usefulness. It supports recent research around trust, in that, if you can build a trustworthy relationship with your readers, you will find the blogs to be useful (Hudson et al. 2016; Bleier and Eisenbeiss 2015; Relling et al. 2016). As suggested by Sandu and Abālāesei (2015), blogs are increasingly becoming a more trusted source compared to traditional marketers; this is supported in the results from the survey, as there was a very strong relationship with perceived usefulness. However, as predicted from the previous studies, the findings contradicted the theory that trust has impact on perceived ease of use of the fashion blog, as more trust means the readers are more willing to use the blogs and mostly find them easier to use (Saboo et al. 2015). This could again be explained with the fact that since the participants had no purpose when browsing the blogs, such as no intention to buy any fashion products, trusting the blog or bloggers did not impact their ease of use. Also, the fact that some women had already had experience with blogs, the perceived ease of use was a minor factor to consider since from the results the participants already found the blogs easy to navigate through from before being introduced to the survey.

Perceived ease of use—Consistent with the TAM approach suggested by Davis (1989), the results confirm that perceived ease of use impacts both perceived usefulness and intention of use. The questions that were asked to assess this construct assisted in supporting the concept that if you find adapting to new technology easy, you will probably intend to use it again, meaning that there is a clear direct relationship between intention of use and perceived ease of use (Chen and Barnes 2007; Qu et al. 2013). The results highlight the fact that even though there is a relationship between those two constructs, there is a stronger relationship with perceived usefulness, because if the user finds a blog easy to use it will be more beneficial to them and therefore lead them to making a better and more informed decision, as found by Cho and Sagynov (2015).

Perceived usefulness—Similar to perceived ease of use, Davis (1989) also introduced the concept of perceived usefulness. The results reiterated the previous studies that there is a strong direct relationship between perceived usefulness and intention of use (Cho and Sagynov 2015). As evident from the results, women who

found the blogs useful intended to use them again, supporting the claims of Bataineh et al. (2015). Our findings are also supported by previous literature which suggests that whether blogs provide positive or negative eWOM, they are still useful in aiding users' decision process or affects their intentions to use the fashion blogs (Campbell et al. 2014; Saboo et al. 2015). Thus, they confirm our result that there is a strong positive correlation between perceived usefulness and intention of use; also, a blog's impact on an intention of use plays a more significant role than perceived ease of use.

2.8 Conclusion and Implications

From the results of the study, there has been valuable information that has been spotlighted, which is significant for both others researching fashion blogs and businesses in the fashion industry. Insights into which elements and consequences of fashion blogs are more effective in impacting women's intentions of use have been clearly identified. Women's blogging habits and behaviors have provided significant insights into this particular demographic for both future researchers and for managers and businesses in the fashion industry. Overall, this study helps in providing valuable information on the role fashion blogs play on women's intention of use.

This research aimed to add valuable contributions to the prior literature on the role of fashion blogs and the intention of use. As identified from the literature review, the gap in the study addressed blogs and fashion, especially concerning women, needed to be investigated. Another meaningful contribution of our study is our conceptual framework which highlights the different elements and consequences for fashion blogs in order to fully analyze the effects on women's intention of blog usage.

2.8.1 Theoretical Implications

This research provides significant contributions to the literature of fashion blogs and women's intention to use them. From the framework that was modified from the previous study based on the TAM approach, it is clear that not all elements that were initially included were found to be important to fashion blogs and women's intention of use. The study highlights the fact that even though each element had a positive impact, not all of them were significant to the research problem and to women's intention of use. From what has been discovered, it is clear that only the content/reviews, social influence, and trust are the key elements of fashion blogs, as compared to technology availability and security as was initially proposed. However, prior research and theories did support the importance of perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use and intention of use and the relationships between them. From the results, the adopted TAM model for fashion blogs suggests that perceived

usefulness has more impact than intention of use as opposed to perceived ease of use. From our study, it can be assumed that the external variables for the TAM model created for this particular research, should be reassessed when considering fashion blogs, as only some of the elements were relevant or had impact in the study as a whole.

2.8.2   Managerial Implications

Following the discussion of results and the theoretical implications identified, our study has several implications for marketers when considering fashion blogs in the future. Since this research determined that technology availability was considered to be a critical component of blogs, managers of brands could take this result on board and help develop better blog or website, as the more engaging and interactive site could eventually lead to more business.

This study can help managers and future fashion brands for target marketing. They can use the findings as a reason to build more relationships with bloggers, to generate more sponsorship, and to utilize the fashion blogs as a more efficient and convenient platform to engage with the modern digital consumers online, as highlighted from the results that women prefer and trust blogs versus the traditional marketing methods of advertising.

Fashion blogs are a useful tool for managers to adopt as they could potentially build brand loyalty because the social influence of the bloggers could sway women's final purchase decisions. Not only could they build brand loyalty but access to blogs is universal and they are easily accessible. Thus, they are a new way to attract a mass market at practically no cost. As mentioned earlier, we can see that managers and fashion brands have already started to accept the fact that fashion blogs are significant in this industry (Schaer 2011); so, the quicker the adoption, the more beneficial it will be to a business.

2.8.3   Limitations and Future Research

This research analyzed the role of fashion blogs on women's intention to use. It assessed each element of fashion blogs as well as their consequences while examining the relationships between each factor in our conceptual framework.

Our study had two main limitations. The first limitation was that the sample was not filtered for the location of the users. For that reason, in the future, it is recommended that the research is conducted on one specified location, for example, the UK, so that the data collected would be a more accurate reflection for the sample of women participants. Also, the fashion blogs that were selected for the research were all from the UK. If different fashion blogs had been chosen, for example from the USA, the results may have differed. Therefore, future research could study fashion

blogs that are successful in different location so that the results could be compared with the UK fashion blogs. The research design selected for the study could also be considered as another limitation. All the research measurements tools and instruments were created through previous research models and research conducted around the topic with similar measuring scales. Even though this research measurement technique was successful; the result may have varied if other measuring tools had been used. Considering that the research dealt with feelings and reactions of women on fashion e-blogs, in the future, it would be recommended to conduct a qualitative research approach through face-to-face interviews, to obtain subjective reactions of women to help support the data collected from the quantitative approach of online questionnaires. The research aimed to fill the gap in the subject about the role of fashion e-blogs on women's intention of use. For this reason, for future studies, men's perspective could also be explored, in which this research on women could be used as a starting point for future investigations.

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Chapter 3
Investigating the Impact of Social Media Commerce Constructs on Social Trust and Customer Value Co-creation: A Theoretical Analysis

Raed Salah Algharabat, Nripendra P. Rana, Ali Abdallah Alalwan, and Abdullah Mohammed Baabdullah

3.1   Introduction

As one of the main privileges of Web 2.0 applications, social commerce is a new trend accelerated by the revaluation taking place over the social media marketing area. This has contributed several utilities such as it enhances customers' ability to establish a product's content, to provide social support, to share information, to rate and review customers' opinions, and to recommend brands. According to Liang et al. (2011), social commerce could be described as the main online commerce transactions that are empowered and conducted by the facilities of social media and Web 2.0 applications. The importance of studying this field comes as a result of the rapid growth in social commerce research in recent years (Lin et al. 2017). Thus, the related issues of social commerce have been recently considered as one of the main trends worth researching due to its impact on the business and marketing implications (Lin et al. 2017) and due to its ability to combine business, people,

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technology, and information (Algharabat et al. 2018; Gutierrez et al. 2019; Kamboj et al. 2018; Wang and Zhang 2012; Yang et al. 2017). Moreover, extant literature (Ahmad and Laroche 2017; Aswani et al. 2018; Kapoor et al. 2018; Lin et al. 2017; Manika et al. 2017) within the area of social commerce indicates the need for more detailed investigations in different topics in this field.

Extant literature in this field has discussed how social commerce constructs could influence customer engagement and customer value creation (Zhang et al. 2017), the impact of positive and negative review on electronic word of mouth within social commerce (Ahmad and Laroche 2017; Dwivedi et al. 2015; Roy et al. 2018; Saumya et al. 2018; Shareef et al. 2018c, 2019), and the relationship between social commerce and an organization's strategies (Manika et al. 2017). To that end, Lin et al. (2017) posit that previous research in social commerce revealed two main trends: (1) innovation, corporate reputation, and user-generated content, and (2) online reviews, trust, and e-word-of-mouth, which have attracted more attention from researchers recently. In particular, within social commerce context, there are a few papers that have examined the impact of social commerce constructs on consumers' value co-creation. For instance, Zhang et al. (2017) investigated the impact of customer engagement on customer value creation. Tajvidi et al. (2017) provided further evidence explaining how brand value co-creation could be shaped by the impacting role of social support and relationship quality. Kao et al. (2016) investigated, conceptually, co-creating value with customers. On the other hand, Kim and Park (2013) assert that social commerce characteristics impact consumer trust, which in turn affects trust performance. Li (2019) argues that social commerce constructs impact customers' virtual experience, which in turn impacts trust in product recommendations.

3.2 Theoretical Foundation

The rational linkages between social commerce constructs, namely ratings and reviews; recommendations and referrals; and forums and communities with social trust, come as we aimed, within a Middle Eastern context, to understand the impact of social commerce constructs on creating social trust, which in turn affects value co-creation. Thus, due to the collectivist nature of the Middle Eastern societies, we believe that users' ability to navigate social media platforms and thus to flow other customers' responses via social commerce constructs often ends up with a type of trust (social). The main reason behind building such social trust comes as a result of (1) customers' ability to trust more the content coming from the customers' community rather than that coming from the organizational side. (2) Customers find other customers' content and posts more useful and beneficial to their purchasing and consuming process, as long as the level of social trust is high from the customer's perspective. Accordingly, at this stage users will have a kind of trust (i.e., social) that will enhance SNSs' interaction between customers and the online

enterprise as well as between customers themselves to co-create their personal values (e.g. utilitarian, hedonic, and social). Thus, customers with similar values are expected to get together at the same SNS. Therefore, we noticed that extant literature did not explore or link the impact of social commerce constructs on social trust, which in turn impact customer value co-creation. Hence, the current research aims to identify this gap and to propose a conceptual framework that highlights the linkage between social commerce constructs, social trust, and customer value co-creation. We did not find any research in the context of social commerce that linked the nature of the relationships between the proposed constructs of the current study. For instance, is there any relationship between social commerce constructs (second-order) and social trust? Does social trust in SNSs influence customer value co-creation from a social commerce perspective? Such issues will be discussed further in the conceptual model section.

3.3 Literature Review and Proposed Hypotheses

3.3.1 Social Commerce Constructs

Social commerce is a sub-set of e-commerce that enables consumers to be actively engaged in a commercial exchange process in social media platforms (Huang and Benyoucef 2013; Rana et al. 2019; Shareef et al. 2018a, b; Shiau et al. 2017, 2018), and allows the creation of content that allows users to share their experiences over different social media platforms via sharing their information. There are two types of social commerce taking place: (1) sites that are utilizing Web 2.0 tools (e.g., Amazon) and that facilitate customers' content generation, although this type makes consumers' interactions limited, due to the lack of customers' ability to tag others and to send messages privately (Huang and Benyoucef 2013); (2) SNSs that utilize e-commerce features. Such social commerce platforms provide customers with channels to socially connect with others and make them more willing to initiate their value co-creation by sharing more experiences and information as well as creating their own content. In line with Curty and Zhang (2013), social commerce is a matter of commercial activities that take their own place over social media platforms. Similarly, Stephen and Toubia (2010, p. 215) define social commerce as "forms of Internet-based social media that allow people to participate actively in the marketing and selling of products in online marketplaces and communities". Hajli (2015) posits that the social commerce construct consists of the three dimensions: ratings and reviews (regarding a particular brand or product over the social media platform which provides other customers with the needed information), recommendations and referrals (based on consumers' experience), and forums and communities (which facilitate consumers' social interactions regarding a particular brand).

As discussed above, the area of social commerce is quite new, and a limited number of studies have examined this phenomenon and its related issues. Accordingly, to gain further understanding about how a customer's perception could be affected by the role of social commerce, a number of exploratory interviews were conducted. Practically, ten master and ten bachelor students from the University of Jordan were interviewed before proposing the current study model. Indeed, it was a very strong necessity to see how social commerce could enhance customer social trust as this relationship has not been fully explained by prior studies. Most participants have assured that they are likely to trust and depend on the main aspects of social commerce such as ratings and reviews, recommendations and referrals, and forums and communities. To put it differently, those respondents express that they trust more the content coming from a customers' community rather than that from the organizational side. Also important is that a good number of participants mentioned that they are more likely to find such content and posts more useful and beneficial to their purchasing and consuming process if they have a higher level of social trust. This, in turn, supports including functional value as a consequence of social trust in the conceptual model. Other interviewees also demonstrated that they have more fun, joy, and enjoyment as long as the level of social trust is more. Thus, this study recognizes the need to examine the impact of social trust on hedonic value. Social value was also another important outcome of social trust that has been reported by an adequate number of interviewees, which, in turn, asserts the importance of the inclusion of a causal path between social trust and social value.

3.3.2   Customer Value Co-creation

Previous research on value co-creation (i.e. Alalwan et al. 2017; Baabdullah et al. 2019; Prahalad and Ramaswamy 2004; Vargo and Lusch 2008) asserts that this notion is based on the dialogue and interactions between producers and customers to co-create their value via building together personalized service (Grönroos 2008; Schau et al. 2009). Therefore, recent research on social media conceptualizes customer value co-creation according to the interaction between customers and the online enterprise as well as between customers themselves (Schau et al. 2009). Thus, within SNSs customers are interacting and socializing with each other to achieve different values (e.g. utilitarian, hedonic, and social) (Baabdullah 2018a). Extant literature regarding value co-creation (Alalwan et al. 2018a, b, c; Algharabat 2018; Dholakia et al. 2004; Foster et al. 2010; Shareef et al. 2017; Zhang et al. 2017) within SNSs shows that value co-creation consists of three dimensions: (1) functional (i.e. information seeking and updating; Lee et al. 2014; Zhang et al. 2017), (2) hedonic (i.e., emotions and feelings, Zhang et al. 2017), and (3) social value (i.e. customers' social self-conception and having social interaction via social media platforms; Jahn and Kunz 2012; Yu et al. 2013; Zhang et al. 2017). Thus, customers with similar values are expected to get together at the same SNS (Baabdullah 2018b).

3.3.3   Social Commerce Constructs and Social Trust

Social trust relates to an individual trait which shapes a customer's worldview regarding the benevolence of other users within SNSs. Therefore, social trust could be deified as customers believe regarding other SNSs users trustworthiness (Rothstein and Uslaner 2005; You 2012). Within the context of social commerce, there have been discussions on the importance of social trust as a tool which provides SNSs with benefits such as reducing transaction costs (Mutz 2005), increasing the probability of customers shopping online (Mutz 2005), enhancing economic growth for the targeted countries (Mutz 2005), and reducing risks (regarding security and privacy and online behaviour) associated with buying brands over SNSs (Aljifri et al. 2003; Grazioli and Jarvenpaa 2000; Mutz 2005). All the above benefits come as a result of people buying within the SNSs not knowing each other. Therefore, social trust is considered as an important factor within this context. Thus, social commerce using Web 2.0 facilitates customers' interaction and increases their social trust via their ratings and reviews over a particular SNS (Han and Windsor 2011; Swamynathan et al. 2008). Hence customers trust the information provided by other customers in comparison to the e-vendor (Do-Hyung et al. 2007). As a result of the social interactions (via consumers' ratings and reviews and recommendations and referrals), customers allows themselves to exchange information and expediencies with other customers which enrich their knowledge, increase their trust of the brands, and impact their purchase decisions (Lu et al. 2010).

As discussed above, the area of social commerce is quite new, and a limited number of studies have examined this phenomenon and its related issues. This is in addition to the fact that the main outcomes of customer social trust are not adequately covered by prior studies. Accordingly, to gain further understanding about how a customer's perception could be affected by the role of social commerce, a number of exploratory interviews were conducted. Practically, ten master and ten bachelor students in the University of Jordan were interviewed before proposing the current study model. Indeed, it was a very strong necessity to see how social commerce could enhance the customer social trust as this relationship has not fully explained by prior studies. Most participants have assured that they are likely to trust and depend on the main aspects of social commerce such as ratings and reviews, recommendations and referrals, and forums and communities. To put it differently, those respondents express that they trust more the content coming from a customers' community rather than that from the organizational side. Also important is that a good number of participants mentioned that they are more likely to find such content and posts more useful and beneficial to their purchasing and consuming process if they have a higher level of social trust. This, in turn, supports including functional value as a consequence of social trust in the conceptual model. Other interviewees also demonstrated that they have more fun, joy, and enjoyment if they have a higher level of social trust. Accordingly, it was important to consider the impact of social trust on hedonic value. Social value was also another important
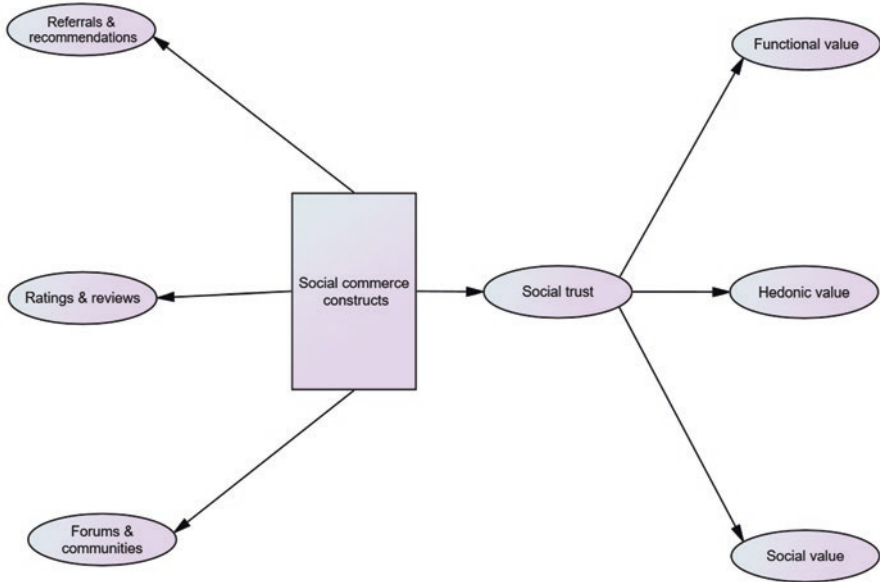
Fig. 3.1 Proposed research model. (Adapted from: Chu and Choi 2011, Zhang et al. 2017)

outcome of social trust that has been reported by an adequate number of interviewees, which, in turn, asserts importance of the inclusion of a causal path between social trust and social value. Figure 3.1 was therefore proposed on the results of exploratory interviews conducted by the current study research group alongside what has been discussed and proved by prior studies in the related area, as will be discussed in the rest of this paper (for the proposed items that can be used for future research using the current research proposed model, see Appendix).

A positive association has been proved by prior studies between different dimensions of social commerce and social trust. For instance, Park (2002) posits the positive relationship between customers' participation, in an online context, and trust among customers. Sashi (2012) asserts that customers' participation in different activities online enhanced their emotional bonds, commitment, and trust. Extant literature on online brand communities (Dabholkar and Sheng 2012; Kamboj et al. 2018; So et al. 2014) asserts the positive relationships between customers' participation, interaction, and trust. The authors propose that social commerce constructs positively impact social trust. Kim and Park (2013) assert that trust in social commerce organizations increase customers' intentions (purchase and word-of mouth). Thus, we propose the following:

Proposition 1a There is a positive relationship between social commerce constructs (second-order) and social trust.

3.3.4   Social Commerce Constructs and Customer Value Co-creation

Previous research on social commerce posits the positive relationship between social commerce constructs and customer value co-creation. For instance, Gensler et al. (2013) assert that social media strengthens the interaction between online communities and thus enhances consumers' brand-generated stories with other online community members. Other researchers posit the positive relationship between some of the dimensions of social commerce constructs and customer value co-creation. For instance, Algharabat (2017) found a positive relationship between liking, sharing information, and social value. As stated by Richard and Guppy (2014), customers usually follow and like brands on social media platforms as a kind of expression about their intention to catch and be updated about all news and information regarding the targeted brands. For instance, with intention to share their experience and knowledge regarding a particular brand, a customer is more likely to be engaged in different activities and conversations on the brands posted in Facebook pages. Consumers' interaction with a particular brand, in the form of liking it on Facebook, is a tool that informs friends on Facebook about the brand and hence affects consumers' social value (Wallace et al. 2017). Thus,

Proposition 1b There is a positive relationship between social commerce constructs (second-order) and customer value co-creation.

3.3.5   Social Trust and Customer Value Co-creation

Within the service-dominant logic, trust is formulated as a result of the dialogue and customers' interactions (Durugbo and Pawar 2014); therefore, co-creation is the expected result. Previous research (Prahalad and Ramaswamy 2004) found a positive relationship between trust and co-creation. For instance, in a relationship which is characterized by a high level of trust, customers are motivated to be involved in a social exchange. Accordingly, over the online community, a level of customers' trust between themselves is highly requested to guarantee an extant level of value co-creation (Alalwan et al. 2016; Ridings et al. 2002; Wu and Sukoco 2010). In the context of SNSs, the interaction between customers and enterprise as well as customers resulted in getting more information regarding the brand or product category. Therefore, customers would pay more attention to other trusted customers in order to have more useful information from a particular SNS (Lin and Lu 2011; Zhang et al. 2017). Meanwhile, other customers used many of the SNSs to get more pleasure and emotional benefits (Van der Heijden 2004; Zhang et al. 2017) due to the nature of the content, which contained humour and jokes. Additionally, customers' main reasons

to participate in social commerce could be justified in them showing their status. Thus, we propose that social trust should be the main antecedents for customers' values. Hence, we propose the following:

Proposition 2a There is a positive relationship between social trust and customer hedonic value.

Proposition 2b There is a positive relationship between social trust and customer utilitarian value.

Proposition 2c There is a positive relationship between social trust and customer social value.

3.4 Discussion

3.4.1 Empirical Methodologies

Based on extant literature, to test our proposed theoretical model we advise researchers to conduct a survey to collect the data using social media platforms as their destination. Therefore, to measure social commerce constructs, we recommend using Hajli's (2015) scale (second-order), which consists of four items to measure referrals and recommendations, four items to measure forums and communities, and three items to measure ratings and reviews (Pagani and Mirabello 2011). To measure social trust, we recommend researchers employ Chu and Choi's (2011) scale. To measure customer value co-creation dimensions (functional, hedonic, and social values), we recommend researchers employ four items of functional value (Jahn and Kunz 2012; Zhang et al. 2017), three items of hedonic value (Jahn and Kunz 2012; Zhang et al. 2017), and three items of social value (Jahn and Kunz 2012; Zhang et al. 2017).

3.4.2 Theoretical Contributions

This research investigates the impact of social commerce constructs on social trust, which, in turn, impacts the three dimensions of customer value co-creation (functional, hedonic, and social values) in SNSs. Therefore, the authors developed a theoretical model for studying the relationships between the study constructs. Furthermore, the authors also propose social trust in SNSs as a mediator between social commerce constructs and customer value co-creation. The developed model in the current study investigates the impact of a new topic in marketing research from three perspectives. First, the development of our model should advance

marketing scholars' knowledge on how employing social commerce constructs in SNSs affects social trust. This contributes to the extant literature by adding, theoretically, more literature to fill this gap in studying the impacts of social commerce constructs on social trust, which has not been tested enough empirically using SNS platforms. Second, this study considers one of the earliest studies which discovered the relationship between social trust and customer value co-creation. Prior research focused on different measures to measure customer value co-creation but not the three dimensions (functional, hedonic, and social values) of value which have been proposed in this research. Third, studying the effect of the mediation impact of social trust between social commerce constructs and customer value co-creation is considered another theoretical contribution in the current study.

3.5   Conclusion

The current research aims to identify this gap and to propose a conceptual framework which highlights the linkage between social commerce constructs, social trust, and customer value co-creation. A number of exploratory interviews were conducted to gain further understanding about how the customer's perception of customer value co-creation and social trust could be affected by the role of social commerce. Accordingly, the current model proposes that social commerce constructs (second-order; ratings and reviews, recommendations and referrals, and forums and communities) impacts social trust, which in turn affects customer value co-creation dimensions (functional value, hedonic value, and social value) in social network sites (SNSs). Based on extant literature, to test our proposed theoretical model we advise researchers to conduct a survey to collect the data using social media platforms as their destination.

3.5.1   Limitations and Future Research Directions

Our research suffers from the following limitations. First, we have proposed a theoretical framework for our study which has not been tested. We recommend future research to test empirically our proposed model. Second, it is possible that we missed some constructs, such as purchase intension of the SNSs, or other types of trust. Therefore, we recommend future research to add and test such constructs. Third, we employed the scale of previous research (Alalwan 2018; Jahn and Kunz 2012; Zhang et al. 2017) to measure customer value co-creation. Thus, we recommend researchers employ other scales (Dong et al. 2008) for customer value co-creation and compare the results.

Appendix

Construct	Author(s)
Social commerce constructs (SCC)	
Ratings and reviews (RR1–RR3) RR1: I am interested in ratings and reviews from other users. RR2: The members who rate and review products on this SNS are fairly knowledgeable about the site's topics. RR3: A major reason I like this SNS is the ratings and reviews from other users.	Pagani and Mirabello (2011), Hajli (2015)
Recommendations and referrals (RERE1–RERE4) RERE1: I am interested in reading recommendations and referrals from other users. RERE2: The members who recommend and refer products on this SNS are fairly knowledgeable about the topics. RERE3: A major reason I like this SNS is the recommendation and referrals from other users. RERE4: This SNS does a good job of getting its visitors to make recommendations.	
Forums and communities (FC1–FC4) FC1: I feel my friends on forums and communities are generally frank. FC2: I feel my friends on forums and communities reliable. FC3: Overall, my friends on forums and communities are trustworthy. FC4: I trust my friends on forums and communities and share my status and pictures with them.	Han et al. (2011), Pagani and Mirabello (2011)
Social trust (ST1–ST5) ST1: Most people tell a lie when it is for their benefit. ST2: Most people do not cooperate because they only pursue their own interests. Thus, things that could be done well through cooperation often fail because of these people. ST3: Those people devoted to unselfish causes are often exploited by others. ST4: Would you say that most of the time most people are trying to be helpful or that they are mostly just looking out for themselves? ST5: Do you think most people would try to take advantage of you if they got a chance, or would they try to be fair?	Mutz (2005), Chu and Choi (2011)
Value co-creation	
Functional value (SV1–SV4) FV1: The content (information) of this SNS is helpful for me. FV2: The content (information) of this SNS is useful for me. FV3: The content (information) of this SNS is functional for me. FV4: The content (information) of this SNS is practical for me.	Jahn and Kunz (2012), Zhang et al. (2017)
Hedonic value (HV1–HV3) HV1: I feel pleased and relaxed in this SNS. HV2: I gain joy and happiness in this SNS. HV3: I feel inspired in this SNS	Kuo and Feng (2013)
Social value (SV1–SV2) SV1: I can make friends with people sharing common interest with me in this SNS. Helps strengthen my connections with other members. SV2: I can expand my social network through participation in this SNS.	

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Chapter 4
Exploring the Demographic Differences on Customers' Adoption of Social Commerce in Saudi Arabia

Salma S. Abed and Shaza W. Ezzi

4.1 Introduction

Social media allows individuals to connect with each other online generally or on a particular subject (AlAlwan et al. 2017; Kapoor et al. 2018). Recently, the number of online members on social media has increased massively. For example, Facebook has registered 1.06 billion monthly active users, 680 million mobile-active users, and 618 million daily active users in December 2012 (Tam 2013). In fact, the popularity of social media is extremely obvious by the huge number of users, as it has become a new phenomenon that transformed the online communication (Dwivedi et al. 2015; Grover et al. 2018). Accordingly, Saudi Arabia has observed the largest growth of social media diffusion in the Arab world. This is the strongest enabling factor of e-commerce adoption in the Kingdom (Orloff 2012). Based on Arab Social Media Influences Summit (2015), about 87% of social media users in the Arab world are subscribed on Facebook. The subscription rate is 80% of total Facebook users in Saudi Arabia, 81% of the subscribers in Saudi Arabia visit Facebook on a daily basis, and 76% access Facebook by their smartphones and/or tablets. Consequently, companies are starting to make greater use of social media to build closer links with customers and suppliers (Abed et al. 2015; Kapoor et al. 2018). Therefore, many firms have been creating new ways to make profitable use of

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social media applications (Shiau et al. 2018, 2017). As a result, the development of social media has enhanced a new e-commerce model named social commerce (s-commerce). This S-commerce could be defined as a concept of internet-based social media that allows people to actively participate in marketing and selling off various products and services in online marketplaces (Abed et al. 2016). This dynamic process allows companies to provide better information about different products and services to consumers (Abed 2018). However, limited empirical research has been conducted in social commerce's context, (Kim et al. 2008; Ng 2013; Noh et al. 2013; Sharma and Crossler 2014a, b; Shen 2012), in the Arab world generally and in Saudi Arabia particularly (Abed 2018, 2016; Abed et al. 2015, 2016). Thus, in order to fill this gap, *this study intends to empirically examine whether Saudi customers' perceptions on intention and use of social commerce could differ according to their demographic characteristics: age, gender, education, and experience with Internet and social media*.

4.2   Literature Review

A limited number of empirical research has been conducted in the context of social commerce. Abed (2018), Abed (2016), Abed et al. (2015), Hajli (2012), and Hajli (2015) have conducted a research to understand factors affecting the acceptance of social commerce. The literature review shows that most of the studies that examined social commerce adoption used technology acceptance theory (TAM) (Abed 2016; Hajli 2012; Sheikh et al. 2017) and the unified theory of acceptance and use of technology 2 (UTAUT2) (Abed et al. 2015; Sheikh et al. 2017). Hajli (2012) examined trust and perceived usefulness and the main findings of his research are that these two constructs are significant in increasing a user's intention to adopt s-commerce. In 2015, Hajli presented the social commerce constructs using the TAM theory, while Sheikh et al. (2017) combined social commerce constructs with UTAUT2 core constructs. In Sheikh et al.'s (2017) study, they examined social commerce adoption by adding the social commerce factors and social support constructs to the UTAUT2 theory. Saudi Arabia university students were the target population, and the data was analysed using Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). The study showed that price saving orientation is vital in consumers' intention to purchase from social media websites. Abed et al. (2015) also applied the UTAUT2 to target the Saudi Arabian population. The researches added several additional constructs to the conceptual model including trust, perceived risk, innovativeness, and information quality. However, it has been realized that most of the studies that have examined social commerce adoption in the context of Saudi Arabia have excluded the moderating effects of the demographic characteristics. Accordingly, this study is aimed to fill this research gap by examining the moderating effects of the demographic characteristics including age, gender, education, and experience.

4.3 Theoretical Basis

The information systems studies have brought great attention towards the impact of demographic factors, which indicate that differences in customers' perceptions and reactions of technology could be due to the difference in the customers' demographic characteristics (Dabholkar et al. 2003). Consequently, this study examines how the demographic factors including age, gender, education, and experience could reflect differences in the Saudi customers' perception and adoption of social commerce. These four factors have been widely examined over the technology adoption research (Choudrie and Dwivedi 2005; Dwivedi and Williams 2008; Rana et al. 2019). Additional justification and discussion on each of these four factors are provided in the following subsections.

4.3.1 Age

Theoretically, age has been discussed either as an independent variable or as a factor that could lead to a difference in users' perception toward a certain kind of behaviour and actions (Finch 1986). Similarly, previous information system studies have paid a specific interest for the significant role of age in determining the individual perception and adoption of new technology (Venkatesh and Morris 2000; Venkatesh et al. 2003, 2012) found that actual technology adopters found mostly to be within the age range between 15 and 35 years. Furthermore, Dabholkar et al. (2003) found that the age would influence customers' intention towards technology usage. Therefore, *it could be expected that the Saudi customers' perceptions on intention and adoption of social commerce would differ according to their age groups*.

4.3.2 Gender

In the context of the information system, a number of researchers (Venkatesh and Morris 2000; Venkatesh et al. 2003, 2012) have investigated the role of gender in moderating or predicting the user intention and adoption toward technology. Venkatesh and Morris (2000) indicated that the level of computer usage is more likely to be higher among males than females. Furthermore, a number of IS researchers (Venkatesh and Morris 2000; Venkatesh et al. 2003, 2012) have pointed out that men are more expected to accept a new technology based on the perceived advantages and benefits; while women generally pay more attention to aspects associated with complexity, assurance, and facilitated resources. As a result, *it could be expected that the Saudi customers' perceptions on intention and adoption of social commerce would differ according to their gender*.

4.3.3 Education

Burgess (1986) mentioned that individuals who reached an adequate education level are more expected to exhibit increased ability to conduct a number of complicated actions. Accordingly, it has been widely claimed that highly educated individuals are more likely to have a positive reaction toward innovations. Thus, they are more expected to adopt new technology in contrast to those who have a less educational level (Burgess 1986; Rogers 1995). This has been approved by several IS studies (Venkatesh and Morris 2000; Venkatesh et al. 2003, 2012). Therefore, *it could be expected that the Saudi customers' perceptions on intention and adoption of social commerce would differ according to their education level*.

4.3.4 Experience

In social commerce context, previous skills with technology could be an important requirement to successfully accept new technology (Mallat et al. 2008). Therefore, a number of studies have indicated that the consumer's previous experience is a critical determinant of his/her acceptance and adoption towards technology (Mallat et al. 2008; Meuter et al. 2005). Meuter et al. (2005) argued that experience would strongly influence the consumer's decision to try a technology. Furthermore, consumers past experience found to be one of the most influential factors affecting his/her perceptions toward mobile ticketing in the transportation context (Mallat et al. 2008). Based on empirical research directed by Chiu et al. (2003) and Curran et al. (2003) consumers' past experience in dealing with technology has a significant and positive effect on their intention and adoption toward this technology. As a result, *it could be expected that the Saudi customers' perceptions on the intention and adoption of social commerce would differ according to their experience with social media*.

4.4 Research Methodology

Either in information system area or in the social commerce context, it has been vividly observed that the field survey is one of the most commonly adopted methods for testing a user's intention and adoption towards such an emerging technology (Abed 2018, 2016; Abed et al. 2016; Dwivedi et al. 2006; Dwivedi and Irani 2009). Additionally, this study is aimed to test and explain the Saudi customers' perception on intention and adoption of social commerce. As a result, the field survey found to be the most suitable and cost-effective research method as it provides access to a large number of Saudi customers in different locations within a reasonable time

(Bhattacherjee 2012). This has led to belief that the self-administered questionnaire was the most appropriate data collection method to obtain the required data from Saudi customers. As stated above, a self-administered questionnaire was constructed to obtain responses from Saudi customers concerning their perception of the aspects related to their behavioural intention and use of social commerce adoption. The seven-point Likert scale was utilized to measure behavioural intention items ranging from '1—strongly agree' to '7—strongly disagree'.

4.5   Results

The demographic findings show that 69.5% of the respondents were female, while 30.5% were male respondents. In regard to the age, the descriptive statistics show that the largest age population within the sample was between 21 and 29 years old with 64.7%; the second largest age group of ≥18–20 with 18.6%. The rest of the respondents were divided between the age groups of 30–39 (12.8%) and 40–49 (3.7%), with one respondent aged 50 and above. In regard to the educational level, most of the respondents hold a Bachelor's degree, representing 45.1% of the total sample, followed by the high school graduates (40.5%) after that the postgraduates (7.9%) and the diploma holders (6.3%). A very small percentage of respondents in the sample held less than high school qualification (0.2%). While investigating respondents experience with social commerce, most of the respondents have less than 1 year experience (43.7%), followed by 1–2 years of experience (23.5%), after that 17.7% of the respondents had 3–5 years of experience, and 15.1% of the sample has more than 5 years of experience. Table 4.1 presents the demographic characteristics of the respondents in the survey sample.

A set of four common social media platforms were adopted to measure the adoption of social commerce including Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, and Instagram. The seven-point time scale was adopted to measure the usage behaviour toward these services with anchors including: 'never', 'once a month', 'once a week', '2–3 times a week', '4–5 times a week', 'daily', and 'many times per day' (Venkatesh et al. 2012). The results indicated that the most common social media platform for businesses in Saudi Arabia is Instagram, followed by YouTube, Twitter, and Facebook as shown in Table 4.2.

Descriptive analysis test was conducted to examine the mean and standard deviation for each item of behavioural intention toward social commerce usage. The results indicated that all items' means and standard deviation fall within the acceptable range (Hair Jr et al. 2015) (Table 4.3).

The study also examined the significant effect of behavioural intention on usage behaviour of social commerce adoption by running an ANOVA test. The results indicated that behavioural intention significantly affect usage behaviour at 0.05 (Table 4.4).

Table 4.1 Demographic characteristics of social commerce respondents:

Demographic profile	Number of respondents	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	131	30.5
Female	299	69.5
Total	430	100.0
Age		
≥18–20	80	18.6
21–29	278	64.7
30–39	55	12.8
40–49	16	3.7
50 and above	1	0.2
Total	430	100.0
Education		
Less than high school	1	0.2
High School	174	40.5
Diploma	27	6.3
Bachelor	194	45.1
Postgraduate	34	7.9
Total	430	100.0
Social commerce experience		
Less than 1 year	188	43.7
1–2 years	101	23.5
3–5 years	76	17.7
More than 5 years	65	15.1
Total	430	100.0

Table 4.2 Descriptive analysis of social media usage by consumers

Social media platform	Frequency of use	Number of respondents ($N = 403$)	Percentage (%)
Facebook	Never	209	41.2
	Once a month	69	13.6
	Once a week	42	8.3
	2–3 times a week	41	8.1
	4–5 times a week	31	6.1
	Daily	42	8.3
	Many times per day	73	14.4
Twitter	Never	112	22.1
	Once a month	42	8.3
	Once a week	49	9.7
	2–3 times a week	42	8.3
	4–5 times a week	51	10.1
	Daily	55	10.8
	Many times per day	156	30.8

Table 4.2 (continued)

Social media platform	Frequency of use	Number of respondents ($N = 403$)	Percentage (%)
YouTube	Never	28	5.5
	Once a month	14	2.8
	Once a week	16	3.2
	2–3 times a week	43	8.5
	4–5 times a week	62	12.2
	Daily	100	19.7
	Many times per day	244	48.1
Instagram	Never	37	7.3
	Once a month	14	2.8
	Once a week	15	3.0
	2–3 times a week	26	5.1
	4–5 times a week	28	5.5
	Daily	71	14.0
	Many times per day	316	62.3

Table 4.3 Descriptive analysis of behavioural intention toward use behaviour

Construct	Item	Mean	Standard deviation
Behavioural intention	BI 1	5.28	1.479
	BI 2	5.05	1.534
	BI 3	5.12	1.552
	Average BI	5.1506	1.37832

Table 4.4 ANOVA for examining behavioural intention toward use behaviour

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	16.433	1	16.433	8.783	0.003[b]
	Residual	944.852	505	1.871		
	Total	961.285	506			

[a]Dependent variable: BI
[b]Predictors: (Constant), USE

Furthermore, an ANOVA test was conducted to examine the influence of demographics on behavioural intention and usage behaviour. The results indicate that Saudi customers' behavioural intention towards social commerce adoption would differ according to their age groups (P-value $= 0.048$[b]/significant at 0.05), and experience with social media (P-value $= 0.000$[b]/significant at Sig. at 0.001). Furthermore, the results showed that Saudi customers' usage behaviour towards social commerce adoption would differ according their gender (P-value $= 0.036$[b]/significant at Sig. at 0.05). In contrast, the results indicated that the educational level does not affect Saudi customers' behavioural intention and usage behaviour of social commerce adoption (Table 4.5).

Table 4.5 ANOVA for examining influence of demographics on behavioural intention and use behaviour

ANOVA[a]						
	Behavioural intention			Use behaviour		
Demographics	F-value	P-value	Sig.	F-value	P-value	Sig.
Age	3.939	0.048[b]	Sig. at 0.05	3.054	0.081	Not Sig.
Gender	1.217	0.271[b]	Not Sig.	4.402	0.036[c]	Sig. at 0.05
Education	0.179	0.673[b]	Not Sig.	0.009	0.924[c]	Not Sig.
Experience	23.220	0.000[b]	Sig. at 0.001	1.184	0.277[c]	Not Sig.

[a]Dependent variables: age, gender, education, experience
[b]Predictors: (constant), BI
[c]Predictors: (constant), USE

4.6   Conclusion

The current study was directed to discover how Saudi consumers' perceptions on aspects related to their intention and adoption of social commerce could be different according to their demographic features. Four common demographic factors were identified and examined in the current study, namely age, gender, education, and experience. The empirical findings suggest that Saudi consumers are more likely to be different in their intention and adoption of social commerce according to their demographic differences.

4.7   Limitations and Future Research Directions

This study is limited as it focused only on the consumers' demographic characteristics while it does not pay attention to other behavioural and psychological factors including customer readiness, innovativeness, and habit. As a result, examining these factors with the demographic characteristics could provide a wider and richer understanding of the consumer's perception toward social commerce. Additionally, future research should examine the impact of cultural aspects on the Saudi consumers' perceptions toward social commerce especially when such aspects have not yet been observed in the area of social commerce.

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Chapter 5
Developing a Research Instrument to Study the Impact of Consumer Brand Perception, Consumer Brand Relationship and Consumer Buying Behaviour on Online Apparel Shopping

Radhika Sharma, Vandana Ahuja, and Shirin Alavi

5.1 Introduction

The growth of the e-commerce sector is definite in the coming years. In 2018, it is predicted that the count of online buyers in the Asia Pacific region will reach to 60% of the total internet users and will cross the one billion mark. India, a fast-growing and developing economy, reflects an immense growth of the e-commerce sector. Increasing number of online shoppers, spurt in mobile penetration, secure payment gateways and improved logistics infrastructure are the key factors affecting the domestic online market. It is projected that the domestic online fashion market will reach the $12–$14 billion level by 2020. At present, the reach of e-commerce industry in the Indian market is 28%. These increasing statistics have motivated many entrepreneurs to enter the e-commerce sector, thereby increasing the level of competition. With the proliferation of online shoppers and e-retailers, there arises a need to study the online consumer. The various factors affecting an online consumer are brand association, brand preferences, price, offers, website design, personalization, word of mouth, etc.

This study aims at developing an instrument to map the three major constructs—Consumer Brand Perception (CBP), Consumer Buying Behaviour (CBB) and Consumer Brand Relationship (CBR)—which impact the online consumer buying

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process. Many studies examined various factors affecting an online consumer in isolation, but an integrated approach of mapping CBP, CBB and CBR is what the authors found missing.

With the help of the detailed literature review, the authors identified various parameters impacting these three constructs and have developed a research instrument to study the impact of CBP, CBR and CBB on online apparel shopping.

The objectives of this chapter are:

- To identify various parameters affecting CBP, CBR and CBB.
- To develop a research instrument that e-retailers can use to study the factors affecting an online consumer.

5.2 Literature Review

5.2.1 Typology of an Online Shopper

The typology of an online shopper is strongly affected by its shopping motivations. The four online shopper typologies include the convenience shopper, the variety seeker, store-oriented shopper and balanced buyer (Rohm and Swaminathan 2004). The shoppers who are motivated by shopping ease and are less interested in immediate possession of products are the convenience shoppers. The variety seeker is more interested in varieties offered by various brands and retail alternatives. Balanced buyer is the one who maintains the balance between shopping ease and variety seeking. The shopper who has high desires to possess the product immediately and is highly motivated by physical store orientation is the store-oriented shopper (Rohm and Swaminathan 2004). An extended typology of shoppers that are unique to the internet shopping environment involves e-window shoppers, interactive shoppers, and risk-averse shoppers (Ganesh et al. 2010). E-window shoppers are the curious shoppers who are more interested in exploring the new websites and simple surfing on the internet. Interactive shoppers have high degree of individualism and prefer personalization. Risk-averse shoppers are the ones who are not ready to take risk of shopping online and prefer physical stores (Chen 2012). They are more concerned about web security and less concerned about the prices.

5.2.2 Consumer Buying Behaviour

With the proliferation of online buyers emerges a need to study the online consumer buying behaviour. The literature has evidences of various theories and models build up on online consumer behaviour. The online consumer has the double identity, a shopper and a computer user, as the intention to return or re-purchase strongly depends on e-enjoyment and perceived site usability (Koufaris 2002). Literature

suggests many factors that affect the consumer buying behaviour. Pappas et al. indicated nine parameters that are relevant for identifying an online consumer's purchase behaviour, which are quality of personalization, shopping enjoyment, persuasion, price, promotion, service quality, store brand sensitivity, shopping enjoyment, intention to purchase and innovativeness (Pappas et al. 2017). Pandey and Chawla identified a six-factor scale, e-enjoyment, e-distrust, e-self inefficacy, e-logistic concerns, e-negative beliefs and e-offers, in order to study an Indian online consumer (Pandey and Chawla 2014).

5.2.3   Consumer Brand Perception

The parameters affecting Consumer Brand Perception are brand experiences, brand familiarity, satisfaction and brand trust. 'Brand Experience' can be defined as a consumer's participation in web-communities, consumer's past interactions with the brand and perception of the brand in terms of attractiveness, advertisement, value for money, variety and uniqueness of the website (Ha and Perks 2005). 'Brand Familiarity' is an important parameter impacting brand perception, which is derived from the number of brand experiences. Improving the customer experiences will lead to increased brand familiarity (Ha and Perks 2005). In this study, the authors define 'E-Satisfaction' as the contentment of the consumer that he/she gets by using the prior purchased product from an e-retailer. High level of brand familiarity and satisfaction leads to brand trust. Brand trust is positively related to brand loyalty thereby increasing the purchase/re-purchase behaviour (Lau and Lee 1999). In this digital era, online shoppers are keen on looking after customer reviews and feedbacks before buying any product. A direct relationship is identified between e-WOM and online shopping experience, satisfaction and purchase intention (Kim et al. 2009).

5.2.4   Consumer Brand Relationship

Individual/shared experiences, brand association, brand personality, brand attitude and brand image are some of the important parameters that help in building Consumer Brand Relationship (Chang and Chieng 2006). Brands having strong Consumer Brand Relationship tend to increase in brand commitment and positive E-WOM. Emotional attachment to a brand leads to brand loyalty and higher willingness to pay premium price (Thomson et al. 2005). Past research suggests that if the internet user experience is low, the web-sites having customer communities (person-interactivity) will be more effective than personalized websites (machine interactivity) in building CBR (Thorbjørnsen et al. 2002). 'Brand Association' can be defined as a brand memory that gets triggered the moment the consumer interacts with the brand and is reinforced when it is derived from brand experiences.

'Individual/shared experiences' are the experiences of the consumer and their peer group. Comments and feedback directly influence the brand image and affects brand association. 'Brand Personality' can be defined as the set of characteristics and traits attached to a brand. 'Brand Image' is a subjective, perceptual phenomenon of a brand that is reflected by a network of associations in the memory of the consumers.

5.3 Identification of the Parameters for Development of the Research Instrument

A detailed literature review (Table 5.1) helped us identify that Consumer Brand Perception is a function of Brand Experience, Familiarity, Satisfaction and Trust. Consumer Brand Relationship is a function of Brand Association, Shared/Individual

Table 5.1 Literature review for identification of parameters contributing to Consumer Brand Perception, Consumer Brand Relationship and Consumer Buying Behaviour

	Literature	Parameters
1	Customer perceptions of e-service quality in online shopping (Lee and Lin 2005)	Trust, Satisfaction, Brand Experience
2	Effects of consumer perceptions of brand experience on the web: Brand familiarity, satisfaction and brand trust (Ha and Perks 2005)	Brand Familiarity, Brand Satisfaction, Brand Trust, Brand Experience
3	Building Consumer–Brand Relationship: A Cross-Cultural Experiential View (Chang and Chieng 2006)	Brand Image, Brand Association, Brand Personality, Shared and Individual experience
4	The Impact of E-Service Quality and E-Loyalty on Online Shopping: Moderating Effect of E-Satisfaction and E-Trust (Al-dweeri et al. 2017)	E-Logistics Concerns, Brand Trust, Brand Satisfaction
5	Examining the Validity and Reliability of e-Lifestyles Scale in the Malaysian Context: A Preliminary Results (Ahmad et al. 2012)	E-Enjoyment, E-Logistics Concern, Price
6	E-lifestyles of Indian online shoppers: A scale validation (Pandey and Chawla 2014)	E-Enjoyment, E-offers, E-distrust, E-logistics concerns
7	Identifying key factors affecting consumer purchase behaviour in an online shopping context (Park and Kim 2003)	Brand Experience, E-distrust
8	Factors Driving Consumer Intention to Shop Online: An Empirical Investigation (Chiang and Dholakia 2003)	Price, E-Enjoyment, Brand Satisfaction
9	Developing a scale to measure perceived quality of internet shopping site (Yoo and Donthu 2001)	Brand Image, Price, E-enjoyment, E-Distrust
10	"Regretting your brand-self?" The moderating role of consumer-brand identification on consumer responses to purchase regret (Davvetas and Diamantopoulos 2017)	Brand Familiarity, Brand Association, Price, Satisfaction

experiences, Brand personality and Brand image. Further, Consumer Buying Behaviour is a function of E-enjoyment, E-Distrust, E-offers, Price and E-logistics concerns.

5.4 Methodology

The authors identified the various parameters affecting Consumer Brand Perception, Consumer Brand Relationship and Consumer Buying Behaviour from an extensive literature review. The research survey was subsequently developed. The instrument development process was completed in three stages—parameters identification, item creation and instrument testing. A complete research instrument having 66 items around three constructs was developed. These items were mapped against selected parameters affecting these three constructs. Some items for this study are the established items while other are modified or developed. Some of the items were reverse-scored in order to avoid acquiescence bias. A standardized five-point Likert scales were used in order to maintain consistency and easy understandability of the instrument to the respondents.

The above discussion is reflected in the diagram below (Fig. 5.1), which helped us in developing the different sections of our research instrument.
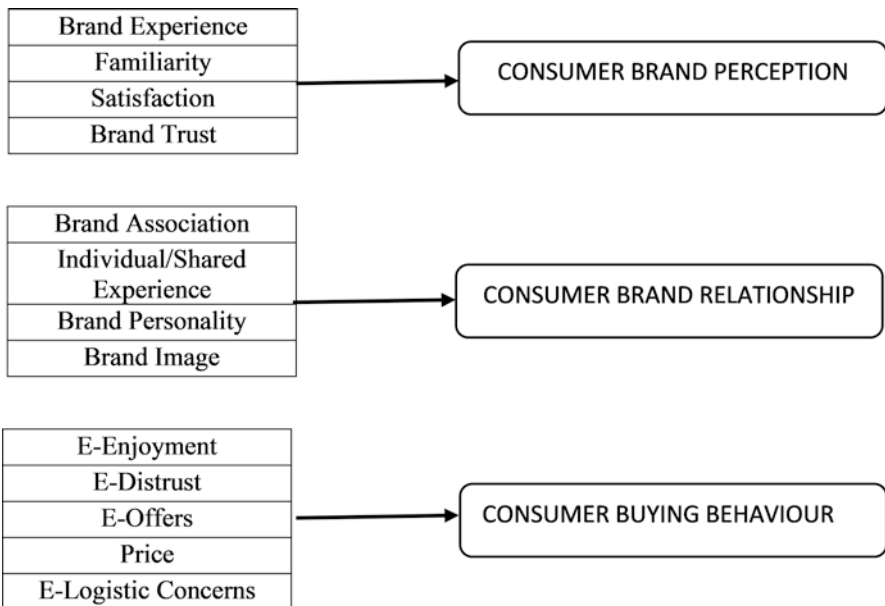
Fig. 5.1 Identification of parameters for development of the research instrument

5.5 Discussion

The purpose of this research was to provide a comprehensive model that combines all the three constructs in order to trace the impact on consumer purchase intentions in the online apparel industry. The online shoppers are greatly impacted by consumer buying behaviour which takes price, promotion, negative beliefs, risk perceptions and shopping enjoyment into consideration. The authors constelled the three separate constructs which have been studied in isolation in the past researches and formulates a single research instrument. E-retailers can directly use this instrument for consumer research in order to identify the future trends and the purchase intentions of the consumer. This research instrument can also help in identifying the psychology of an online shopper. A validation of the questionnaire helped us arrive at the above conclusions. The detailed hypothesis for the research can be accepted/rejected only after an extensive data collection and empirical validation.

5.6 Limitation and Future Research

Most of the parameters considered undergo changes over time, and the temporal nature of consumer e-behaviour was not accounted for in this study. Some of the parameters affect two constructs for e.g. brand trust affects both consumer brand perception as well as consumer brand relationship. This interconnectivity of the constructs is ignored in this study. Also, there are many other parameters affecting the three constructs which are ignored in this study. This instrument is developed specifically for the online apparel industry and lacks applicability of this research instrument in other potential areas like footwear, electronics, furniture, etc.

5.7 Implications

The academic implication of this chapter is that it formulates a correlation between CBP, CBB and CBR, which can be used as a basis by future researchers. Also, it highlights the importance of a comprehensive approach towards understanding the online shopper psychology.

It can be used by e-retailers to study the various parameters that affect an online buyer, and develop appropriate segmentation and targeting strategies based on level of consumer perception and brand relationships. The e-retailers must plan a strategy for handling e-word of mouth as it has the capability to strengthen the relationship between consumers' emotional trust and their intention to shop online (Cheung et al. 2009).

Marketers can also leverage social media platforms for enhancing consumer engagement and building consumer brand relationship. Study of online consumer

buying behaviour can aid e-retailers in product development and pricing strategies. It can also be used to map the positioning and familiarity of a brand in the eyes of an online consumer. Knowledge of factors affecting consumer brand perception can help retailers in predicting brand purchases (Jin and Gu Suh 2005). Social networking sites should aim at active consumer participation, which in turn positively influences brand trust, brand loyalty and consequently resulted in branding co-creation (Kamboj et al. 2018). Co-creation is the highest level of consumer engagement, where the consumer works as a brand advocate (De vries et al. 2012). The consumer brand relationship path can also be used to predict future purchases.

In this digital world it is very important to pay attention to electronic word-of-mouth. Marketers need craft a strategy for consumer relationship management. Proper management of customer feedback and grievances is required in order to maintain online reputation. Loyalty points and rewards can be provided to enhance brand loyalty. Marketers must leverage social media in order to take consumers to the highest level of engagement and to increase the number of followers. This can be done by posting relevant content, providing exciting offers, running social media campaigns, responding back to customer comments and running the interactive banner ads.

Online fashion industry is more about following the latest trends and knowing the needs of an online buyer. This research instrument can be used by marketers to study the psychology of an online shopper. It also helps in knowing about various factors affecting online purchase decisions like e-word of mouth, reviews and feedbacks, product popularity, brand familiarity, social media presence, etc.

5.8 Conclusion

This chapter contributes to the field of digital marketing. The research instrument can be used to identify the level of customer engagement and involvement with the brand. Once marketers have identified what drives consumer perception and relationship, they can give an impetus to those specific attributes. Apparel companies can create websites which positively impact consumer perception, relationship and behaviour. Well-directed online banner campaigns as well as Search Engine Marketing Campaigns can be developed to ensure that the online searches made by the consumer enhance the product knowledge and positively impact the perception and relationship with a brand. Well-directed social media marketing campaigns will help the companies in maintaining a loyal relationship with their target audience and thereby increasing revenues (Dwivedi et al. 2015). E-retailers can directly use this instrument for consumer research in order to identify the future trends and the purchase intentions of the consumer.

Appendix

Questionnaire

Section A: Demographics

Q.1.	Name:
Q.2	Age:
Q.3.	Gender: (a) Male (b) Female
Q.4	Occupation:
Q.5	Please indicate your average monthly expenditure on new apparel
	0–500
	500–2500
	2500–5000
	5000 and above
Q.6	Please indicate the average time spent by you in purchasing new apparel
	Not at all
	Low
	Slightly
	Neutral
	Moderately
	Very extremely
Q.7	Rate the importance of the following parameters considered by you at the time of buying apparels online

S. No	Parameter	Not at all important 1	Low important 2	Neutral 3	Moderately important 4	Very important 5
1	Price					
2	Aesthetics (look, colour)					
3	Fashion sense/ uniqueness					
4	Quality					
5	Comfort					
6	Durability and easy care					
7	Style					

Section B: Consumer Brand Perception

Q.1B. Please select which of the following statements you agree with as an online buyer of apparels by encircling one option out of 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5

S. No	Statement	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither agree nor disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly agree 5
1	Frequent advertisements from a brand motivates me to purchase a product					
2	Being a regular customer of a particular brand makes me feel like I belong to a special group					
3	I only trust brands which have high performance track record					
4	Before choosing any fashion site, I go through its customer feedbacks					
5	I usually end up purchasing products online because of the appealing visual advertisements					
6	I believe greater brand familiarity leads to a higher level of brand trust					
7	I love talking favourably about my preferred e-retailer to my peer group					
8	I correlate the reputation of a brand with their brand ambassador's image					
9	I feel positive about a brand based on their advertising campaign					
10	I prefer e-retailer which has a good reputation					
11	Navigation on the site should be easy					
12	I prefer purchasing apparel from familiar e-retailers only					
13	I feel happy when I see my favourite brand's advertisement					
14	I trust a brand which is endorsed by reputed fashion icon like Deepika Padukone/Ranbir Kapoor					

S. No	Statement	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither agree nor disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly agree 5
15	My peer group suggestions can encourage me to try a new fashion brand					
16	I generally prefer buying from my favourite brand					
17	I prefer a brand which provides 24 × 7 customer support					
18	I avoid purchasing from any random site because of the security concerns					
19	I usually go for products with high rating and good reviews					
20	Providing personalised experiences by a brand impresses me deeply					
21	I only purchase from the brands which are highly trusted in the market					
22	I believe that wearing famous brands helps me in getting acknowledged by others					

Section C: Consumer Brand Relationship

Q.1C. Please select which of the following statements you agree with as an online buyer of apparels by encircling one option out of 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5

S. No	Statement	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither agree nor disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly agree 5
1	The moment I think of purchasing new clothes, a particular e-retailer comes to my mind					
2	I prefer e-retail brands which provides exclusive benefits and privileges to their loyal customers					
3	I feel connected with my favourite brand					

S. No	Statement	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither agree nor disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly agree 5
4	I love being connected with other people who like same apparel brand					
5	I prefer brands which offer unique and latest fashion clothes					
6	I can easily recall my preferred brands by seeing their brand logo					
7	I believe that the brand should have good customer relationship management					
8	I love to participate in the social media campaigns of my favourite brand					
9	I only purchase clothes from a brand which offers quality products					
10	I prefer an e-retailer who offers easy return policy					
11	I prefer an e-retailer who provides immediate resolution to customers complaints and grievances					
12	Apparel brands which provide on time delivery are highly preferred					
13	I feel personally satisfied when I purchase from my favourite e-retailer					
14	I avoid giving a second chance to any brand with which I had a bad past experience					
15	I love contributing and participating in my preferred brand community					
16	I feel that my personality and the personality of my favourite brand is very similar					
17	I like giving reviews for a brand or product					
18	I follow my preferable brands on various social media sites					
19	I like receiving personalized mails from an online apparel brand.					

S. No	Statement	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither agree nor disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly agree 5
20	I like to know which brands and products make good impressions on others					
21	I like to communicate my buying activities to people who are interested in knowing about me					
22	I love to navigate through a site which provides me recommended items as per my past preferences					

Section D: Consumer Buying Behaviour

Q.1D. Please select which of the following statements you agree with as an online buyer of apparels by encircling one option out of 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5

S. No	Statement	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither agree nor disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly agree 5
1	I enjoy buying apparel on the internet					
2	I prefer cash on delivery because of the security reasons					
3	I prefer an e-retailer who frequently provides me special offers and updates					
4	I believe it is easier to shop online					
5	I worry about my card details being stolen on the internet					
6	I find it difficult to trust internet retailers					
7	I think internet shopping offers better collection and variety than local stores					
8	I think internet shopping offers better quality than local stores					

S. No	Statement	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither agree nor disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly agree 5
9	Internet sites provide offers not easily available at the local stores					
10	I avoid purchasing very expensive clothes online					
11	I usually avoid purchasing clothes from new e-retailers as it increases the risk factor					
12	I get unduly influenced by internet advertisements and purchase things that I really don't need					
13	I find it easy to return online purchased products					
14	I believe the higher the price, the better will be the quality of the product					
15	I usually shop from different brands to source a variety of choices when buying clothes					
16	I look carefully across various e-retailers to find apparel which provides best value for money					
17	I believe that the quality of merchandise is more important than its fashion appeal					
18	I often end up clicking on the banner ads that I come across while surfing on the internet					
19	The website design should be user friendly					
20	I can easily shop product online which are not available or difficult to find offline					
21	I prefer to learn about products through offline retail stores and then buy them online.					
22	While purchasing online, I look for products which have full detailed product information					

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Chapter 6
A Qualitative Exploration of Consumers' Pro-environmental Behaviours: Identifying Emerging Themes

Hawazin Alzubaidi

6.1 Introduction

Current patterns of unsustainable consumption mean growing demand for the natural resources of our planet. The recent economic growth in developing countries, triggered by technological revolution and globalization, has led to market-driven growth in consumption patterns, leading in turn to unsustainable consumption (Biswas and Roy 2016). A range of environmental issues that threaten the planet can be seen resulted from this, including climate change, air pollution, and scarcity of safe drinking water (Biswas and Roy 2015; Steg and Vlek 2009). The United Nations Climate Change Conference in 2015, attended by delegates from 196 countries, aimed to reach a global agreement on the reduction of climate change. Saudi Arabia attended and remains committed to tackling climate change (Goldberg et al. 2015) and sustainable economic development (Taher and Al-Hajjar 2013). Also, the Saudi government implemented a new vision for the country the "2030 Vision" of which the fourth goal is achieving environmental sustainability to obtain greater sustainable economic growth (Alshuwaikhat and Mohammed 2017). Through the 2030 Vision and Paris agreement, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia outlines an agenda for more balanced economic growth and sustainable development (Alshuwaikhat and Mohammed 2017).

Consumer behaviour, primarily the consumption and disposal of products, affects our environmental resources (Fransson and Garling 1999). Consumers make many decisions every day, including whether or not to purchase, and what and when to purchase (Vermeir and Verbeke 2006). It is argued that what consumers want creates heavy demand on the resources of our planet and has a significant impact on protecting the environment (Ericson et al. 2014). The pace of globalisation and the

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recent economic growth triggered by the technological revolution have led to market-driven growth in consumption patterns in developing economies. These changes in consumption patterns have led to overconsumption of the planet's resources (Biswas and Roy 2016). Environmental issues are impacting the entire globe, not only the Arab countries. Over the last decade researchers across the world in the fields of management, marketing, and psychology have shown significant interest in consumer behaviour towards the environment and environmental issues (Bamberg 2003; Bamberg and Möser 2007; Barr and Gilg 2006; Dietz et al. 1998; Fransson and Garling 1999; Gleim et al. 2013; Steg et al. 2014; Steg and Vlek 2009; Van Liere and Dunlap 1980). Reviewing the literature noted several calls to produce more up-to-date research to understand the effect of contextual factors on consumers' PEBs (Kumar et al. 2017; Leonidou et al. 2010; Ozaki 2011; Thøgersen et al. 2015).

This chapter presents a qualitative exploration of the concepts associated with consumers' pro-environmental behaviours (PEBs) in Saudi Arabia. PEB can be defined as "behaviour that harms the environment as little as possible, or even benefits the environment" (Steg and Vlek 2009, p. 309). It is crucial to gain an understanding of concepts relevant to consumers' PEBs in developing countries (Mariadoss et al. 2011), as the literature suggests that more research is needed to fill the gap in understanding consumer PEBs in different cultural contexts (Ertz et al. 2016; Kumar et al. 2017; Leonidou et al. 2010; Strizhakova and Coulter 2013) as well as fill the gap in understanding consumers in the developing countries (Hurst et al. 2013; Strizhakova and Coulter 2013). Since Saudi Arabia is a developing country with a very distinctive culture, this research aims to contribute to the marketing literature from a non-Western perspective.

6.2   Literature Review

Several relationships between constructs have been explored in the PEBs studies, some constructs were given different labels in different studies while retaining a similar meaning. These were merged and are used here under the most common name among the various studies. For example, the terms 'pro-environmental behaviours', 'pro-environmental purchasing', 'green consumption behaviour', 'environmentally conscious behaviour', and 'environmentally responsible behaviour' are grouped under the umbrella term pro-environmental behaviours. 'Subjective norm', 'social norms', and, 'social influence' are all presenting the same construct. Also, the construct 'perceived self-efficacy' was found under different names such as, 'self-efficacy', 'perceived consumer effectiveness', and 'locus of control'. Table 6.1 documents the most examined themes in the field of PEBs, and highlights their related findings.

Among previous studies on PEBs, several themes have been suggested in the literature as factors influencing consumers' PEBs, such as environmental concern (Kim and Choi 2005; Osburg et al. 2016; Polonsky et al. 2014; Vermeir and

Table 6.1 Frequently examined themes in consumers' PEBs research

Themes	Findings
Environmental concern	Several studies suggests that attitudes can influence consumers' PEBs (Bamberg 2003; Kilbourne and Pickett 2008; Kim and Choi 2005; Polonsky et al. 2014; Vermeir and Verbeke 2006). Consumers have realised that their behaviours, particularly their purchasing behaviours, have had a direct impact on many environmental issues (Laroche et al. 2001). For example, consumers with high levels of environmental concern might demand products that could help in protecting the quality of the environment, and they will tend to purchase green products (Manchanda 2014).
Attitudes	It has been noted that including attitude in PEBs models (e.g. the theory of planned behaviour—TPB and the norm activation theory—NAT) increase the explained variance in several studies (Bamberg 2003; Bamberg and Möser 2007; Han 2014). Extending the model with attitudes explained 34–48% of variance in PEBs research, suggesting the importance of attitudes in understanding consumers' PEBs (Thøgersen et al. 2015).
Social norms	Inconsistent results of the influence of social influence on consumers' PEBs were noted in different countries, as insignificant relationships were confirmed in studies conducted in Netherlands, India, and Iran (Harland et al. 1999; Kumar et al. 2017; Yazdanpanah and Forouzani 2015); however, almost all studies considering social influence as a factor in their models of PEBs have found its effect to be significant in Europe and the UK (Bamberg 2003; De Leeuw et al. 2015; Hynes and Wilson 2016; Onwezen et al. 2013; Vermeir and Verbeke 2006; Whitmarsh and O'Neill 2010).
PCE	It has been demonstrated that high PCE encourages consumers to translate their attitudes into behaviours (Vermeir and Verbeke 2006), and studies consistently document the importance of PCE in influencing consumers' intentions and PEBs (Ellen et al. 1991; Huang 2016; Kim et al. 2013; Kim and Choi 2005; McCarty and Shrum 2001; Straughan and Roberts 1999). Over time, it has been demonstrated that consumers are more likely to adopt PEBs when they feel their decisions will make a difference (Antonetti and Maklan 2014; Ellen et al. 1991; Kim and Choi 2005; Vermeir and Verbeke 2006).

Verbeke 2006), social norms (Bamberg 2003; De Leeuw et al. 2015; Hynes and Wilson 2016), and PCE (Gleim et al. 2013; Huang 2016; Kim and Choi 2005).

This chapter focuses on understanding the process of adopting PEBs by consumers in Saudi Arabia. In collectivist societies such as Saudi Arabia, individuals' behaviours are driven by social norms (Leonidou et al. 2010). As this chapter explores themes influencing consumers' PEBs in Saudi Arabia, it is argued that individuals in collectivist cultures could be motivated by social comparison and imitation of peers, which causes people to make decisions in reference to others' behaviours (Janssen and Jager 2002). Therefore, it is important to focus on social factors that potentially influence consumers PEBs in Saudi Arabia. However, consumers may not adopt PEBs for several reasons. The less information available or the more complex and contradictory the available information is, the more uncertain the consumers are regarding what products to choose (Vermeir and Verbeke 2006). It has been suggested that eco-labelling provides consumers with credible and easily accessible information on the environmental attributes of a product (Sønderskov

and Daugbjerg 2011), as even Western consumers who are concerned about the environment often struggle to identify environmentally friendly products, especially if no practical assistance (such as a label) is available for products and their attributes (Moser 2015). Thus, this study is designed to uncover relevant social and contextual factors that may influence consumers PEBs in Saudi Arabia.

6.3 Method

As little information is available from the literature regarding consumers' PEBs in Saudi Arabia, the current research is exploratory in nature. A snowball approach was used to recruit Saudi consumers to participate in semi-structured interviews. The research focused on young (18–25 years) and educated Saudi consumers as studies confirm that young consumers are more willing to consider PEBs (Gilg et al. 2005; Lee 2009) and more educated consumers in Saudi Arabia are likely to display more environmentally friendly attitudes and behaviour (Fransson and Garling 1999; Gilg et al. 2005).

Sixteen semi-structured interviews were conducted over 6 weeks from May to June 2016 via Skype, Line, Tango, and Facetime. The interview questions were based on the key themes of this chapter, i.e. to garner a general understanding and interpretation of PEBs among Saudi consumers and related personal, social, and behavioural themes. Each interview took between 35 and 45 min and was recorded and transcribed in Arabic before being translated into English, and analysed to determine common themes.

6.4 Discussion

The qualitative results revealed several core themes related to consumers' PEBs in Saudi Arabia including social media influence, PCE, universal eco-labelling, and costs.

6.4.1 Social Media Influence

It emerged from the results that Saudi consumers' use of social media applications such as YouTube and Snapchat has exposed them to unsolicited information about the impact of their behaviours on the environment.

> *I have seen a video clip about animals suffering from plastic waste, it was a fish choking on plastic straw, it was horrible, these types of scenes are very emotionally effective and people are quicker in responding* (interviewee 2).

I have added someone on my Snapchat, and she told me awful things about makeup experiments on animals (interviewee 14).

It is suggested that social media are mainly used by modern business as promising platforms to effectively communicate with the targeted customers (Alalwan et al. 2017). Individuals used to look at social media applications as an important part of their daily life and, they moved their interactions to social media applications such as Facebook, Instagram, LinkedIn and Twitter, which can reflect on their behaviours (Alalwan et al. 2017; Dwivedi et al. 2015; Kapoor et al. 2018; Shiau et al. 2018). It is suggested that social media has shaped individuals' social and personal norms and attitudes through the rapid sharing of images and information. Social media channels enable individuals to be exposed to the behaviour of others, and this is likely to impact individual attitudes and behaviours (Hynes and Wilson 2016). Social media allows relationship forming between individuals from different backgrounds (Kapoor et al. 2018), it has been found that individuals with higher levels of self-esteem and social comparison will be more likely to compare their PEBs with others through social media (Hynes and Wilson 2016). People are also heavily influenced by how others behave, for example an individual's demand for organic products could be influenced by another's demand for the same products (Hynes and Wilson 2016) and vice versa, which could be an influencing factor on consumers' PEBs. It is suggested that media use may play a crucial role in individuals' adoption of PEBs, as people usually obtain information regarding PEBs and environmental issues through media channels (Huang 2016). Such relationships have been explored by other studies, where research has found that exposure to others' attitudes and behaviours on social media channels is likely to impact one's own attitudes and behaviours (Hynes and Wilson 2016).

6.4.2   Perceived Consumer Effectiveness (PCE)

Qualitative responses revealed that Saudis believe their efforts as individuals will not make any difference towards solving environmental issues. These results stood in contrast to results found in the Western literature, where a continuance positive effect of PCE on consumers' PEBs was observed in several studies (Cho et al. 2013; Ellen et al. 1991; Gilg et al. 2005; Gleim et al. 2013; Kim and Choi 2005; Vermeir and Verbeke 2006). This is different for consumers in Saudi Arabia due to that country's distinctive culture, whereby consumers see themselves as part of a group and their efforts as individuals may not make a difference when related to the environment.

No, cause things I do won't make any difference, but when you speak about big companies, it's going to make a huge difference, not single effort (interviewee 1).

Yes I would change my behaviours and will buy less polluting products, but I tell myself if I did it, but no one will, I don't0 know if I will make any difference (interviewee 14).

Another interviewee was asked: "Do you think that these environmental problems are related to your buying behaviour?"

No, I don't think so, man's behaviour is minor, the real cause is factories and toxic chemical waste (interviewee 4).

PCE is defined "as a domain-specific belief that the efforts of an individual can make a difference in the solution to a problem" (Ellen et al. 1991, p. 103), which "examine[s] the extent to which any one consumer can have an impact on the environment" (Gilg et al. 2005, p. 484). To motivate behavioural changes, consumers need to be convinced that their behaviours have an influence on the environment and an impact on solving environmental issues. It is believed that PCE can make a great contribution to predicting individuals' environmental behaviours (Ellen et al. 1991). Consumers with a strong belief that their environmentally conscious behaviours can have a positive effect of the environment will be more likely to engage in PEBs. It is argued that if individuals believe that environmental issues must be solved, this belief must influence their actual behaviour. Therefore, understanding consumers' PCE might be useful for predicting consumers' PEBs (Kim and Choi 2005).

6.4.3   Universal Eco-labelling

There is an actual gap between consumer attitudes and actual PEBs, as consumers intend to behave in a certain way, but sometimes fail to translate these intentions into actual behaviours (Strizhakova and Coulter 2013). Consumers with limited information about PEBs and their benefits may fail to act and protect the natural resources of our planet with their purchasing behaviour, particularly if the benefits of sustainable products are poorly communicated (Vermeir and Verbeke 2006).

Yes, if I find them, but I am not going to look for them (interviewee 4).

In response to the question: If you find eco-labelling, e.g. an organic sticker on a food product, will you buy it?

Yes, it would be easier to choose and more noticeable among others (interviewee 4).

The findings of this chapter suggest that consumers require more knowledge and information about PEBs in order to change their behaviours. This has been described in the literature as an attitude and a behaviour gap, as consumers could show that they are very concerned about environmental issues but, in certain situations, struggle to transfer these concerns into actual purchases (Steg and Vlek 2009).

Eco-labelling is "a way to provide consumers with credible and easily accessible information on the environmental attributes of a product" (Sønderskov and Daugbjerg 2011, p. 508). However, the potential benefits of sustainable products are often poorly communicated to consumers e.g. healthier, safer, less pollution to the environment (Vermeir and Verbeke 2006). Sustainable consumption, which requires that consumers can identify truly environmentally friendly goods, can be

obtained through reliable eco-labelling (Sønderskov and Daugbjerg 2011). It is suggested that consumer demand can influence how crops are produced (e.g., organic) and how products are packaged and labelled (Redman and Redman 2014). Eco-labelling has been recognized as an effective way to provide easily accessible information (Sønderskov and Daugbjerg 2011). However, very little attention has been paid to the actual effect of a universal type of eco-labelling on consumers' PEBs. There is a great need to understand how consumers might be affected by universal eco-labels, and how the absence of these labels could present a barrier to consumers' PEBs.

6.4.4 Cost

Different barriers emerged from the results of this research including cost, as participants commented on their views about the factors affecting their PEBs.

> *The idea is eventually about the cost: I'll buy it if it is not expensive or similar in price to other products* (interviewee 4).

> *Price, of course* (interviewee 6).

Price has been defined as cost in the traditional economics; however, recent studies suggested that price is the way of informing people about the value of the good or service (Sharaf and Perumal 2018). In line of the results of this study, several studies in the previous literature suggested that price is considered a significant factor affecting individuals' PEBs (Ertz et al. 2016; Moser 2015). It is also confirmed that price has a significant relationship with purchasing behavior of green products (Pedro Pereira Luzio and Lemke 2013; Sharaf and Perumal 2018). It is recognized that consumers might refuse to buy green products for its premium, so it can be suggested that retailers can contribute in changing consumers' negative perception of premium prices green products, by making these products affordable to a wider range of consumers, which can reshape the perception of green products, and make the consumers believe that their prices are reasonable and always buy them (Sharaf and Perumal 2018).

6.5 Theoretical Contributions and Practical Implications

The results of this study have answered continuance academic calls for more up-to-date research on consumers' acceptance of PEBs (Huang 2016; Steg et al. 2014; Steg and Vlek 2009), and exploring the motivations encouraging consumers to adopt PEBs (Ertz et al. 2016; Hurst et al. 2013; Polonsky et al. 2014; Strizhakova and Coulter 2013). This study aimed to identify themes underlying consumers' PEBs in the context of Saudi Arabia. The results of this research has confirmed the relevance of themes such as social media, perceived consumer effectiveness,

universal eco-labelling, and price with Saudi consumers. Future research can use the explored themes to extend models used extensively in the PEBs research such as the theory of planned behaviour (TPB), the norm activation theory (NAT), the value belief norm theory (VBN), which offer a further theoretical contribution.

The results of this research can be useful for academic researchers in the area of consumer behaviour, and more specifically in the area of understanding consumers' intentions to adopt PEBs. The results of this research are hoped to be useful for developers, managers, and marketers in exploring themes of adopting PEBS in Saudi Arabia. So they can use the results of this study to formulate effective strategies that can have an impact on their behaviours, which might benefit both, the environment, and the society in the country. Also this research will be valuable to those in the growth stage as environmental companies particularly in Saudi Arabia.

6.6   Conclusion, Limitations, and Future Research

The need for sustainable development in Saudi Arabia requires alternative consumption patterns. This chapter has provided a valuable first step in exploring themes related to consumers' PEBs in Saudi Arabia; a developing country with different cultural backgrounds, fast economic growth, and with early stages of PEBs among consumers. As a result of this study Saudi consumers confirmed that Eco-labelling is an effective way to provide easily accessible information for them, and the absence of these labels could present a barrier towards adopting PEBs. However, very little attention has been paid to that from providers in the country. The results of this study also suggest that Saudi consumers' use of social media applications such as YouTube and Snapchat has exposed them to information about the impact of their behaviours on the environment, which can influence their future PEBs. Saudi consumer's responses during the interviews of this study revealed that Saudis believe that their efforts as individuals will not make any difference towards solving environmental issues, which stood in contrast to results found in the Western literature, this result might be related to the collectivistic culture in the country of Saudi Arabia.

A number of limitations of this study are noted. For instance, it is not easy to monitor consumers' actual behaviours. This research has been undertaken in one particular cultural context (Saudi Arabia) the sample focused on a small number of young generations, therefore the results may not be generalised to other contexts or age groups. Therefore, it also might be interesting to follow this study with a quantitative study as this context is relatively new in Saudi Arabia, and this approach can provide rich information about consumers in Saudi Arabia from a large sample of the population.

This chapter identifies numerous factors with actionable implications for companies seeking an understanding of consumers' PEBs. A series of interviews were used to gain a deeper understanding of the influence of social media, PCE, and universal eco-labelling, as well as, identifying additional factors which might apply

in the context of the factors affecting consumers' PEBs in Saudi Arabia. Companies interested in PEBs and business models might also wish to incorporate product attributes e.g. universal eco-labelling and price influence in their models and strategies.

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Chapter 7
Materialism Effect on Apparel Collaborative Consumption Platform Usage: A Research Proposal

Zainah Qasem, Raed Algharabat, Ali Abdallah Alalwan, and Doa'a Hajawi

7.1 Introduction

Collaborative consumption (CC) has become a buzzword during the past few years. The total transactions of CC in Europe are valued at €28 billion in 2016 and expected transactions are valued at €570 billion by 2025 (PwC 2017). The upsurge of CC has brought forward new business in many industries, such as in transportation (e.g. Uber) and housing (e.g., Airbnb, HomeAway). In recent years the fashion and apparel industry is witnessing a rapid emergence of CC platforms (e.g. Rent the Runway, and Nolotiro). However, academic researches on CC, in fashion and apparel context, are still limited in comparison to other industries such as travel and transportation (Park and Armstrong 2017)

In fashion and apparel industry context, CC accentuates product usage rather than ownership, through sharing usage of underutilized or unwanted products by renting, swapping, trading, and lending (Botsman and Rogers 2010; Lang and Armstrong 2018)

As the definition of CC—"a peer-to-peer-based activity of obtaining, giving, or sharing the access to goods and services, coordinated through community-based

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online service" (Hamari et al. 2016, p. 1)—suggests, the exchange of apparel is expected to happen between private individuals. However, the fashion and apparel retail industry is seeing a phenomenon where an increasing number of retailers are developing business models to provide a platform that facilitates renting or sharing of clothing items between consumers and/or the retailer (Perlacia et al. 2017). For example, some notable companies such as "The Ms. Collection" are providing the consumer with an unlimited assortment of designer dresses and accessories through their rental and swapping services for a rental subscription (Lang and Armstrong 2018). As this business is booming, it is becoming more important for retailers to understand apparel CC customer consumption behavior, what motivates customers to adopt such as models, and more importantly what stops them from using such as services.

In this chapter, our main goal is to explore the factors that drive consumers in collectivist cultures to participate in fashion CC platforms; particularly for consumers who have been reluctant to make use of fashion CC so far.

7.2   Literature Review

The internet has influenced people's daily living significantly. Through the internet, people can achieve different tasks which include searching for and acquiring information by using search engines, trading by using electronic commerce (e-commerce) and communicating with other individuals by using different communication platforms. The fast progress of internet tools has brought more attention to virtual communities and facilitated people virtual interaction through providing convenient applications such as virtual platforms and social media sites (Shiau et al. 2017).

Social media are defined as the "group of Internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of Web 2.0 and that allow the creation and exchange of User Generated Content" (Kaplan and Haenlein 2010, p. 61). As its definition suggests, social media applications and platforms are allowing people to effectively interact with one another by commenting on different topics, reviewing different products and services, and even creating content (Harrigan et al. 2017). As a result, social media has led to the development of a new means of communication that involves customer interaction, facilitate value co-creation (Nambisan and Baron 2007; Zwass 2010; Kamboj et al. 2018), and introduce customers as main players in the purchase process.

As more and more people are relying on these platforms to receive recommendations on products and services, and keeping up-to-date with news, and latest trends (Shiau et al. 2017), modern firms started focusing more on understanding how potential customers are engaging in using these systems (Alalwan et al. 2017), and how to formulate a clear idea about the future of their business.

The large number of members participating in social networks and the key role word-of-mouth plays in forming users' behaviour and attitude (Liang and Turban 2011)

have resulted in the emergence of the concept of social commerce as a way to make commercial benefit from social networks such as sharing of commercial information or sales of product/service (Liang et al. 2011).

Social commerce is a form of internet-based activities that depend on peer-to-peer interaction, and it utilizes social media to "support social interactions and user contributions to assist activities in the buying and selling of products and services online and offline" (Wang and Zhang 2012, p. 2). Similarly, Yadav et al. (2013) defined social commerce as an "exchange-related activities that occur in, or are influenced by, an individual's social network in computer-mediated social environments, where the activities correspond to the need recognition, pre-purchase, purchase, and post-purchase stages of a focal exchange" (Yadav et al. 2013, p. 312).

The definition of social commerce indicates that its exchange-related activities, such as transaction, are performed through a computer-mediated environment and incorporate activities connected to consumer and companies contained under social commerce domain (Huang and Benyoucef 2017).

Taking into consideration social commerce definition and main associations, CC, "an economic system in which assets or services are shared between private individuals, either free or for a fee, typically by means of the Internet" (Oxford 2017), is categorised as a form of social commerce.

7.2.1 Collaborative Consumption

Consumer research witnesses increased attention to a collection of connected business and consumption practices known as "collaborative consumption" (Botsman and Rogers 2010). Hamari and Ukkonen (2015) introduced a general definition of CC as "a peer-to-peer-based activity of obtaining, giving, or sharing the access to goods and services, coordinated through community-based online service" (Hamari and Ukkonen 2015, p. 1). Belk (2014) articulated a more business-oriented definition for CC by emphasizing the importance of compensation in the exchange process. In his definition, Belk (2014) stated that CC is represented by "people coordinating the acquisition and distribution of a resource for a fee or other compensation which include, trading, bartering, or swapping activities which involve giving and receiving non-monetary compensation" (Belk 2014, p. 1597).

7.2.2 Collaborative Consumption of Apparel

Apparel business utilizing the CC concept; have begun to arise in recent years. In the apparel business CC activities have two unique systems, in the first system people are paying to access the use of products instead of ownership (renting),

and in the second system people are redistributing unwanted or underused apparel (swapping) (Botsman 2013). In this chapter, our main focus will be on the first system (renting) where retailers are promoting the usage of product over ownership (Chou et al. 2015).

Renting is defined as "a transaction in which one party offers an item to another party for a fixed period in exchange for a fixed amount of money and in which there is no change of ownership" (Durgee and Colarelli O'Connor 1995, p. 90). In the business model using apparel rental CC systems the company is offering customers, who do not necessarily have the financial ability to own designer clothing, the opportunities to temporarily acquire designer clothing or fashion related-accessories to use in daily life. It also allows the rental company to maintain the ownership of these items and generate profit by re-renting them (Pedersen and Netter 2015). Therefore, understanding what motivates customers to subscribe to such as services has great importance for retailers.

7.2.3   Materialism

A number of scholars provided definitions of materialism. Rassuli and Hollander (1986, p. 10) describe materialism as "a mindset, an interest in getting and spending" (Rassuli and Hollander 1986, p. 10). Belk (1984) defines it as "the importance a consumer attaches to worldly possessions" Belk (1984, p. 291). Richins and Dawson (1992) define materialism as the importance ascribed to the ownership and acquisition of material goods in achieving major life goals or desired states (Richins and Dawson 1992). In this chapter, we will adopt Richins and Dawson (1992) which indicates that materialism is a representation of the role that ownership plays in individuals' lives. Ellis (1992) proposed that materialism is an important predictor of consumer behavior. Accordingly, it is expected that individuals described as materialists will value ownership of products and will have a positive attitude towards it (Tilikidou and Delistavrou 2004). Usage without ownership is the main pillar in CC business; therefore, it is essential to understand the effect of this variable on adopting CC systems.

7.2.4   Collectivist Cultures

The core component of collectivism is the assumption that individual is interdependent on the group. The individual is seen as part of a more significant group where he/she is expected to follow and obey societies' roles (Oyserman et al. 2002; Frost et al. 2010). Thus, to gain group approval, the individual in collectivist cultures is expected to make sacrifices for the common good and to maintain harmony in the group (Oyserman et al. 2002; Frost et al. 2010).

7.2.5 Collectivist Cultures and Materialism

Materialism influence varies between cultures (Holt 1998). Griffin et al. (2004) suggested that structure and cultural factors influence the relative amounts and influence of materialism between cultures.

Collectivist cultures, which are associated with values such as benevolence, conformity, and universalism, are expected to have a negative relationship with the self-centred materialism (Burroughs and Rindfleisch 2002; Workman and Lee 2011). Although materialism is a socially constructed value and it is expected to be minimally possessed by members of collective oriented cultures, individuals are expected to possess different values, beliefs, and attitudes that are shaped by their distinctive cultures (Workman and Lee 2011).

Richins and Dawson (1992) described materialism as a value that composes three sub-dimensions: acquisition centrality, the role of acquisition in defining individual's success, and acquisition as the pursuit of happiness. This suggests that materialism level affects consumer behavior, how people prioritise acquisition over other values, and how they perceive material well-being as an indication of achievement and social status (Karabati and Cemalcilar 2010). Thus, it is believed that individuals who are described as high materialists are thought to value the opinion of others (Clarke and Micken 2002).

Accordingly, understanding materialism effect on members of collectivist cultures is essential to understanding of individual's behavior towards renting apparel using apparel CC platforms.

7.3 Conceptual Framework and Hypothesis Development

7.3.1 Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA)

Apparel CC activities are being coordinated through community-based online service (Hamari and Ukkonen 2015) which makes theories that predict adoption of new technologies (e.g. TAM, UTAUT, and UTAUT2) suitable theoretical frameworks to build on. In this chapter, we are focusing on the adoption of apparel renting behavior using CC platforms rather than the adoption of CC as a new technology. Thus, we will use TRA as a theoretical framework.

TRA is one of the three classic models of persuasion that is used to predict how individuals will behave based on their pre-existing attitudes and behavioral intentions (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980). TRA states that intention is the primary predictor of the behavior and intention is a function of two factors: attitude towards the behavior—"An individual's positive or negative feelings (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975, p. 216)—and subjective norms (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975)—"the perception that most people who are important to the individual think he/she should or should not perform the behavior in question" (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980, p. 19).

7.3.2   Intention to Use Apparel CC Platform Services

Chen (2007) introduced intention as the "anticipated or planned future behavior of individuals and is also an immediate determinant of a behavior" (Chen 2007, p. 110–11). In this chapter, intention refers to individual anticipation to use apparel CC platform services.

Most of the behavior predicting models such as the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen 1985) and TAM (Davis 1989) reported a significant and robust link between behavioral intention and targeted behavior (Van der Heijden et al. 2003). As apparel CC is still not that popular among the targeted sample and customers' usage of this service is primitive, intention will form an indication of actual usage.

7.3.3   Subjective Norm and Intention

Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) defined subjective norms as "person's perception that most people who are important to him think he should or should not perform the behavior in question" (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975, p. 320). TRA links subjective norms directly to behavior intention and suggests that it has a significant effect on a motivating individual's behavior (Ajzen 1975). We thus hypothesize that:

H1: There is a positive relationship between subjective norms towards renting apparel using apparel CC platforms and intention to rent apparel using apparel CC platforms.

7.3.4   Attitude and Intention

Most of the behavior predicting models such as the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen 1985) and TAM (Davis 1989) presents attitude as a strong predictor of intention. A positive relationship between attitude and intention was reported in many technology consumption contexts such as fashion retailing and e-banking (e.g. Hanafizadeh et al. 2014). We thus hypothesize that:

H2: There is a positive relationship between attitudes towards renting apparel using apparel CC platforms and intention to rent apparel using apparel CC platforms.

7.3.5   Subjective Norms and Attitude

Fishbein and Ajzen connected subjective norms to normative beliefs that individuals are expected to meet the expectations of other society members, such as family, friends, supervisor, or society at large (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975). The need to

comply with social rules is expected to be more prominent in collectivist cultures, where a person's degree of separation from a group is meagre. Thus, a person's positive or negative feelings towards adopting a specific behavior (i.e. attitude) are expected to be significantly affected by its community. We thus hypothesise that:

H3: There is a positive relationship between subjective norms towards renting apparel using apparel CC platforms and attitude to rent apparel using apparel CC platforms.

7.3.6   Materialism and Attitude

Materialism represents an individual's perception of how important it is to possess material and the role material possessions plays in his/her life (Richins 2004). Naturally, individuals holding a high level of materialism are expected to prefer ownership of products over temporary use. Belk (1987) stated that materialistic customer satisfaction is a result of ownership, which indicates that lack of ownership will result in a negative feeling towards the behavior. Apparel CC renting service is based on the concept of temporary possession of items (Bardhi and Eckhardt 2010). Accordingly, the degree of perceived materialism is a crucial predictor of consumer behavior towards this service. Thus we hypothesis:

H4a: There is a negative relationship between perceived materialism and intention to rent apparel using apparel CC platforms.
H4b: There is a negative relationship between materialism and attitude to renting apparel using apparel CC platforms (Fig. 7.1).
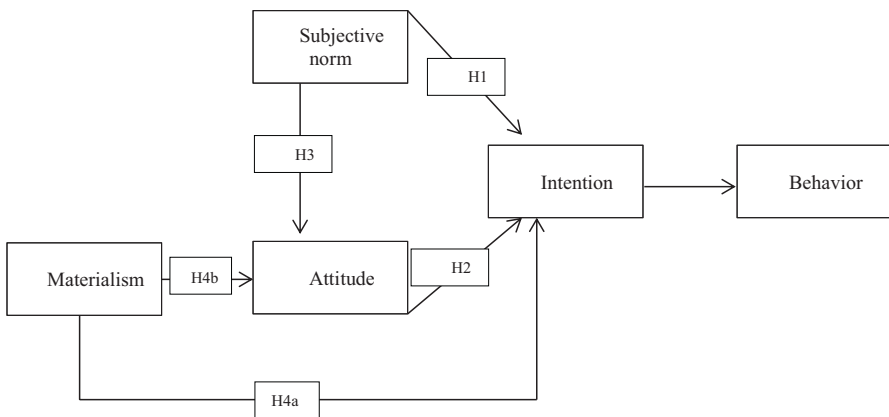

Fig. 7.1 Conceptual model

7.4   Proposed Research Methodology

As discussed above, the current study model and research hypotheses were proposed based on TRA. The targeted sample of this study will be potential and current customers of apparel renting CC platforms in collectivist cultures. Therefore, we are proposing developing a survey-based quantitative research. Factors will be measured using scale items adopted from previous studies. Once the data is collected, structural equation modelling (SEM) analysis will be conducted to validate the conceptual model and verify the significance of the hypothesis.

7.5   Conclusion

The emergence of collaborative consumption (CC) has resulted in creating different business opportunities in many industries, including, but not limited to, fashion and apparel industry.

Fashion retailers have started using the CC concept through promoting the usage of products over ownership (Chou et al. 2015). To achieve their goals retailers have created fashion and apparel CC platforms that offer renting services.

Due to the increased number of fashion and apparel CC platforms (e.g. Rent the Runway, and Nolotiro) and the significant public interest in using these platforms; it is becoming important for business and academics to understand what affects customers decision to use fashion and apparel CC platforms. In this conceptual chapter we focus on exploring factors that prevent fashion and apparel CC platforms potential customers who are coming from collectivist cultures from using these platforms.

Materialism was introduced in this model as a potential variable that discourages the adoption of fashion and apparel CC platforms in collectivist cultures. Accordingly, understanding materialism effect on members of collectivist cultures is essential to understand an individual's behavior towards renting apparel using apparel CC platforms.

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Part II
Social Media Analytics

Chapter 8
Persona Classification of Celebrity Twitter Users

Aastha Kaul, Vatsala Mittal, Monica Chaudhary, and Anuja Arora

8.1 Introduction

Social networking on the web has dramatically grown over the last decade. Twitter is one of the most popular online social networking sites where many celebrities post tweets for their fans and also post something related to an event. Twitter is a microblogging service because it enables users to send and read a short text message, which is known as "tweet." There are 316 million monthly active users on Twitter, and 500 million tweets are posted per day (internetlivestats.com). Through self-description, status update, and tweets, we can find a lot about the users. We can use these tweets to analyze the interest of users and get to know the trends going on at any place. A user's knowledge of social sites could be remarkably improved if other information like demographic attributes and user's personal interest and the interest of other users are considered. This is truer in case of celebrity users. This chapter attempts to analyze celebrity tweets to provide relevant recommendations to the practitioners. Such analysis may help in designing a smart recommendation system. Few websites contain similar sort of features and show users' interest areas such as klout, which gives klout score (out of 100) to every twitter user according to the number of twitter posts and the post's influential content shared by them. It also shows all the influential topics of a specific twitter user, as shown in Fig. 8.1 for the Indian Prime minister; Mr. Narendra Modi's klout score is "90." .

   With the rapid increase of information on these social media sites, it is becoming difficult for users to get the most relevant tweets and for companies to target the most relevant users according to a particular topic/theme. Therefore, system requires research methods to extract influential topics and to validate accuracy of influential topic identification, which itself is a challenging task. Influential topic identification can help various applications and covers various perspectives:

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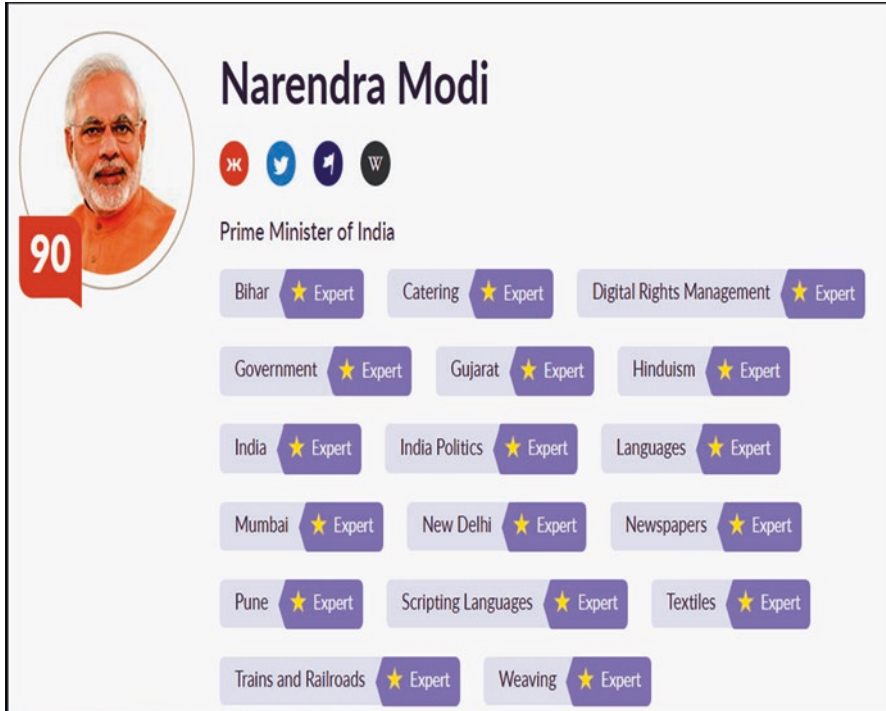
Fig. 8.1 Klout score and influential topic identification

- *Users' perspective*: user can get relevant tweets according to their choice of influential topic. For example: Gujarat is shown as one of the influential topic in Fig. 8.1. Even, User can further explore influential subtopics under the influential broad topic.
- *Company perspective*: while going for brand promotion companies may target users according to a specific influential topic instead of users who are not at all interested in product. Hence, this may help companies to target specific influential topic users for their brand promotion as well.
- *Twitter perspective*: Twitter itself can use influential topic as feature to design user's timeline/news feed. Tweets order can be decided based on users' influential topic for users news feed.

This research work is an effort in this direction, and it tries to identify the persona of a user based on their twitter feeds. The user's tweet feed-based influential topic has been identified using Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA) algorithm and the results have been refined using hypernyms. Three classification algorithms (Naïve Bayes, Decision Tree, and Support Vector Machine) are used to classify the users' persona, out of which Naïve Bayes provides the highest accuracy. In context to literature study, this work makes novel and unique research contributions. The refined research objectives are:

1. Critically analyze the existing classification methods for persona classification, the techniques and key theoretical contributions.
2. Design an approach to classify user's persona through tweets' contents into six predefined categories.
3. Identify persona of selected celebrities and users according to posted tweets and retweets content.

This chapter attempts to analyze celebrity tweets to provide relevant recommendations to the practitioners. The tweets of celebrity users are classified using two distinct approaches (1) Fixed Classification into six predefined categories and (2) Generating a category if the tweet does not belong to any defined category. The first kind of classification has been done in three different ways; by individually applying Naïve Bayes, Decision Tree and Support Vector Machine. For generating a new category Latent Dirichlet Allocation is used. Henceforth, this Persona Classification of Celebrity Twitter Users will help users to gain insight into their interests thereby decluttering their twitter feed and showing them relevant content on their feed. With an understanding of celebrity persona, smart recommendation systems can also be designed. The chapter is organized as follows: Integrated summary of related literature is detailed in Sect. 8.2, which further divides literature in two subsections—tweets classification and celebrity persona. Dataset statistics are enlisted in Sect. 8.3 which covers data preprocessing also. Section 8.4 discusses user persona research method. Experimental evaluation and results are summarized in Sect. 8.5, where results are presented of proposed approach in order to reflect performance of the developed system. Finally, Sect. 8.6 deals with the implications and limitations of the study, followed by the conclusion section.

8.2   Related Literature

Twitter is a popular social networking site, where users search for social information such as breaking news, posts about celebrities, and trending topics. Since Twitter's launch, its popularity has been increasing. It has been used in various campaigns, elections and as a news medium, and therefore it is important to classify tweets into general categories for better information retrieval and easier understanding of topics.

Internet users share private content, such as personal information or photographs, even their likes and dislikes. An individual's online behavior creates their unique persona and this persona helps businesses to analyze their behavior patterns and needs and deliver accordingly. By classifying a user's tweet into general categories like sports, politics, and entertainment, we define the user's "persona". If a user mostly tweets about sports, we can say he is interested in sports and thereby define his or her persona accordingly. Several works have been done in the field of social networking (Shiau et al. 2017), namely, classification of gender (Ugheoke and Saskatchewan 2014), classification of the topic (Sriram et al. 2010), sentiment

analysis of Twitter users based on tweets (Go et al. 2009), event detection (Sakaki et al. 2010), and community detection, which provide us an insight into the user's interests and generate their personality.

8.2.1 Twitter Classification

Twitter Classification approach has been evolving since the year 2000. This is very much needed as twitter is not just a social networking site but rather a powerful medium to express your thoughts and opinions; through these tweets we can find a lot about users.

In 2000 text categorization was done using basic machine learning algorithm like Support Vector Machine (SVM) (Siolas and d'Alché-Buc 2000). The authors proposed to solve a text categorization task using a new metric between documents, based on a priori semantic knowledge about words. This metric can be incorporated into the definition of radial basis kernels of Support Vector Machines or directly used in a K-nearest neighbor algorithm. The method proposed was based on the exploitation of the information provided by Wordnet. They found out that semantic smoothing is relevant for text categorization and the introduction of the semantic proximity matrix in the kernel increases the number of support vectors. Moreover, in case of SVM, the results in terms of precision, recall, and accuracy appear to be very high. Using Wordnet there was another study by Elberrichi in 2008 (Elberrichi et al. 2008). The approach in this study was composed of two stages. The first stage relates to the learning phase which was to merge terms with associated concepts to represent texts. The second stage relates to the classification phase which consisted of generating the weighted vector for all categories and then using a similarity to find the closest category. They reached an f1 score of 71.7% which in comparison of Bag of Words representation was an increase by at least 6% on the Reuters Data.

Short text classification in twitter was done in 2010 to improve information filtering by proposing a method to classify the text into a predefined set of generic classes such as news events etc. (Sriram et al. 2010). In this approach, the learning model trains itself using these features. They proposed that categorization of tweets need prior knowledge of the tweet such as corporate tweets have different motivation as compared to that of a personal tweet. The results showed that the author feature was an improvement over simple Bag of Words classification. When all the features were applied there was an overall of 50% improvement compared to the simple bag of words classification. The results also show that noisy data may degrade the performance of the proposed approaches and hence noise removal is important.

Another very interesting study was conducted in 2011 by Golbeck, where the big five personality model was administered into tweets using regression (Golbeck et al. 2011). For prediction personality of a user, this new approach proposed to bridge the gap between social media and personality research by using the information people reveal in their online profiles. They administered the Big Five Personality Inventory to 279 subjects through a Twitter application. This model

contained five personalities as follows: (1) Openness to Experience (2), Conscientiousness (3), Extroversion (4), Agreeableness (5), and Neuroticism. To analyze the data, they used mainly two tools: first was LIWC (Linguistic Inquiry and Word Count). Second was that they then ran the text again on the MRC Psycholinguistic Database. Next task was to run Pearson Correlation analysis between the user's personality score and each of the feature obtained from analyzing the tweets. Finally, predicting personality was done by using regression tools on WEKA.

In 2012 Lehmann explained Dynamical classes of collective attention in Twitter by analyzing tweets and finding the evolution of hash tag popularity over time defining discrete classes of hash tags (Lehmann et al. 2012). They focused their analysis on those hashtags that exhibited a popularity peak during our observation period and systematically analyze the corresponding messages ("tweets") by grounding the words. On visual inspection the individual temporal profiles of hashtag usage display behaviors that typically fall into one of the following three categories: continuous activity, periodic activity, or activity concentrated around an isolated peak. For identifying the activity peaks for every hashtag they computed time series of daily activity. To correlate the temporal activity patterns with the content, they performed semantic grounding of tweets using Wordnet. For identifying classes they use a standard implementation of the Expectation Maximization (EM) algorithm (Fraley and Raftery 2006). They then used Wordnet to systematically analyze contents of tweets associated with the group of hashtags. LDA was also used for short text classification by Chen in 2016 in which he gave an improved short text classification method based on Latent Dirichlet Allocation topic model and K-nearest neighbor algorithm is proposed (Chen et al. 2016). In addition, it presents a topic similarity measure method with the topic-word matrix and the relationship of the discriminative terms between two short texts. LDA topic model is employed to generate the topic word matrix. Feature vectors are extracted for a sample of short texts; reweight the feature vector using the topic-word matrix through discriminative words and then, calculate the topic similarity between two short texts. At last, classifiers are trained by the labeled dataset. The topic similarity combines the semantic features generated by LDA topic model and the information of discriminative words. Therefore, they exploit the topic similarity as distance metric of KNN algorithm. The Precision Recall and F1-measure of their method have significantly increased by 25–47% over KNN. Figure 8.2 shows the summarized past work done on Tweet Classification by various researchers in the field of Twitter feeds as social media content.

8.2.2 Using Celebrity Persona

According to Rein, Kottler, and Stoller, celebrity refers to an individual "whose name has attention-getting, interest-riveting and profit generating value" (Kotler et al. 1987). Celebrities have always served as beacons of the mass public. Celebrities
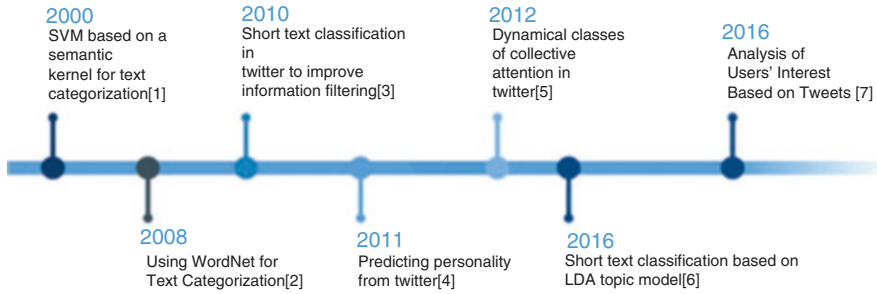
Fig. 8.2 Tweet classification literature summary (Research papers with publishing years)

with their unique persona help defining the spirit of any particular moment that relied in part on its intervention through film, radio, popular music and television (Marshall 2010). Celebrity taught generations how to engage and use consumer culture to "make" oneself (Leiss et al. 1990). With the advent of social media celebrities' public self is presented through a new layer of interpersonal conversations. Celebrity use of social media articulates this change (Marshall 2010). Celebrity practitioners reveal what appears to be personal information to create a sense of intimacy between participant and follower, publicly acknowledge fans, and use language and cultural references to create affiliations with followers (Marwick and Boyd 2011).

Celebrity persona is a site of tension and ambiguity in which an active audience has the space to make meaning of their world by accepting or rejecting the social values embodied by a celebrity image (Balasubramanian et. al. 2016). Thus, an examination of celebrity persona and the social meaning and significance generated by their persona offers new ways of understanding the society and markets (AlAlwan et al. 2017; Kapoor et al. 2018). The celebrity persona is not confined to their professional image but actually consists of everything publicly available about them (Dyer 2013).

Armstrong was probably the first one to analyze "celebrity persona" as a property (Armstrong Jr 1990). In his study, he very creatively explained how celebrity persona has become property, how the gradual accretion of characteristics such as the right to exclude and alienate usually associated with property. There are many quantitative studies and case studies that explore the use of celebrities in propagating business and brands. One such case study was about Jamie Oliver (well known as television celebrity the Naked Chef) into the promotions of one of Britain's leading grocery chains, which involves a high profile campaign that has been adopted in order to imbue the company's products with an image of quality (Byrne et al. 2003). Another study by Meyers in 2009 explores the power of popular media in shaping a celebrity in the case of the famous singer Britney Spears (Meyers 2009). There are some studies that also analyze celebrity persona as an important means of delivering politics via the mass media. This particular study analyzes Arnold Schwarzenegger's

persona in his speeches (Drake and Higgins 2006). In another interesting study by (Marshall 2010), social media via social network is seen as a "presentational media' for celebrities. Social media is also a form of presentation of the self and produces this new hybrid among the personal, interpersonal, and the mediated. Via Facebook, MySpace, Friendster, and Twitter individuals engage in an expression of the self, which is like the celebrity discourse of the self (Marshall 2010).

Celebrity endorsement in business is a popular advertising technique (Dwivedi et al. 2015; Shareef et al. 2019). Celebrity endorsement advertising has been recognized as "a ubiquitous feature of modern marketing" (McCracken 1989). There have been few studies examining the celebrity advertising in their respective country; USA (Stephens and Rice 1998), Japan (Kilburn 1998), United Kingdom (Davies and Slater 2015), China (Jiang et al. 2015), India (Agnihotri and Bhattacharya 2016), Kenya (Njuguna and Otieno 2015), Mexico (Felix and Borges 2014), and Australia (Dixon et al. 2014).

8.3   Research Methodology

Perhaps the best way to illustrate the theoretical claims is to examine how they apply to a specific celebrity persona. That is what this chapter is offering. The chapter attempts to examine the tweets by six celebrities and hence analyzes their persona.

With internet availability and reach, massive amount of celebrity-focused media is available. It would be tough to select a "celebrity" as there is very large number of people who qualify as "celebrities." But safely, it can be said that not all celebrities are equal in terms of media coverage. One defining characteristic of celebrity is that a social actor attracts large-scale public attention: the greater the number of people who know of and pay attention to the actor, the greater the extent and value of that (Rindova et al. 2006). Another important characteristic of a celebrity is that the actor elicits positive emotional responses from the public (Heider 1946; Trope and Liberman 2000).

So, for this study, it is necessary to focus on a celebrity whose image is easily traceable and is active (textual) on twitter. The study here examines the celebrity persona of six celebrities; Ellen Degeneres, Bill Gates, Barack Obama, Dalai Lama, Amitabh Bachchan, and Selena Gomez. The tweets of these celebrities are captured during the year 2017. These tweets are then classified into six distinct categories; Education, Entertainment, Health, Nature, Politics, and Sports.

Broad research workflow is presented in Fig. 8.2. As we see from the figure, complete research work is classified in two parts:

1. User Persona Classification Method: In this method, three classification algorithms have been implemented to categorize celebrities' tweets into celebrity persona.
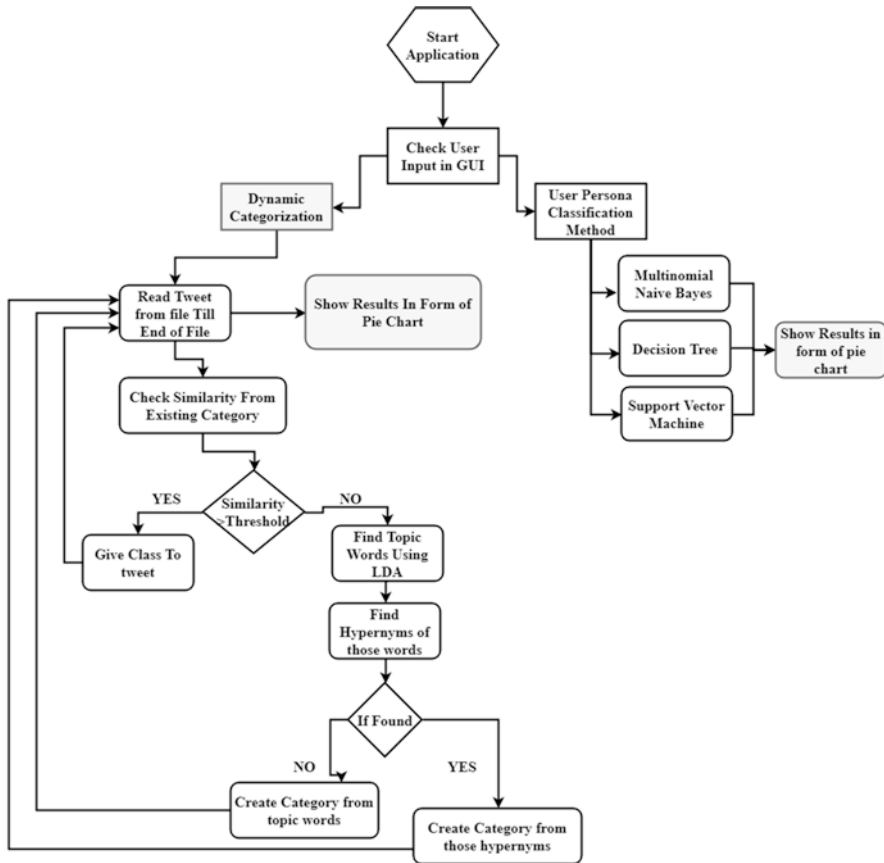
Fig. 8.3 Research workflow

2. Dynamic Categorization: In this method, a new category of persona based on tweet content has been generated by the system using LDA topic modeling algorithm and hypernyms of words (Fig. 8.3).

8.3.1 Data Statistics

Different categories' twitter feed data characteristics that were used during the work are detailed in Table 8.1. This helps the reader to identify the present variation in fetched data and to validate the usefulness, correctness of applied approaches towards varying Twitter data. Data has been collected using Twitter API (Tweepy for Python). Twitter feed data for different celebrity users with their characteristics is shown in Table 8.2.

Table 8.1 Dataset statistical information for Twitter Feed Data for six defined categories

Category	#of tweets	Average no. of tweets	Max. length	Avg. length	Min. length
Education	2370	0.088	399	128	19
Entertainment	4883	0.183	370	127	10
Health	2500	0.094	283	126	17
Nature	1933	0.072	126	29	0
Politics	7500	0.281	376	127	9
Sports	7500	0.281	357	125	6

Table 8.2 Dataset information about User's Twitter Feed Data for six different users

Name of user	#of tweets	Average no. of tweets	Max. length	Avg. length	Min. length
Ellen Degeneres	3210	0.193	133	94	34
Bill Gates	2489	0.150	153	125	18
Barack Obama	3215	0.194	157	116	28
Dalai Lama	1286	0.775	150	115	30
Amitabh Bachchan	3160	0.190	324	85	4
Selena Gomez	3224	0.194	196	84	2

8.3.2   Data Preprocessing

Tweets are a new genre of text, which are short, informal, ungrammatical, and noise prone. So, to add a bit of a structure and to make the text more readable and cleaner, various steps are followed which are as follows:

Tokenization and stop words removal: Stop words do not give vital information in the understanding of a text. Hence they can be removed in order to perform a better analysis of data. For example we have a tweet "Bruno Mars New Album To Drop On 2016? I'm On A Mission", what tokenization and removal of stop words will do is that words like "on", "a", "to" and "I'm" will be removed and the resultant tweet will be "Bruno Mars New Album Mission".

Emoticons removal: When a tweet is extracted using Twitter API and stored in .csv format, the emoticons don't appear as they are posted. Instead, they get converted and require to be encoded using utf-16and hence should be removed. For example "Weekend   is   looking   Great   ðŸ‡©ðŸ‡ªðŸ   GO   OFF ðŸ   ðŸ   ðŸ   ðŸ   ðŸ Via: @mikealdred #e30 #off #rally #xi #winter #gooff #euro #bmwworld #performance". It can be clearly seen the symbols are a waste and therefore should be removed.

Punctuation marks removal: In tweet classification task punctuation marks don't prove to be useful and therefore can be removed. For example in the tweet "Your Favourite Singers Will Be Back For American Idol's Final Season!!!!!" The exclamation marks don't provide any additional information and hence should be removed.

Hashtag and hyperlink removal: The hashtag symbol # and hyperlinks are treated as waste as we don't extract any information from them and hence their removal helps in getting better results. For example "Watch: Elton John on 'Ellen' talks sons and new album https://t.co/V8TcEe1mCI #DeGeneres" is transformed into "Watch Elton John on 'Ellen' talks sons and new album DeGeneres."

Stemming and lemmatization: Stemming and lemmatization were used to reduce inflectional forms and derivationally related forms of a word to a common base form.

POS tagging: While performing POS tagging, it is observed that the various tags are activated over the lemmatized words such as -Noun (*N*) tag, Adjective (*ADJ*) tag, Verb (*VB*) tag, Adverb (*ADV*) tag, and Unknown (*UNK*) tag. *UNK* tag refers to that tag for which no POS category is provided to the tokens, since such tokens are not listed in POS tagging list. Tagging is done to extract only proper nouns and nouns from the tweets.

8.3.2.1   User Persona Classification Method

In this study, classification has been done in two phases. First phase is category-specific persona classification, which helps to assign persona of a user according to their posted tweets. This persona category is already defined because data from six predefined categories have been extracted. Even, this phase is helpful to validate results as well due to existing persona category. System is able to justify the accuracy in detecting persona based on terms usage in tweets. Second phase gives persona, which is out of these six predefined categories. Latent Dirichlet Allocation and hypernyms has been used to generate persona category.

Category-specific user persona classification: This is the first kind of tweet classification and has been done in three different ways; by individually applying Naïve Bayes, Decision Tree and Support Vector Machine. Six predefined categories namely Education, Entertainment, Health, Sports, Nature and Politics were used. All the models were first trained with 80% tweets per category and then tested with the rest. The techniques were then evaluated and accuracy for each classifier was calculated. Celebrity user's Twitter data was then used as input for different trained models to find out the resultant categories of their tweets and the results were shown in form of a pie chart.

Proceeding with one tweet at a time from, similarity with each category with the help of word similarity is calculated. If this similarity was above the defined threshold of 0.21 then the category with maximum similarity to the tweet was assigned. But if the similarity was less than the threshold, topic modeling using LDA was done on the tweet. Hypernyms (Root Word) of the topic words generated using LDA were found and appropriate hypernyms were made the category of the tweet.

Dynamic categorization: For the second kind of classification, we had text files
containing a minimum of 2000 different words for all the six categories. Taking
one tweet at a time from the celebrity user's twitter data, similarity with these
words were calculated using TF-IDF. If this similarity was above the defined
threshold, then the category with the maximum similarity was assigned. But if
the similarity calculated was below the defined threshold a new category for the
tweet had to be generated. For this purpose, Latent Dirichlet Allocation was used
to generate topic words for each tweet and using Wordnet library hypernyms
(Root Word) were found for the topic words. These hypernyms were then made
as the category of the tweet and a text file was created in which all the related
words were added, if it didn't exist already. Now when the next tweet was
considered similarity was calculated with the words of the six defined categories
and the words of the newly generated classes. For proper nouns as no hypernyms
were generated, the proper noun itself had to be made the new category of the
tweet. The results for the celebrity users in this kind of classification were again
shown in form of a pie chart.

8.4   Experimental Evaluation and Results

8.4.1   Category-Specific User Persona Classification Results

Table 8.3 shows a comparison between used supervised techniques like Naïve
Bayes, Decision Tree, and SVM. It can be seen that Naïve Bayes performs the best
with an accuracy of 90.02%, while Decision Tree performs the worst with an
accuracy of 44.69%.

Figure 8.4a shows the classification of tweets of user "Ellen Degeneres" into the
defined six categories using Naive Bayes Algorithm. It shows that 44.3% of the
tweets belong to Sports category, 35.9% fall into Entertainment while only 1.4%
belongs to Health. Figure 8.4b uses Decision Tree for classification and reports that
85% of the tweets fall into the Sports category; 2.2% belong to nature and there are
tweets in the categories Entertainment and Politics. Figure 8.4c shows the
classification using SVM algorithm showing that 62% of the tweets are under
Sports, 16.7% fall into Entertainment while only 2.2% fall under Nature. Similarly
analyses of "Barak Obama" are shown in Fig. 8.5.

Table 8.3 Comparison of various supervised learning techniques

Classification algorithm	Accuracy
Naive Bayes	90.02%
Decision Tree (Gini Index)	44.69%
Support Vector Machine	61.32%
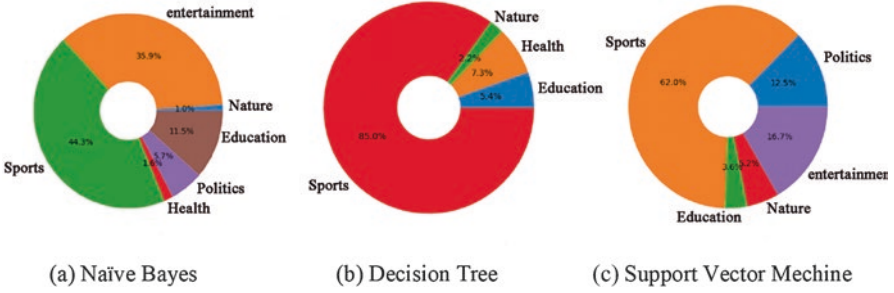
Fig. 8.4 "Ellen Degeneres" Persona classification results
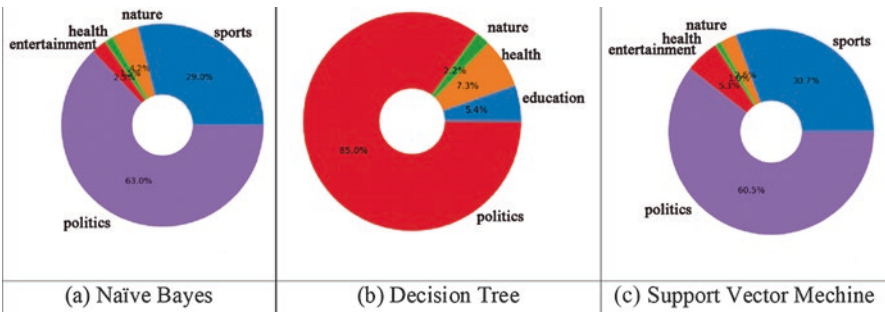
Fig. 8.5 "Barack Obama" Persona classification results

8.4.2 Dynamically Identified Persona Results

Figure 8.6 shows classification of a celebrity tweets which do not fall into the predefined categories. So, a new persona category is automatically generated by the system. The result for "Ellen Degeneres" shows that 38.6% of the tweets fall into Entertainment, 26% belong to Education, while only 2.5% belong to Sports. Other than the predefined categories, newly generated category for Degeneres accounts for 9.7% of her tweets; Instagram having a share of 0.6%; Talk show having 1.3%, and Clinton accounting for 1.6% of the tweets and some more. Similarly analyses of "Barak Obama" are shown in Fig. 8.7.

8.5 Implications and Limitations

To have an insight into a user's interest and personality can prove to be beneficial in various domains. The important implications of this empirical study are multifold. It may be very useful for academics to go deep into the study of online persona of
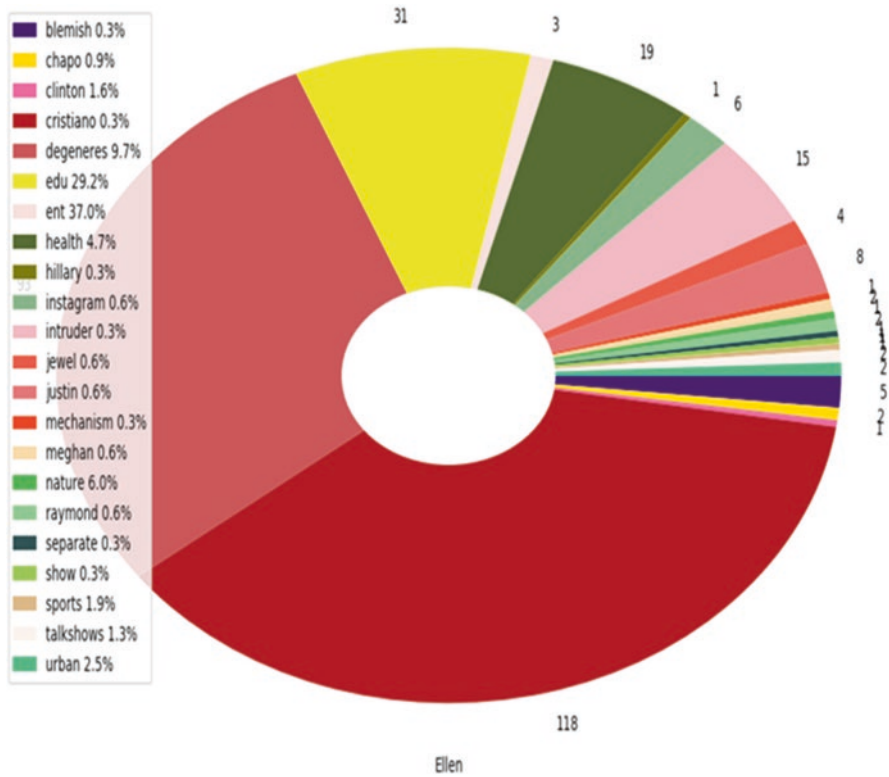
Fig. 8.6 Generated categories and classification for "Ellen Degeneres"

celebrities and how it impacts businesses. The study is also helpful for marketers and practitioners. With the understanding of celebrity persona, smart recommendation systems can be designed. For an online user, the study can be helpful by telling them which celebrity to follow/not to follow; thereby helping them declutter twitter feed. For big brands and companies, this study can be helpful in strategic placement of advertisements according to a user's area of interests. Also, by understanding celebrity persona, business can be benefitted by strategically deciding which celebrity to hire for brand endorsements.

One of the biggest problems encountered was that the data extracted from twitter was informal, abbreviated, and contained lots of symbols; so obtaining useful words and meaning of the sentence was the biggest challenge. Hence various data preprocessing techniques were to be applied in order to give structure to the data. The study is also limited to English language only and thus words of any other language were removed.

Legend:
- 0.3% vp
- 0.3% wearorange
- 0.3% womenshistorymonth
- 0.4% lgbt
- 0.4% opportunity
- 0.6% aca
- 0.6% communicate
- 0.6% fixthesystem
- 0.6% loveislove
- 0.6% ofa
- 0.6% retweet
- 0.6% supreme
- 0.6% weve
- 0.7% join
- 1.0% doyourjob
- 1.5% whitehouse
- 1.8% education
- 1.8% getcovered
- 11.7% sports
- 2.2% nature
- 2.9% actonclimate
- 20.8% business
- 24.9% politics
- 6.3% entertainment
- 6.8% health
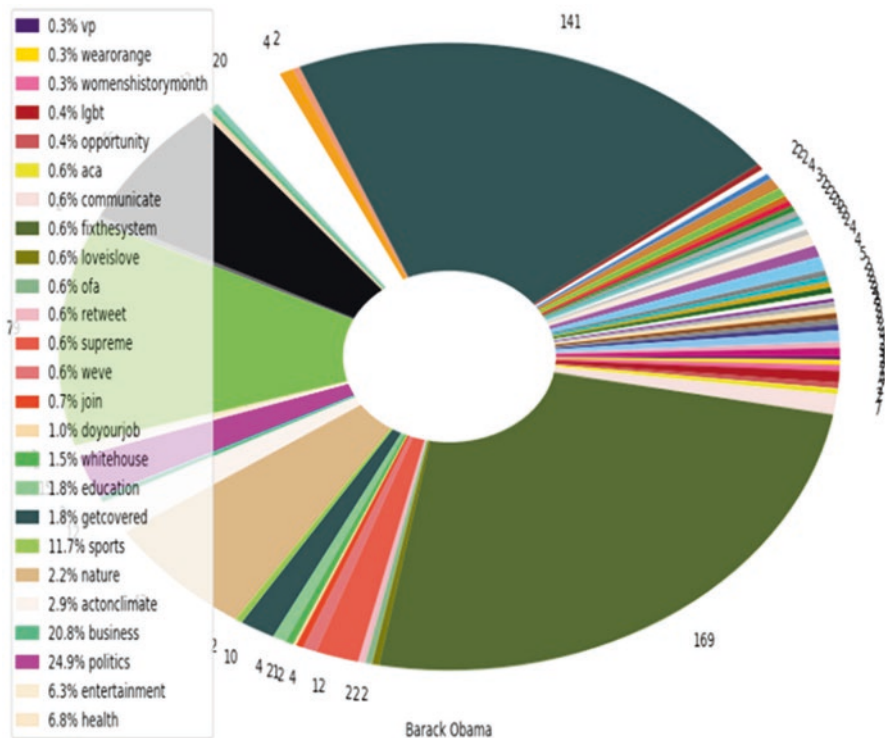
Fig. 8.7 Generated categories and classification for "Barak Obama"

8.6   Conclusion

Twitter is a way to express and share your views and thoughts application, which allows its user to share pictures and videos and post tweets. In this chapter, the objective was to classify a celebrity user's tweet and generate their interests so as to define their persona. In order to do this, two approaches were used. In the first approach, the most basic and common supervised learning techniques were used; Naïve Bayes, Decision Tree, and SVM to classify a user's tweet into six predefined categories: Education, Entertainment, Sports, Nature, Politics, and Health. In the second approach, the tweets were classified not just into six predefined categories but were put in a new category if the tweet did not fit in the defined categories, i.e., it didn't meet the defined threshold. Using Latent Dirichlet allocation, topic words were found in the tweet and then new categories were defined using hypernyms of the obtained topic words. Both the techniques help us get an overview of the user's interests and define their persona.

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Chapter 9
Comparing SERVQUAL for Transportation Services in the Sharing Economy for Emerging Markets: Insights from Twitter Analytics

Saroj Bijarnia, P. Vigneswara Ilavarasan, and Arpan Kumar Kar

9.1 Introduction

One of the most influenced research areas is reaching into consumer's minds and gaining knowledge about their experience during the experience of services (Culotta and Cutler 2016; Pournarakis et al. 2017). Therefore the notion of understanding customer views towards brands or services derives from the idea of understanding, identifying, and viewing customer attitude towards the brand or services.

Due to the challenges associated with traditional data acquisition and analysis methods (time-consuming, costly, and results may quickly become outdated) (Culotta and Cutler 2016), a significant shift in how consumers prefer to convey their experience during their interaction with services has changed in recent years. As consumers are sharing their perceptions of services on social media platforms, many companies have started using social media platforms for making customer relationships, brand management, and for recruitment of employees (Rathore et al. 2016). Twitter is a social media platform widely used by users for discussions and opinions. So, it is important to collect, analyze, visualize, and summarize twitter conversations (Weiguo Fan and Gordon 2014). In this chapter, we will discuss how can we make analysis and can compare services using social media in online peer-to-peer marketplaces like sharing economy, especially in tourism sector (Martin 2015). The sharing economy is a "peer to peer based activity of obtaining, giving, or sharing the access to goods and services through community based online services" (Posen 2015). The growth of sharing economy especially in transportation services is noticeable.

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We attempt to address the following research questions based on the case studies of Ola and Uber (OU), using the Twitter data:

1. How can social media content be used to understand the sharing economy?
2. How do two different taxi platforms differ in terms of customer experiences?
3. How SERVQUAL model can be applied on social media content?

By answering such research questions one can find out deeper meanings of public conversations on social media platforms.

9.2 Literature Survey

The Sharing economy has been attracting research in recent years. We are considering papers from literature who are talking about Ola or Uber as their case study. Martin (2015) highlights the importance of sharing economy for the success of Airbnb, Uber, and Freelance and focuses on the importance of integration of digital technologies into the socio-technical structure. Cannon and Summers (2014) emphasize the significance of the relationship between sharing economy firms and regulators to manage the growth of the firms. Cannon and Summers (2014) suggested methods in sharing economy which includes approaches like more responsiveness to concerns, use of state-of-the-art procedures to reach out to government, sharing of common data, and making of well-researched cases. Posen (2015) tells the implications of imposing already existing taxi regulations on Uber to ensure the safety of customers in many cities and states. Jiang et al. (2018) used spatial lag model to investigate the accessibility of ridesharing services in different areas of San Francisco and New York City. Jiang et al. (2018) have compared Uber, Lyft, and taxi on different key market parameters to include supply, demand, price, and wait time. Along with that, they also provided a comparative analysis of ridesharing service providers. Wallsten (2015) highlights the importance of sharing economy to address the emerging issues found by Uber customers during their rides to include broken credit card machine, air conditioning and heating, and responses of the drivers. Wallsten (2015) has proved an effective method to increase customer satisfaction and improvement of their services in New York and Chicago.

Social Media Analytics (SMA) in recent years is growing among researchers and businesses (Rathore et al. 2017). Many studies have been done on SMA. Da Silva et al. (2014) performed sentiment analysis on Twitter data using the classifier ensemble and lexicons to help the companies to provide best-suited services to their consumers. The sentiments of the public are monitored by analyzing their positive and negative responses to the queries generated on their Twitter accounts (Da Silva et al. 2014). Sokolova and Huang (2016) used methods like Normal Mutual information and topic coherence analysis evaluation measures to select the best LDA model to analyze a large volume of dynamic text on social media. These methods can be effectively used to find the core issues of any violence to include geographic location, people involved, and how the event unfolded. Pournarakis et al. (2017)

combine topic and sentiment classification to elicit influential topics from the user's perception of social media. In this model, clustering of tweets has been improved in semantically coherent groups for managing a big pool of data. The same model was effectively applied to analyze the Uber transportation network in two fundamental brand equity dimensions to include brand awareness and brand meaning.

9.3   Research Approach

The proposed research methodology can be divided into five modules: Data collection, data preprocessing, data analysis, topic modeling, and SERVQUAL model. The various steps are discussed in the following sections.

Data collection: We collected a comprehensive dataset for this study of Ola and Uber through Twitter API. For Ola 1, 30,200 tweets were collected over a period of 4 months from September to December, 2017. Hash tags used for the thematic collection of relevant data are Olacabs, Ola support, Ola, and Ola cabs Delhi. Similarly for Uber 1,51,400 tweets were collected over a period of 4 months from September to December, 2017. Tweets are collected using hash tags Uber_india, Uber in support, Uber support.

Data preprocessing and preparation: Cleaning and preprocessing steps are applied on OU tweets before analysis. That is, the text is converted to basic ASCII to avoid silly characters, making everything consistently lower case. We also removed the retweets, usernames, links, punctuation, tabs, leading blanks, lagging blanks, and duplicate tweets (Clark and Araki 2011).

Data analysis: Content analysis (Krippendorff 2004) was done through word cloud, which simplifies the data to understand and tell the most frequent words used in data (Chae 2015). For generating word cloud, 100 most frequent words are used for OU tweets. Afterwards, for sentiment analysis, sentimentr package was used on R platform for classifying tweets based on polarity and emotions. For polarity we chose negative, positive and neutral, while for emotions unknown, joy, anger, sadness, fear, disgust, and surprise were chosen (Martin 2015). Based on the emotion classification of tweets, we created word clouds.

Topic Modeling: After the analysis of data, we applied topic modeling using Latent Dirichlet Analysis (LDA) (Blei et al. 2003). We selected top 50 topics from OU using a down-sampling methodology for identifying major topics. For selecting the top 50 topics, we used two packages lda and topicmodels on R platform.

SERVQUAL Model: SERVQUAL (Parasuraman et al. 1988) is a framework for assessing the quality of services. It consists of dimensions like reliability, assurance, tangibility, empathy, and responsiveness. The topics which were derived from topic modeling for OU were mapped with these dimensions using the content analysis methodology. Later on using statistical analysis comparison is done.

9.4   Experimental Results and Findings

The methodology presented is implemented using R (for data preprocessing, Data analysis, Topic Modeling). In this study we are using only text or tweet part from database on OU. On tweets the Preprocessing steps applied. Data visualization is conducted using word clouds, to understand the dominant words which are used in discussions surrounding OU. The results of our findings related to Ola (Fig. 9.1a) highlighted that objects like time, book and look are dominant, along with requests to the service providers (like Please). From word cloud one can find out that Ola customers are using Uber word in their conversations. That means they compare services of OU. While in Uber word cloud (Fig. 9.1b) it can be seen that email, app, driver and ride are the dominating words, along with requests to the service providers (like help, please).

   A word cloud based on emotions for OU can be seen in Fig. 9.2. In analysis of word cloud, it appears that these service providers create joyous experiences when service requests are addressed. Word cloud of Ola based on emotions indicates that the most frequent words used are terrible, horrible, disgusting, and horror. It shows Ola customers have more negative emotions compared with positive. If we look at the word cloud based on emotions of Ola, we notice a lot of Unknown emotions. The most frequent words in emotions are email, happy, disgust, and help. These insights mean Uber customers have both negative and positive emotions from their consumption experiences. If we deeply analyze word clouds of OU based on emotions, we find that majority of the words are related to disgust and sadness. This indicates that most of the tweets are done by customers and a lot of complaints are made.

   The sentiment analysis of the tweets based on polarity done for OU can be seen in Fig. 9.3. It is seen that people had more positive sentiments surrounding OU. The amount of negative content is also significant, indicating unpleasant user experiences in this sector.

(a) Ola   (b) Uber
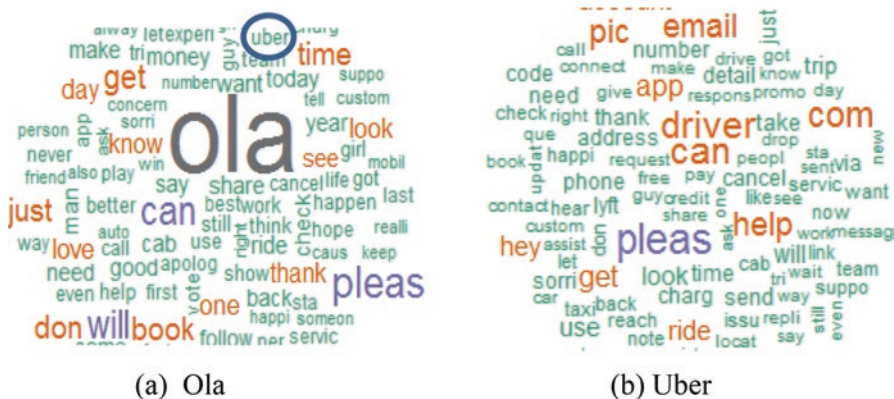
Fig. 9.1 Word cloud of popular words for Ola and Uber in tweets

Fig. 9.2 Ola and Uber tweets word cloud based on emotions
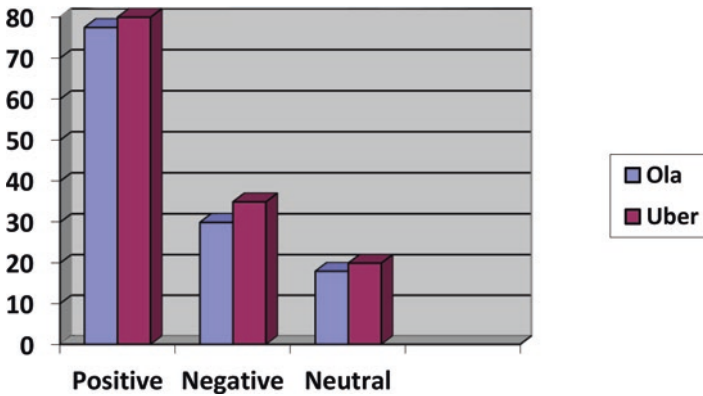
Fig. 9.3 Ola and Uber sentiment analysis of tweets based on polarity

A closer exploration of tweets based on emotions indicates that most of the words were related to unknown emotions for OU (Fig. 9.4). We found that the tweets with no emotions contain mostly shortened words, localized dialects and acronyms, which the parser was not able to recognize properly. Topic modeling was done on these tweets to bring out dominant topics of service experiences using LDA. Total topics selected after topic modeling was 50 with 15 terms for defining topics. A comparison of topics is presented in Fig. 9.5 for OU. In our study, SERQUAL Model (Parasuraman et al. 1988) was used for comparing the services of both the firms, OU.

Results are shown in Fig. 9.6. The type of each topic is identified by observing words of topic. If the topic falls in SERVQUAL dimension, then it is assigned as 1 otherwise it is 0. By doing so the scores of each dimension are calculated for SERVQUAL model for both OU. Our brief overview of the findings after applying SERVQUAL model is that the majority of the users who use sharing economy have a good experience and share that with a positive sentiment in social media plat-
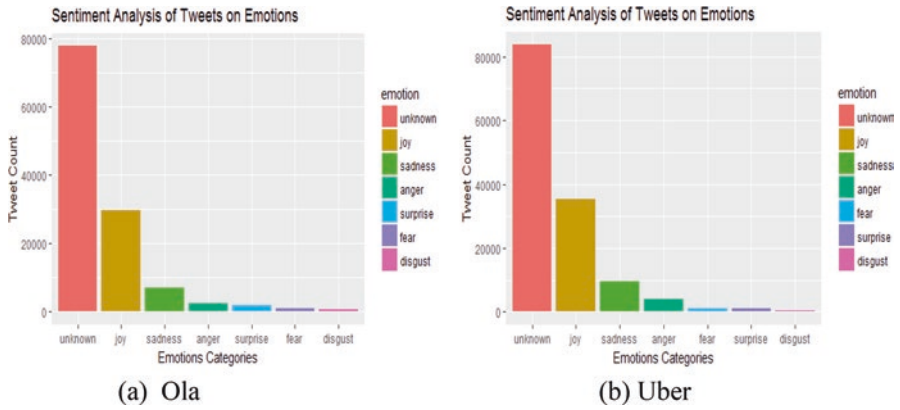
Fig. 9.4 Ola and Uber tweets sentiment analysis based on emotions
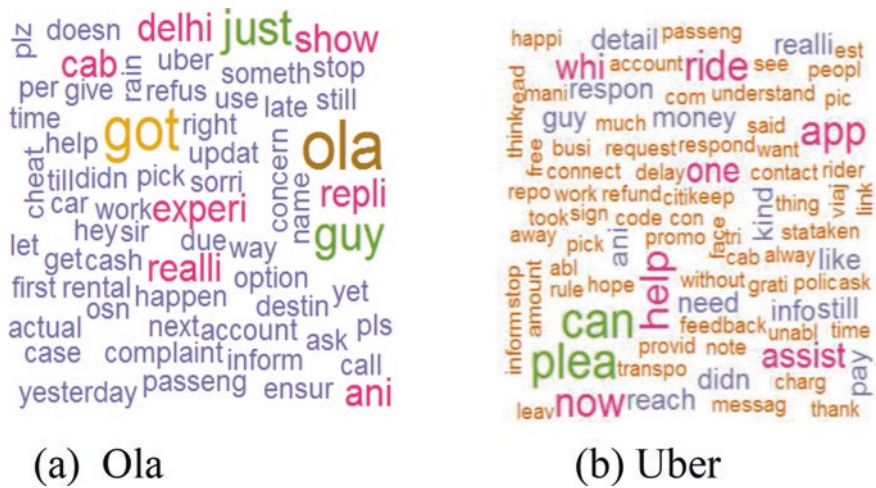
Fig. 9.5 Ola and Uber word cloud based on selected topics using LDA
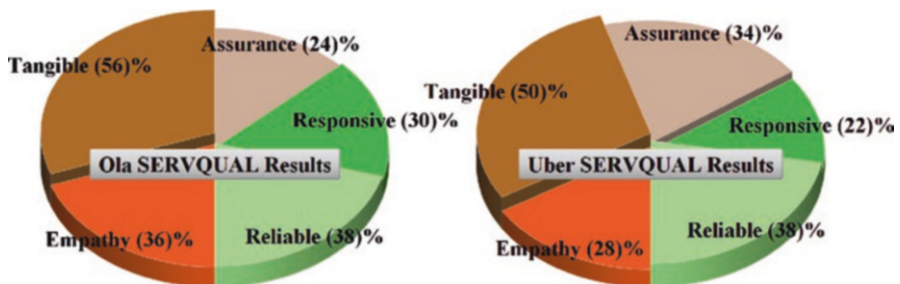
Fig. 9.6 Ola and Uber SERVQUAL model results

Table 9.1 Description of SERVQUAL model along with ranking of dimensions

Rank	Dimension	Score	Description
1	Tangible	53	Physical representation of the firms. It can be defined as equipment, service provider e.g. Driver, Car, App.
2	Reliability	38	Providing the promised service to end customer on time and consistently e.g. Ride reaching on time.
3	Empathy	32	Understanding the customer's needs and wants, providing service information on time and giving individual attention to customer. e.g., Providing coupons or free ride
4	Assurance	29	Safety and security of customers, respect of customer e.g. Safety during ride
5	Responsive	26	Willingness to help or giving attention to customer's questions and requests promptly, providing the solution to problems and handling complaints

forms. Tangibles affect the consumer satisfaction the most based on mining user generated content. Assurance and responsiveness have less impact on the perceived quality of the outcome of using transportation services in the sharing economy. Reliability for OU are equal. Based on standard deviation tangible and reliability of OU are equal. OU have more difference in responsiveness.

9.5 Discussion

Based on our analysis we can say that Tangible and Reliability are most important drivers in OU. Assurance and Responsive are less in OU which means these are most ignored drivers. Description of SERVQUAL model dimensions along with ranking can be seen in Table 9.1.

Reason behind can be maybe riders are more interested in basic requirements of the transportation services like how comfortable was the car or how they felt during their journey instead of security and other benefits.

9.6 Conclusions and Future Research

The study undertaken is a preliminary analysis, but this will be taken forward to conduct the next level of analysis for understanding the discussions surrounding service encounters in the transportation sharing economy. In the next stage of analysis, the social media discussions would be mapped to dominant challenges and hierarchies of service experiences and maturity models. Therefore, subsequently, our analysis will provide inputs for policy-making in the space of shared economy, for improving stake-holder engagement and experiences, by focusing on determinants which would enhance reliability of services.

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Part III
Emerging Technology and Digital Marketing

Chapter 10
Using AI to Personalise Emotionally Appealing Advertisement

Emmanuel Mogaji, Sunday Olaleye, and Dandison Ukpabi

10.1   Introduction

With the changing dynamics in digital marketing, brands are having unprecedented access to information about their customers, and they can use this technology to influence consumer behaviour (Dwivedi et al. 2015). These dynamics includes personalisation—creating advertisements that match with customers' characters and interests (Tran 2017); however, there has been previous studies that uncovered a number of favourable and unfavourable consumer responses to ad personalisation. The moderating factors that strengthen or weaken these effects are still mostly missing (Bleier and Eisenbeiss 2015), as just putting a name on an advertisement is not enough to guarantee a positive response (Li and Liu 2017).

To fill this void, we propose the possibilities of using artificial intelligence (AI) to extract information about customers, generate advertisements that will appeal to them and shared digitally. This possibility moves away from the idea of personification just by names (Tran 2017) or past online experiences (Bleier and Eisenbeiss 2015) but personalising with emotionally appealing features liked sounds, images and colours which customers can engage with on a personal level.

Specifically, the study aims to develop and extend existing research into the online behavioural advertising by proposing a model that incorporates artificial intelligence and machine learning into developing emotionally appealing advertisements. Theoretically, this chapter contributes towards the use of emerging technologies

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such as AI and Machine Learning for Digital Marketing, big data acquisition, management and analytics and its impact on advertising effectiveness.

Subsequent sections present a brief review on personalised advertisement and emotional appeals, followed by existing examples of AI initiatives to justify the possibilities of this idea. The theoretical framework and the contribution of the study are thereafter provided. The theoretical framework is followed by the key challenges and a conclusion of the study.

10.2   Personalised Advertisement

It is no longer news that advertisers are increasingly monitoring people's online behaviour and using the information collected to target them with relevant marketing communications. This phenomenon is called online behavioural advertising (OBA). Boerman et al. (2017, p. 364) defined OBA as 'the practice of monitoring people's online behaviour and using the collected information to show people individually targeted advertisements'. Advertisers see it as part of the future of advertising, one of the most important new ways of reaching targeted audiences (Boerman et al. 2017; Kumar and Gupta 2016).

With regards to data used to create OBA, Boerman et al. (2017) argued that personalisation is based on the types and amount of personal data that is being used. The types of personal data include browsing data or search history, while amount refers to the intensity and combination of that information. Boerman et al. (2017) noted that OBA differs from other types of online advertising because of the covert nature of collecting personal data as this may be harmful and unethical, as consumers are unaware of the tactics advertisers put in place to collect the data. There have been concerns raised about privacy as this involves collecting, using, and sharing personal data and consumer responses toward OBA (Baek and Morimoto 2012).

Often consumers feel the advertisements are boring, intrusive or not interested at all and thereby they put up a defence mechanism by using as ad blockers, skipping the advertisements or just ignoring it (Mogaji and Danbury 2017), and this has economic implications as the advertisements are not received as intended. Baek and Morimoto (2012) found that this ad irritation increases ad scepticism, which consequently leads to more avoidance of OBA; however, there is evidence that advertisements that target individuals with their interest receive a higher level of engagement. Tucker (2014) found that Facebook ads that appeal to a person's interest led to higher click-through rates, and likewise Aguirre et al. (2015) showed that moderately personalised Facebook ads increased click-through rates, which highlight the possibilities of embedded emotional appeals in personalised advertisements to reach out to prospective customers. Mogaji (2018) found that the lack of interest and congruency with personal values are some of the reasons why advertisements are ignored.

10.3   Emotional Appeals in Advertisement

Emotionally appealing advertisements are meant to appeal to consumers' heart, making them feel special, and a part of the brand (Mogaji 2018; Mogaji et al. 2018). Aaker and Stayman (1992) described emotional advertisements as those serving mainly to elicit affective responses. Emotionally appealing advertisements have been found to increase loyalty and make brands distinct (Panda et al. 2013). Emotional appeals are incorporated into advertisements in the forms of text, images, background music and voice-over to attract viewers' attention and provide information about the brand (Mogaji 2018).

Images are considered very important as visual cues for emotional appeals. Emotionally appealing images can be considered as the primary channel of communication, replacing copy and headlines as the most crucial element in advertisements (Mezo 1997; Salander 2010; Brader 2006). Colours are also considered critical graphic elements in arousing emotions and generating attention toward the advertisement across various media. They create an emotional tone and can also be a dominant feature within the advertisement (Salander 2010; Mogaji 2016).

The text used in advertisements is considered as a verbal component, it includes all the headlines, taglines, and copy used to narrate the marketing communications. These elements can also evoke positive emotional appeals like excitement and joy, or negative feelings like fear and shame, as observed by Stanton and Guion (2013). Emotional appeals can also be presented through what consumers hear in advertisements (Mogaji and Farinloye 2017; Mogaji et al. 2016); this varies from background music, a voice-over, and even the dialogue in the advertisement. Popular songs are effective at invoking an emotional response (Schiffer 2015). Advertisers often use familiar and popular sounds to engage with customers, giving rise to a sense of excitement, happiness and love. In addition, a voice-over can add to the complexity, ambiguity and hybridity of audio elements concerning arousing emotional responses (Li 2017).

10.4   Artificial Intelligence in Advertisement

The ability to hold together the seemingly inconsistent components of an advertisement, making a new function, is considered creativity (O'Guinn et al. 2006). Consumers who lack interest in advertisements have challenged advertisers to develop campaigns that can 'cut through the clutter' in a highly saturated media space. Advertiser relies on using personal data to target customers and beat the media clusters. Ha (1996) described 'media cluster' as the quantity, competitiveness and intrusiveness of advertisements. For any advertisement to stand out in this cluster, creativity plays a prominent role by providing a strategic approach to developing an appealing advertisement (Decrop 2007).

Personal data and information legitimately collected online by companies can be used to design and personalise advertisements that appeal to consumers' emotions and shared online. This process differs from the highly personalised and rational data such as age, gender and location, which Aguirre et al. (2015) found to have a reduced click-through rate, but things that emotionally appeal to individuals like their choice of colours, images being used and background music.

Artificial intelligence (AI) is the umbrella term used to describe the ability of machines to complete tasks that they can increasingly perform better over time (Williams 2018). It can collect data from different sources, identify patterns and be able to provide actionable insights. It is proposed that the big data and consumer analytics collected through AI from different sources will be aggregated to have a better understanding of consumers as individuals.

This aggregation can be information from the web and mobile analytics, social analytics, media analytics and customer journey analytics—using CRM and marketing system data to track known individuals over time and voice of the customer analytics—mining customers' perceptions and opinions (Ukpabi et al. 2018; Kihn 2016). Emotional cues about the consumers can be deduced from these sources. The type of music they listen to, their interest or hobbies, celebrities they are more likely to engage with, places they are more likely to go for a holiday, the types of pets or animals they like are features that go beyond behaviours based on past and advertisements. Big data analytics provide numerous other insights regarding customer behaviour (Datameer 2018).

With this information, it is anticipated that AI will be able to develop a customised advertisement, which customers will find emotionally appealing by picking and choosing from a bouquet of creative elements and fitting them into the frame to send out to the customers. These advertisements will be shared digitally highlighting an implication on programmatic advertising, a process of buying advert automatically, with computers using data to decide what to buy and how much to pay for it (Kulbok 2017). Programmatic advertising provides a single view of the consumer and a single point of media planning and buying across all digital media channels and allows marketers to leverage their own data, media and technology (Dawson and Lamb 2016). AI can make programmatic advertising more efficient, faster and easier to implement (Faggella 2017), ensuring that targeted advertisements are optimised and delivered as anticipated.

10.5   Present Works Using AI

FontJoy is a website that uses machine learning to perfectly pair fonts (Fontjoy 2018). The website works by analyzing letterforms, sorting them within its mind, and then systematically finds fonts from a database of more than 1800 fonts that share similarities (Wilson 2017). The mixing and matching typefaces provides the aesthetics and pleasing feels a human designer would want (Plummer 2017).

EyeQuant utilises machine learning to evaluate the usability of websites. It fuses leading neuroscience research with AI and eye-tracking technology to accurately predict how people will react to digital designs (Eyequant 2018). The algorithm analyses the visual characteristics of an ad from simple features like colours and contrasts to more complex factors like object recognition (Diaz 2018). In one click, EyeQuant generates an instant analysis of the design's visual attention, clarity and emotional impact (Eyequant 2018).

Netflix collects a huge amount of personal data, and they have been able to use this through machine learning and artificial intelligence to automatically customise their movie posters to fit the personal preference of viewers (Chandrashekar et al. 2017). By using different artwork and imagery to portray the titles of each of their members to highlight the aspects of a title that is specifically relevant to them, they consider themselves differs from traditional media offerings. They do not have one product but over 100 million different products with one for each of their members with personalised recommendations and personalised visuals.

Semantic Soft Segmentation is an AI-assisted image editing tool that automates object selection which was developed by MIT's Computer Science and Artificial Intelligence Lab (Aksoy et al. 2018). The tool offers an accurate pre-segmentation of the image and can speed up the editing process by providing an intermediate image representation. While acknowledging this innovation as a step in the right direction, Greene (2018) noted that the future of image and video editing is certainly AI, but we are not quite there as the editor does not work with video just yet and it takes about four minutes to process an image which can still be achieved faster using photoshop.

Bidalgo recently introduced 'Creative AI' as part of its self-serve advert automation platform (Bidalgo 2018). It uses image and video recognition technology to analyze every component of an advertiser's creative down to each pixel to them develop ad creatives that drive campaign goals. Creative AI uses Bidalgo's proprietary AI-based algorithms to break down the DNA of successful ad creatives by analyzing dozens of variables including images, colours, promotions, contrast, concepts, copy and more (Takahashi 2018).

Persado offers AI software to instantly generate better performing email subject lines through emotional language (Persado 2018). Their new tool uses deep learning algorithms to create an emotional profile for individual users based on previous campaigns and then generates the corresponding language to personalise the message. This step includes options for email, display advertising, social advertising, landing pages, SMS and push notifications in as many as 23 languages. *Phrasee* also offers a similar tool. They use advanced end-to-end Deep Learning to optimise engagement results on an on-going basis. Phrasee AI learns from customers' response metrics, quantifies and optimises language that makes the audience engage with their messages. They promised that using a better language in marketing communications will lead to more customer engagement and make brands more money (Phrasee 2018).

These examples highlight the possibilities of creating a frame to fits in features of advertisements like images, text, and colours (Netflix), the images can be replaced through AI for every personalised advertisement (Semantic Soft Segmentation), the colours and fonts used in the advertisements can also be replaced as well (FontJoy). The textual content and copy of the advertisement can be customised (Persado and Phrasee). The overall look and creative elements of each advertisement can thereafter be checked (EyeQuant and Bidalgo). This advertisement can also build on the AI creative director developed by McCann Erickson in Japan (Doland 2016), which is an AI used in creating advertisement but not personalised.

10.6   Theoretical Framework

To illustrate how this process will work, the five stages are presented in a cycle which starts from understanding the customer's online behaviour and ends with feedback which is used to shape the process and the machine further learns from it.

To practically illustrate this process, Fig. 10.1 presents a fictitious advertisement from a Bank being sent to the prospective customer. This is a generic advert for a cash back which is being sent to all the customers. It is important to note that not all customers will be interested in this cash back offer or better still some will have preferences in what to claim cash back on.

10.6.1   *Understanding the Customer's 'Online Behaviours'*

With the adoption of this personalised emotionally appealing advertising strategy, AI can firstly extract data about the customer from different sources and touch points (Ukpabi et al. 2019). AI is able to group customers based on their online behaviour, financial status and lifestyle. This includes if they have a pet by exploring if they have bought things for pets on a regular basis, the type of music they like perhaps from Spotify, the type of celebrity or influencers, their sports or recreational activities and many more.

10.6.2   *Developing the Advertisements*

The frame for the advertisements is prepared. This is created to allow spaces for all the creative elements. This can appear to be the most challenging section of the process whereby advertisements are developed to allow features to be changed by the AI algorithms; like Netflix can personalise a movie poster based on individual preferences—there is an opportunity to change the actors and the headline. These
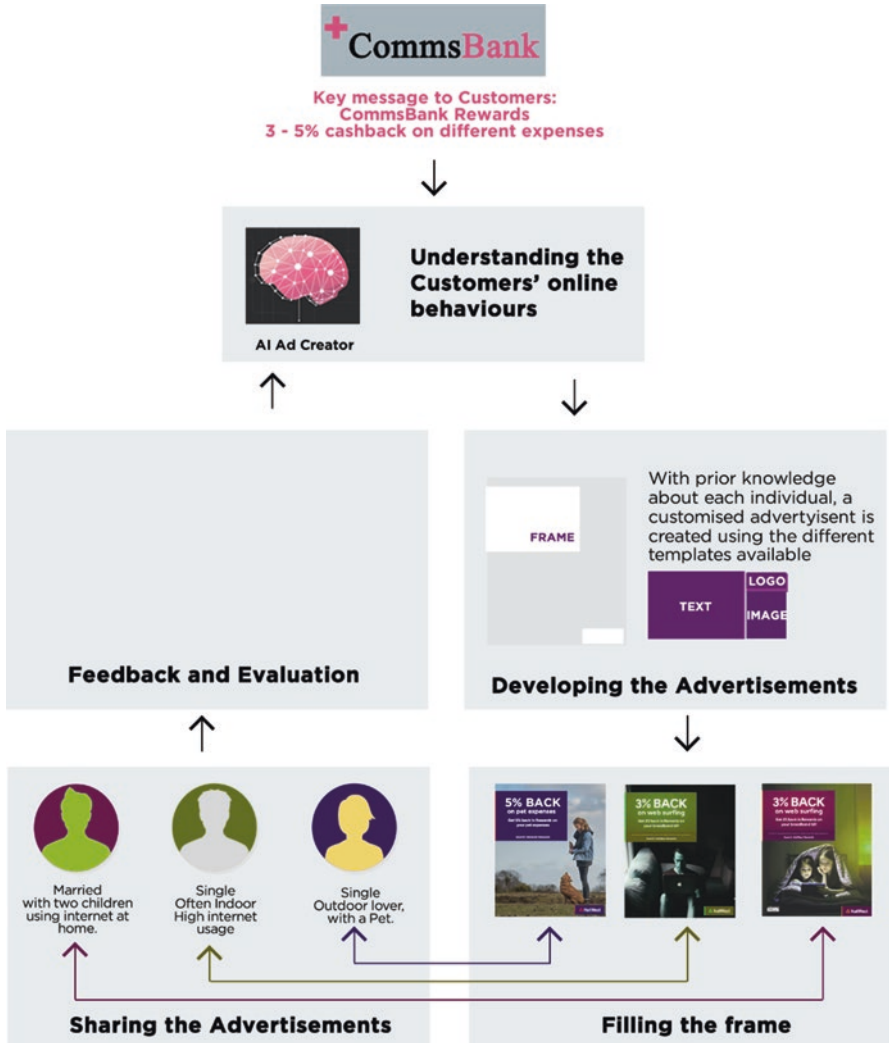
Fig. 10.1 The five stages of the proposed model

modular arrangements can include related images, perhaps the customer's favourite artist with their favourite background music, the right type of words, background colour and location, these are all details that are gathered from different sources which suggests that two people living in the same room with different preferences might not be seeing the same advertisement even if they are searching for the same product.

10.6.3 Filling the Frame

Following on from step 1 here the machine knows what can specifically interest a customer and step 2 that has got an advertisement frame that allows such flexibility. The advertisement frame is filled based on individual preferences by picking a related cash back offer text, with the right image and possibly the right background music. For example, the single female customer who has a dog, an image of the dog (possibly the same breed if known) is included in the advert, instead of receiving cash back offer about broadband, she received an offer for pet expenses and likewise for those receiving cash back offer for their internet, the image for a single male is different from a married male with children. This is where the creative features that arouse emotions are embedded. The choice of image, the choice of colour and even the background music are filled into the frame provided.

10.6.4 Sharing the Advertisements

These personalised advertisements with emotionally appealing features are distributed digitally to the targeted audiences. This could be on social media, websites or apps depending on which they engage more with (Gökerik et al. 2018). Programmatic advertising also plays a key role here—meeting the customers in the right place with the right messages that they find relevant and emotionally appealing enough to engage with. This is more personal and likely more engaging because it is specifically targeting the individual's need and not just a generic advertisement.

10.6.5 Feedback and Evaluation

Lastly, the effectiveness of these advertisements is monitored to see how the customers are engaging with it. How many of them are following the link to find out more about the offer? How many of them are sharing it with the network? Or how many of them are ignoring it? These insights can be used for machine learning and to improve the development and effectiveness of the advertisements and a better understanding of the customers.

10.7 Key Theoretical Contributions

Though many prior studies have explored personalisation in advertisement across different domains, there have been different conclusions (Li and Liu 2017). This study makes contribution towards a better understanding of personalisation, moving

beyond the fundamental idea of just treating each message recipient as a unique entity (Kalyanaraman and Sundar 2006) but customising an advertisement with different creative elements that are based on their characteristics and preferences.

This chapter contributes towards the use of emerging technologies such as AI and Machine Learning for Digital Marketing, big data acquisition, management and analytics and its impact on advertising effectiveness; a contribution to knowledge and development of further insight into these growing areas of digital marketing, which needs further research and understanding (Boerman et al. 2017). Sentiment analysis, a form of Machine Learning, can also be used to have a better understanding of attitude towards the advertisements and the brands (Mogaji and Erkan 2019).

The study also contributes towards a better understanding of emotional appeals and how it can be used better in advertisements, highlighting the potentials of artificial intelligence in creative advertisements, an improvement to OBA and programmatic. In addition, these digital innovations, whereby AI will be able to create emotionally appealing advertisements can be transferred to other sectors and industry.

10.8 Key Implications for Digital Marketing Practice

The chapter presents an idea that collects and processes a vast amount of data which encompasses both online searchers and personal interests. Customer analytics makes up 48% of big data use in sales and marketing (Columbus 2016), which highlights that there are new sources of data about the customers which present new opportunities for advertisers and play an important role in the prediction of customer behaviour, which they can use to achieve unprecedented value and competitive advantage over competitors (Hitchcock 2018). The information is out there; advertisers need to be more open and transparent about collecting and using it.

It is, however, paramount to note that this information will be obtained with the knowledge and consent of the data subject. Consumers have been worried about their privacy and OBA practices (Antón et al. 2010) but this idea is anchored on the practicalities of General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) which is a new set of standards designed to strengthen the control individuals have over their data. From May 2018, it became a legal requirement for all companies collecting and processing data need to adhere to the regulations in place or face a heavy fine up to €20 million or 4% of a company's global annual income (whichever is the larger amount). Organisations must specify the details about the collection and the customers must explicitly opt-in to allow personal data to be processed.

GDPR is aimed at solving the issues around privacy and transparency, which have been the greatest concerns with OBA. Akbarpour (2018) warned that to stay compliant with the GDPR, organisations will need to either abandon the use of cookies to track online behaviour or obtain consent from their customers. Since the law has stipulated the need to get consent and advertisers are aware of the benefits of OBA, it is imperative to consider the implications for both academic and

practitioners as there are inherent benefits for brands that use this well for their digital marketing campaign, as scholars suggested that advertising will become more personalised and targeted and will involve more individual communication (Rust 2016; Kumar and Gupta 2016).

The recent legislation about GDPR makes this study very relevant; it builds on the fact that consumers have allowed advertisers to purposefully observe their online behaviours and targeted them appropriately and this is more likely to offer a genuine interest in advertisements. In addition, personalisation is generally considered an important strategy in advertising (Rosen 2012) and a better understanding of how it can be implemented will offer a key implication for digital marketing practice. This also provides implications for media creation and media buying—programmatic, using real-time bidding for inventory to place the customised adverts across mobile, display, video and social channels—even making its way into television (Vicioso 2015).

With regards to the creative design of the advertisements, this chapter offers insight into persuasive elements in the development of positive attitudes in consumers (Shareef et al. 2018); these creative elements have been decided through algorithms in anticipation that it will be emotionally appealing and can be shared on social media (Alalwan et al. 2017).

10.9   Key Challenges

Human beings may be difficult to monitor and observe. Their browsing history may not be a true reflection of their personality and what appeals to their emotions. Since the process is based on this idea, there is a limitation in accurately capturing this information and presenting advertisements that reflect the personal interest of the viewer.

This process may only work on the digital media as it may be too expensive and unpractical in other media. Digital media has the opportunity of reaching individuals on a personal level on social media, email marketing or on websites.

These personalised advertisements can be shared but it will be impractical to have a newspaper or billboard with personalised advertisements, however with the decline in readership of newspaper, that may not be an issue but with integration of beacons and camera on billboard, this can be possible as well for outdoor media.

Metrics on social media like the number of likes and retweets might not be a true reflection of the success and engagement rate of the advertisement. This is because the advertisements are personalised and are not something seen by everyone and therefore there may not be a general consensus on their likes; however, social media mention about how personal or unique it is can be monitored as an indication of its positive reception.

10.10   Conclusion

Acknowledging the role of personification in digital marketing and the role of digital service providers (Aswani et al. 2018), this study offers a conceptual model that highlights the potential of incorporating artificial intelligence and machine learning into creative design of advertisements and digital marketing. It adds to existing knowledge on social media marketing and analysis (Kapoor et al. 2018) and content design of advertisement for consumer exposure (Shareef et al. 2017). It is acknowledged that this is an idea that has not being tested; however, this study is open for future research and development. The study extends knowledge on social media marketing (Alalwan et al. 2017). Insight into the effectiveness of this strategy can also be explored which are however beyond the scope of this chapter. In addition, implications of this conceptual idea for mobile location-based advertising (Gutierrez et al. 2018) can be explored further. Likewise, future research can explore the possibility of employing a personally administered structured questionnaire to gather information about participant's attitude towards emotionally appealing advertisements. In the post-development state, real data can be collected to understand how viewers are engaging with the advertisement. The new algorithm can be tested against the typical generic advertisements through an A/B test. This A/B test helps see if the consumers who are shown the personalised emotionally appealing advertisements engage better than the generic one. This can offer some justifications for this approach. Further implications for the advertiser, digital marketers and other professionals are presented as well.

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Chapter 11
The Importance of App Store Optimization (ASO) for Hospitality Applications

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11.1 Introduction

The development of the Internet, the emergence of social networks and mobile technology (smartphones, tablets, etc.) have led to a revolution in the way we communicate, both personally and in business, placing us in a virtual world with immense possibilities (Choudhury 2014; Martín-Sánchez et al. 2012; Beltrán-Bueno et al. 2017; Aswani et al. 2017; Chiappa et al. 2018; Parra-Meroño et al. 2018; Aswani et al. 2018).

The growth of mobile devices has completely transformed the way we communicate, as well as our consumption habits, the hospitality sector being one of the most affected (Choudhury 2014; Buhalis and Law 2008; Dickinson et al. 2014). The relationship between mobile devices and the tourism sector has been strengthened with the emergence of mobile apps, allowing better communication between the hotel and its users and making it possible to create customized products.

Hotel chain apps can be used within customer loyalty strategies as they provide an opportunity to establish personalized promotions and a more direct dialogue (Paniagua and Huertas 2018; Radde 2017).

The advantages that the use of mobile applications bring to users are that they offer practical services, exclusive and personalized promotions, they improve the interaction between users and the hotel and users contact the hotel more quickly. According to Paniagua and Huertas (2018), the objective is to create a bond or feeling of belonging and to foster loyalty towards the brand of the hotel chain, creating brand ambassadors (Kotler and Armstrong 2012; Fernández-Alles and Cuadrado-Marqués 2014; Radde 2017; Parra-Meroño et al. 2018).

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The purpose of this work is to investigate how the main hotel chains based in Spain use ASO (Apps Store Optimization) to make their hotel applications more visible and easier to find for current and potential customers in the main mobile app stores (Google Store and iOS). To carry out the analysis of the internal and external factors that affect the visibility of hotel apps, we have based on the ASO 2017 handbook. In this way, it will be possible to know which applications are the most demanded for their quality and the most valued by users.

This research focuses on the ASO factors as a whole and explores the potential for hotel chains and small hotels of a good optimization strategy, considering the apps as a marketing tool within the digital strategy of the hotel chain or small hotel.

At the same time, this project aims to make known which factors should be implemented to increase visibility in app stores. So far, the existing studies have focused on analysing the different factors in isolation (comments, ratings, number of downloads) but no detailed study has been carried out on the ASO variables, nor the way in which they are combined to improve the optimisation of the apps.

The outcome of this project is, on the one hand, to suggest hotel chains (owners/developers) and small hotels what features need to be implemented to improve their visibility and, on the other hand, provide researchers with more information on a new subject.

11.2   Literature Review

With the emergence of social networks and web 2.0 (O'Reilly 2004) a new concept called social media marketing, that is, marketing in social networks, has arisen. It is from this moment that the user acquires a more active role as a generator of content and, in turn, can interact with companies and be heard, that is, the user can influence other users through their opinions, in different forums or social networks (Chiappa et al. 2018; Sánchez-Jiménez et al. 2018; Parra-Meroño et al. 2018). According to several authors, it has moved from a one-way web to a two-way web where the user has a voice and can affect the reputation of the company if its assessment is negative (Scott 2007; Parra-Meroño et al. 2017; Sánchez-Jiménez et al. 2018).

Therefore, Internet and social networks not only bring different users into contact with each other but also enable them to generate their own content and share it, helping in the decision-making process of other users (Shareef et al. 2016; Alalwan et al. 2017). This allows them to produce an empowerment, since their opinions, positive or negative, count and can help in the process of other users' purchase decision (Nadda et al. 2015; Alalwan et al. 2017; Kapoor et al. 2017; Sánchez-Jiménez et al. 2018; Parra-Meroño et al. 2018).

A literature review study carried out by Alalwan et al. (2017), analyzes a total of 144 articles related to the concept of social media and shows that most of the works analyzed have focused on the study of the social media marketing (Table 11.1).

The importance of social media has led authors such as Dwivedi et al. (2015) to study in depth the universe of social networks in order to discover how to apply

Table 11.1 Social media definitions

Term using	Definition	References
Social networking	An electronic service, application, platform or site used by individuals who have a common interest, beliefs, attitudes, culture, activities and real-life relationships.	Wikipedia (2016a)
Social networking	Using social media as a means to directly contact and have interaction with other personnel thereby having a real relationship with them.	Wells (2011)
Social media	Social media as such enable individuals to broadcast as well as to approach more people and influence them more.	Wikipedia (2016b)
Social media	New media technologies facilitating interactivity and co-creation that allow for the development and sharing of user-generated content among and between organizations (e.g. teams, government agencies and media groups) and individuals (e.g. customers, athletes and journalists).	Filo et al. (2015)
Social media marketing	A dialogue often triggered by consumers/audiences, or a business/product/services that circulate among the stated parties to set in motion a revealing communication on some promotional information so that it allows learning from one another's use and experiences, eventually benefitting all of the involved parties.	Dwivedi et al. (2015)
Social media marketing	The utilization of social media technologies, channels and software is to create, communicate, deliver and exchange offerings that have value for an organization's stakeholders.	Tuten and Solomon (2015)

Source: Alalwan et al. (2017). Social media in marketing: A review and analysis of the existing literature, p. 1178

them, both to different organizations (companies, administrations, etc.) and at a personal level, breaking down the different concepts and dimensions that have emerged (Sánchez-Jiménez et al. 2018).

Thanks to social networks, we have moved from the traditional "word of mouth" (Wom: Word-of-Mouth), carried out among relatives and friends, to the phenomenon "electronic word of mouth" (e-WOM: Electronic-Word-of-Mouth), which extends to relatives, friends and acquaintances of our friends (contacts) in social networks, as well as opinion forums (Grewal et al. 2001; Shareef et al. 2016; Alalwan et al. 2017).

Meanwhile, the tourism sector has been favourably affected by this technological revolution and has managed to adapt and recognize its utility to improve its management (Fernández-Alles and Cuadrado-Marqués 2014; Beltrán-Bueno et al. 2017). The relationship between the mobile market and the tourism sector has been consolidated since the tourist can access and share information, experiences and geolocation, among others, from anywhere, anytime, at any stage of the journey, while hotels can obtain information and offer personalised products to their customers by improving the tourist's digital experience (Radde 2017; Paniagua and Huertas 2018).

This fast adoption of the use of smartphones, and as a result of mobile applications, entails a complete change in the planning and carrying out of a trip by users and, it represents an improvement in communication by the tourism sector (Kennedy and Gretzel 2012; Plastic Mobile 2013; Paniagua and Huertas 2018).

The use of mobile applications continues to grow every year (Khalid et al. 2015) and the hospitality sector should be aware of its importance because it allows to improve its efficiency, listen to its users, increase their loyalty and differentiate themselves from its competitors. But, unfortunately, only the major international chains have bet on this technology since its birth (Radde 2017). One way to compete in an increasingly competitive ecosystem, to gain visibility, is to use marketing strategies (Kotler and Armstrong 2012) and to consider the App Store Optimization (ASO), which is the equivalent of SEO for web pages (IAB Spain 2017), but paying attention to the particularities of each market (McCann 2011; Sayapina 2018).

The revised literature on the subject of this research has been found that most of the studies have focused on establishing the relationship between some external factors of the ASO, such as: the relationship between the number of downloads and the position they occupy in the Ranking (Ifrach and Johari 2014; Garg and Telang 2013), the relationship between the number of stars and the number of downloads (Harman et al. 2012; Liu 2012), the relationship between the average score and the ranking position (Lim and Bentley 2013). Other research focuses on measuring the quality of apps in iOS (Khalid 2014) through assessments, while Liu et al. (2017) consider that the best factor to indicate the quality is the number of uninstallations and updates by the users. Users comments have also been analyzed (Mudambi and Schuff 2010) and how negative comments can become a valuable source of information, as a complaint can become something positive, in the sense that it warns completely free of charge of possible bugs or improvements to the app (Barlow and Moller 2004; Khalid et al. 2015). Others have studied the false, paid or malicious ratings (Ott et al. 2012).

Increasingly, user ratings and opinions within the store become more important because, on the one hand, they affect the positioning of the application and, on the other hand, other users obtain information that will affect them in their purchasing decision process (Khalid et al. 2015; Genc-Nayebi and Abran 2017). In addition, the use of apps within the digital marketing strategy can create a link or sense of belonging and promote brand loyalty, as well as pay attention to the degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction that users present to improve their experience and turn them into brand ambassadors (Chaudhuri and Holbrook 2001; Chandrashekaran et al. 2007; Kotler and Armstrong 2012; Radde 2017). Joachims (2002) studies the searches from the consumer's perspective and as a set of parameters of the web pages can be optimized.

In addition, there are studies focused exclusively on iTunes (McCann 2011) as well as, Chen and Liu (2011) study a series of features that they classify in static, dynamic and commentary to predict the popularity of the app, only to discover that the best ranked were not the best valued by their users or focusing on the positioning of Android gaming Apps (Sayapina 2018).

The purpose of this work is to study and analyze the ASO parameters with the aim of knowing which variables can affect the positioning of apps in the Google Play Store and App Store (iTunes).

The ASO 2017 handbook has been used to carry out the analysis of the internal and external factors that affect the visibility of hotel apps. In this way, it

will be possible to know which applications are the most demanded for their quality and the most valued by users (Khalid et al. 2015). In addition, this study will identify the best practices carried out by large hotel chains in optimizing their apps.

After the review of the literature, there is a lack of studies on the ASO factors, analyzed together and how they can help improve the apps optimization (Garg and Telang 2013; Jazayeri et al. 2016) taking into account the analysis of the two main apps distribution platforms and their comparison. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed, taking into account that they have been separated by application store and that the available data are not the same for both platforms:

H1.1. Better ASO optimization is related to a better positioning in the ranking of hotel Apps (Android).
H1.2. Better ASO optimization is related to a better positioning in the ranking of hotel Apps (iOS).
H2. The better the optimization of an app, the higher its conversion rate (Android). (Data not available for iOS).
H3.1. The name of the app influences the positioning (in the ranking) of hotel apps (Android).
H3.2. The name of the app influences the positioning (in the ranking) of hotel apps. (iOS).
H4. The description of the app influences the positioning (Android). (Data not available for iOS).
H5. The name of the developer influences the positioning (Android). (Constant data for iOS in the sample studied).
H6. The subtitle of the app influences the positioning (in the ranking of hotel apps) (iOS).
H7. The keywords of the app influence the positioning (in the ranking of hotel apps) (iOS).

11.3   Research Design and Methods

The ASO handbook (App Store Optimization) 2017 (IAB Spain 2017), was used to identify the internal and external factors for each of the stores and their peculiarities. In this work, the data from 41 apps belonging to the Google Play Store (Android) and 44 apps belonging to the Apple Store (iOS) of the main hotel chains located in Spain was analysed during 1 year period (December 12, 2016 to December 12, 2017) (D'Ancona 1999).

All the data analyses were carried out with the statistical software SPSS for Windows and Excel spreadsheets. In order to correctly measure the different parameters, direct observation in the different stores with different mobile devices belonging to the Android and iOS operating systems and various applications such as Apptweak.com and AppAnnie.com were used.

In order to carry out the hypothesis test, the normality of the variables is first checked in order to decide on the most appropriate statistical test for the available data.

When it comes to normal/linear distributions, parametric tests, such as Student's-T distribution and Pearsons's Correlation, will be used to measure the strength of a linear association between two variables. For non-linear distributions, we will use nonparametric techniques, specifically, the Spearman's Correlation.

11.4 Results

The final hypothesis contrast carried out can be observed as follows. For a better understanding the results are presented grouped for each of the application stores (Table 11.2, Android, Table 11.3, iOS).

11.5 Discussion and Conclusions

Not all hotel chains established in Spain have mobile apps. Nevertheless, from the sample studied, more than half of them do not appear in the daily rankings of the different stores; hence the importance of knowing which factors contribute to improve visibility in each store because the ecosystem is very competitive and having an app does not imply appearing in the ranking of apps. As evidenced by the study, the ASO factors are combined in a differentiated way according to the store, some acquiring more prominence to the detriment of the others. This

Table 11.2 Android hypothesis

	Correlation		Student's t-distribution		Contrast results
	Pearson	Sig	t	Sig	
H1.1. Better ASO optimization is related to better positioning in the hotel App ranking	0.286	0.07			Not supported
	Spearman				
H2.1. The better the optimization of an app, the higher its conversion rate (only for Android)	0.606	0.0			Supported
H3.1. The name of the app influences the positioning (in the ranking) of hotel apps			−2.452	0.019	Supported
H4.1. The description of the app influences the positioning			−1.839	0.075	Not supported
H5.1. The name of the developer influences the positioning			1.548	0.13	Not supported

Source: Own elaboration

Table 11.3 iOS hypothesis

	Correlation		Student's t-distribution		Contrast results
	Pearson	Sig	t	Sig	
H1.2. Better ASO optimization is related to better positioning in the hotel App ranking	0.346	0.021			Supported
H3.2. The name of the app influences the positioning (in the ranking) of hotel apps			−0.683	0.499	Not supported
H6.2. The subtitle of the app influences the positioning in the ranking (only for iOS)			−2.626	0.012	Supported
H7.2. The key words of the app influence the positioning in the ranking (only for iOS)			1.732	0.091	Not supported

Source: Own elaboration

discovery will help hotel chains and developers in their digital strategy when it comes to positioning their apps on both platforms.

In the case of Android, it is noted that the better optimized an app is, the higher its conversion rate will be. The importance of the app name (the number of characters used by the developer) also helps to improve its positioning. In the case of iOS, the results show that the better the app is optimized, the better its positioning in the apps ranking will be, and that the importance of the subtitle at the time of positioning plays an important part (this data that is only available for iOS).

Consequently, it has been possible to verify the speed of the changes that take place in both stores. For example, Google launched in 2017 some changes that penalized or directly eliminated inactive applications and Apple launched iOS 11 that included a series of changes at the time to improve the positioning in the store. The study has shown that the large international brands that opted for this technology in 2011 continue to lead the market in terms of the number of downloads, number of opinions, updates and favourable opinions. The adoption of mobile apps by Spanish hotel chains has taken place later and this is evident in the figures for downloads and ratings, although in general they are doing well.

The study reveals that not all hotel chains have mobile apps and, indeed, of the sample studied, more than half do not exploit the ASO, which can be attributed to poor planning of the digital strategy and lack of control of their app, due to the outsourcing of key activities in the optimization of apps (Aswani et al. 2018). It should be noted that each store has its own particularities and the factors that affect its visibility differ from one store to another.

The practical implications are that small hotels run the risk of being marginalized in the highly competitive app market, causing them not to appear in the daily app ranking. Thus, hotels run the risk of losing contact with their clients and therefore, it makes difficult for them to build a solid relationship that will generate brand loyalty (Chaudhuri and Holbrook 2001; Chandrashekaran et al. 2007).

On the one hand, the conclusions of the work allow the app owners and web developers to establish which factors influence the correct optimization of an app that allows them to increase their visibility in the different markets, taking into account their differences (Puchalt et al. 2017). Moreover, according to Aswani et al. (2017), the positioning service should not be in the hands of inexperienced professionals and low-cost solutions should be avoided. Finally, the study also demonstrates the differences between the two platforms in terms of which variables improve visibility based on the app market. And on the other hand, this work also aims to help researchers in a subject that, due to its complexity, still has little literature, as well as giving small hotel chains some minimum guidelines to improve their digital strategy and increase their visibility in the main app stores.

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Chapter 12
Psychological Analytics Based Technology Adoption Model for Effective Educational Marketing

Arghya Ray, Pradip Kumar Bala, and Shilpee A. Dasgupta

12.1 Introduction

"Career is defined as the progress of roles during the course of a lifetime of a person." (Super 1980, p. 282). "Career choice acts as a determinant of an individual's prospective level of income and nature of work" (Kazi and Akhlaq 2017, p. 187).

"In the wise choice of a vocation, there are three broad factors: (1) a clear understanding of yourself, your aptitudes, interests, ambitions, resources, limitations, and knowledge of their causes; (2) a knowledge of the requirements, conditions of success, advantages and disadvantages, compensation, opportunities, and prospects in different lines of work; (3) true reasoning on the relations of these two groups of fact" (Parsons 1909, p. 5).

In the present era, with the rapid growth of digitalization and competition in every sector, it is important to go through a career choice process (Kazi and Akhlaq 2017) in a specific order for achieving a good career decision (Esbroeck et al. 2005). Since the building blocks of career choice start from choosing the career-specific course, it is important for individuals to choose the course wisely for enhancing the career path. With the plethora of massive open online courses (MOOCs) by various reputed organizations like Coursera, Udemy and Udacity, knowledge gained from most of the courses lead to a better career growth. But with digitalization and the number of online courses available, it becomes really tough to differentiate a relevant career-focused course from a mediocre one. Hence, authenticity and validity of a particular course, as determinants of trust, become important factors influencing the career choice of individuals. The other important factor that plays

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the initial role in letting an individual select a course for his/her career choice is 'perceived benefits'. Perceived benefits have been used to measure positive perceptions. Researchers believe that a behavior is driven by an individual's cognition in terms of acceptability, motives, and attitudes toward such behavior or psychology, especially if positive (Leung 2013). Although individual skills/abilities play an important role while deciding online-based technical courses, social media has become a huge motivator for people and their career choices. As social media platforms of social interaction, communication and marketing are growing, an increasing number of businesses including educational firms have already integrated or plans to integrate social media applications into their marketing plans to reach and attract future students, thus showing a shift from traditional ways of marketing (Constantinides and Stagno 2011). Service quality, as measured by the SERVQUAL framework by Parasuraman et al. (1988), becomes another important determinant in the services industry. It is important for educational firms to keep track of the latest demand of consumers to stay ahead of the competition and provide value-laden career-specific courses. Since capturing individual perspectives can help in better marketing of services and can also impact the customer lifetime value (CLV) in the long run, the field of 'psychological analytics' is quickly evolving.

12.2 Historical Perspective

The literature review of people trying to identify appropriate careers can be traced back to the fifteenth century (Zytowski 1972) and first vocational guidance programs can be traced back to Cogswell High School in San Francisco in 1988 (Brewer 1942). Though the roots of career choice development theory emerged from Frank Parsons three steps "conceptual framework for career decision making" (quoted at the beginning of this chapter), Parson's "formula" cannot be called a theory in strict sense (Brown 2002).

12.2.1 Psychology-Based Theories

Parsons (1909) believed that if people actively engage in choosing their vocations rather than operate in the hunt for a job; they are more satisfied with their careers. During the first part of the twentieth century, career counseling practitioners focused on increasing people's understanding of the workplace. However, the World War I, the Great Depression of the 1930s, and World War II produced a great need to put people in occupations where they can satisfactorily perform. The use of tests to measure intellectual functioning began during World War I and expanded with time to include interests, specific aptitudes, and personalities in the 1920s; and it continues till date (Brown 2002). Meanwhile, with the explosion of technology, Parson's model became famous as the "trait and factor theory." Though trait and

factor theory dominated the twenties and the thirties, it was first challenged by Carl Rogers (1942, 1951) when he published books on client centered counseling and therapy. In 1951, Ginzberg et al. pointed out that career development is a lifelong developmental process rather than a static one. They also suggested that career choices are characterized by compromise and, once made, are for most part irreversible. Though in 1972, Ginzberg altered both these propositions, it had little impact on practice. In 1953, Donald Super's theory of career choice contained propositions related to trait-and-factor theory developmental psychology and personal construct theory (Kelly 1955). In 1990, Super suggested that career choice model is continuously evolving and must be left to future theorists (Brown 2002).

The study by Barbara (1991) based on replies from 1345 older graduates who completed full-time degree courses in 1987 and 1989, showed that the prime motivator for choosing courses was interest in academic subjects, while the most important consideration in choosing a career was job satisfaction. Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) by Lent et al. (1994) is intended to offer a unifying framework for bringing together common elements, identified by previous career theorists—such as Super (1980), Holland (1997), Krumboltz et al. (1976), and Lofquist and Dawis (1978)—and arranging them into a novel rendering of how people (1) develop vocational interests, (2) make (and remake) occupational choices, and (3) achieve varying levels of career success and stability. The primary foundation for this approach lies in Bandura's (1986) general social cognitive theory, which emphasizes the complex ways in which people, their behavior, and environments mutually influence one another can be defined by the factors, namely, attention, retention, reproduction, and motivation. The model tested by Tang et al. (1999), derived from SCCT, found that participants' self-efficacy beliefs and contextual factors such as family social economic status, family influence, and levels of acculturation may influence Asian American career choices, but that interests were virtually unrelated to their choices.

According to Schreuder and Coetzee (2006), an individual's decision to join a firm may depend on one of the three factors, namely objective factor, subjective factor, and critical contact. While objective factor theory assumes that the applicant's choice is dependent on the objective assessment of the tangible benefits of the job, which include the salary, other benefits, location, and opportunities for career advancement, subjective factor theory suggests that decision-making is dominated by social and psychological factors, like, the status of the job and reputation of the organization. Critical contact theory states that a candidate's observations while interacting with the organization play a vital role in decision-making. In our research, we are more interested in accessing the objective and subjective part of Schreuder's theory.

Numerous new theories of career choice and career development have emerged since the 1950s. In 1963, Bordin et al. published a career development theory grounded in psychodynamic thought. Various authors have also worked in this context—work adjustment theory by Lofquist and Dawis in 1969, social learning theory of career decision-making by Krumboltz in 1979, developmental theory of occupational aspirations by Gottfredson in 1981, theory of career development

based on cognitive theory by Peterson et al. in 1991, and theory of work adjustment (TWA) by Dawis (2005) and Dawis and Lofquist (1984). In the Indian context, Agarwala (2008) found skills, competencies, and abilities to be the most important factors and father as the most important individual influencing the career choice of Indian students. Though the most widely used career choice classification framework is the three-dimensional framework by Beynon et al. (1998) and Carpenter and Strawser (1977), which lists three types of factors, namely, (1) intrinsic (interest in the job, personally satisfying work), (2) extrinsic (availability of jobs, well-paying occupations), and (3) interpersonal (influence of parents and significant others), we felt social cognitive career theory to be the most relevant and hence have adopted it in this study.

12.2.2 Adoption of Technology

"The continuing quest to ensure user acceptance of information systems and information technology (IS/IT) is an ongoing management challenge (Schwarz and Chin 2007), and one that has occupied the IS research community to the extent that IS/IT adoption and diffusion research is now considered to be among the more mature areas of exploration within the IS discipline (Hirschheim 2008; Venkatesh et al. 2008)."—Williams et al. 2009, p. 1.

Over the years, several behavioral models have been proposed in the Information Systems (IS) literature for explaining/predicting the adoption and usage of information technology. Contexts vary from the societal to the industrial, to the organizational and individual, and many theories and models—such as the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM), Diffusion of Innovation (DoI) theory, Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), and Institutional Theory—have been utilized to study adoption and diffusion of technological innovation (Williams et al. 2009). TAM has been used for several years to predict the attitudes and behaviors of individuals using new technologies. Venkatesh and Davis (2000) extended the original TAM model to explain perceived usefulness and usage intentions in terms of social influence and cognitive instrumental processes. The extended model, referred to as TAM2, was tested in both voluntary and mandatory settings (Dickinger et al. 2008). In an attempt to integrate the main competing user acceptance models, Venkatesh et al. (2003) formulated the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT). Though the UTAUT framework was found to outperform the individual models by previous researchers, we have considered TAM for our study since using TAM in the combinatorial model will help us to analyze the choice perspectives better. Recently, researchers have begun stretching their reach beyond the commonly addressed organization and user perspectives (Williams et al. 2009).

Analyzing the individual perspectives, we found that with digitalization and the number of online courses available, it becomes really difficult to differentiate a relevant career-focused course from a mediocre one. Responses from qualitative interviews revealed authenticity and validity of a particular course, as determinants of trust becomes an important factor influencing the career choice of individuals.

The other important factor that plays the initial role in letting an individual select a course for his/her career choice is perceived benefit. Perceived benefits (Iacovou et al. 1995; Curran and Meuter 2005; Lee 2009; Oliveira and Martins 2011) and trust/authenticity (Belanger and Carter 2008) as factors in adoption have been used in a number of studies over the years. Since we are working with adoption of online-based technical courses, we have combined the perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use within perceived benefits since we felt perceived benefits to be more relevant in this case.

12.2.3 Services Marketing

Services marketing including marketing of services, like financial services, educational services, and hospital services, emerged as a separate field of study in the early 1980s with the realization that the characteristics of marketing services varied from those of product marketing. Service Quality (SERVQUAL) captures consumer expectations and perceptions of a service along the five dimensions (namely reliability, assurance, tangible, empathy and responsiveness) that are believed to represent service quality (Parasuraman et al. 1988). Firms need to reduce the service gap that exists when the perceived service expectancy does not match the expectations of the customers. With the growth of relationship marketing and customer engagement in recent years, it has become a concern for marketers to retain customers through better services.

Education being an important sector and with digitalization on the rise, it is important for firms and government organizations to look into factors that can affect students' career choices and in turn strategize for better educational branding and attracting students. With growth of big data and cognitive analytics inspiring marketers to capture data of every activities of a consumer, educational marketers can also improvise to understand the psychological factors that influence the online course choice, which in turn shape the career of students. Social media has recently been a highly impactful channel of communication for marketers in this modern era of digitized living (Dwivedi et al. 2015). Businesses now are starting to look into social media platforms and Web 2.0 technologies for interacting more with the customers (Alalwan et al. 2017), to facilitate relationship formation between users from diverse backgrounds (Kapoor et al. 2018), and enhancing the customers' buying behaviors (Zeng and Gerritsen 2014). Advertisers in this digital era marketing are looking into new avenues for attracting customers (Gutierrez et al. 2018; Shareef et al. 2017, 2018, 2019).

A significant amount of research has been going on in TAM in technological contexts, SERVQUAL framework in the marketing context and SCCT in career choice context. However, for adoption of technical online courses, the concepts of psychology, marketing, and technology if forged together can help to improve the rate of adoption of technology and in turn educational marketing.

12.3   Conceptual Model

The question arises as to whether (a) psychological factors impact the adoption of technology and career choices, (b) the psychological factors if taken into account can improve marketing in educational sector, (c) whether a combined framework of psychological, marketing, and adoption of technology can improve educational marketing.

Based on the extant literature and the need to involve psychological factors in the educational marketing, we have framed the conceptual model as shown in Fig. 12.1.

Social cognitive career theory, aimed at explaining the aspects of career development involved in career choice of individuals, incorporates a variety of concepts (e.g., interests, abilities, values) that affect the career choice. The three intricately linked variables—self-efficacy beliefs, outcome expectations, and goals—serve as the basic building blocks of SCCT. Self-efficacy refers to an individual's personal beliefs about his or her capabilities to perform particular behaviors or courses of action. Self-efficacy beliefs are relatively dynamic and are specific to particular activity domains. SCCT assumes that people are likely to become interested in, choose to pursue, and perform better at activities at which they have strong self-efficacy beliefs, as long as they also have necessary skills and environmental supports to pursue these activities (Lent et al. 1994). Convenience of the platform including ease of communication channels (traditional/online), useful for future career, satisfaction, feeling of comfort along with gender and age can be formed under skills/ability section. Outcome expectations refer to beliefs about the consequences or outcomes of performing particular behaviors. People are more likely to choose to engage in an activity to the extent that they see their involvement as lead-
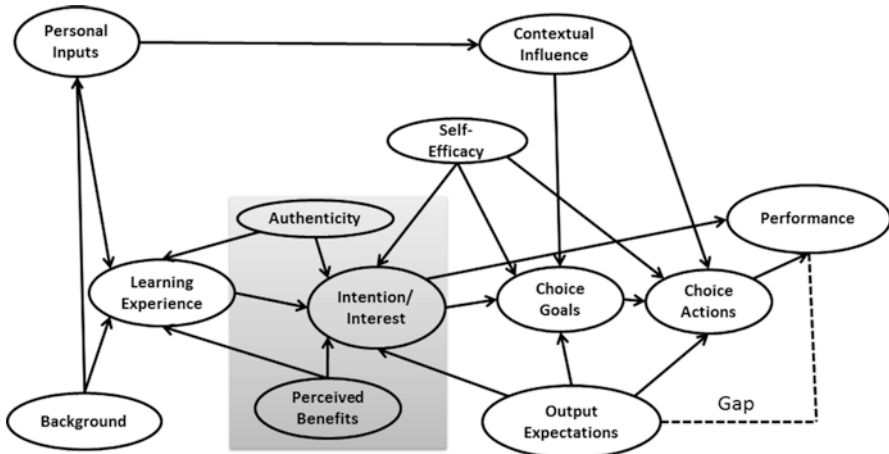

Fig. 12.1 Conceptual model for strategic advantage in educational marketing (Source: Adapted from Parasuraman et al. 1988; Davis 1989; Lent et al. 1994; Iacovou et al. 1995; Belanger and Carter 2008; Lee 2009; Oliveira and Martins 2011)

ing to valued positive outcomes. Personal goals may be defined as one's intentions to engage in a particular activity. People tend to set goals that are consistent with their views of their personal capabilities and of the outcomes they expect to attain from pursuing a particular course of action. Success or failure in reaching personal goals, in turn, becomes important information that helps to alter or confirm self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations or to attain a certain level of performance. As people develop interest in an activity, they are likely to develop goals for sustaining or increasing their involvement in it. Further activity involvement leads to subsequent mastery or failure experiences, which, in turn, help to revise self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and, ultimately, interests within an ongoing feedback loop (Lent et al. 1994).

The authenticity, perceived benefits, and intention to learn a technical course form the modified TAM part (as highlighted in the diagram). The modification has been made keeping in mind the educational marketing part. Perceived benefit refers to the perception of the positive consequences that are caused by a specific action. Authenticity refers to the originality or genuineness of the course. With the presence of a large number of online courses, it becomes really difficult to choose the most relevant authentic course which will be valued in the job sector, thus affecting the career path of individuals. Thus, adding perceived benefits and authenticity gives an added dimension to educational marketing and intention to learn a specific technical course.

The expected service part is based on the SERVQUAL models, which depends on the expectations an individual develops from a program based on previous experience or learning. If the expected service does not meet the perceived service, that is, the performance of the student does not meet the desires, the educational institute is likely to face a drop in the student count in the upcoming years. The societal influencing factors, namely, societal pressure and WOM/eWOM and the family background, namely, societal status, family income, and parental pressure plays a role in the contextual influence part of the model affecting the students' career choices. The spiritual, i.e., the tangible part of the educational institute also impacts the choice of the student and likely to impact the educational branding of the educational institute.

If the students' career motives, previous performance, and the intentions toward a particular course can be captured, educational institutes can adopt a multi-homing cost structure and leverage upon multi-network to attract a greater number of students through customized social media advertising. The service gap is denoted by the dotted line when the expectations do not meet the performance. Authenticity and perceived benefits can be focused through providing authentic feedbacks from netizens who have successfully completed a particular online course and has obtained a good role in some good organization. With Marketing 4.0 and digital marketing having a strong social effect on influencing the course and in-turn career choices, it is important for educational firms to focus on better marketing plans keeping in mind the psychological and adoption factors.

12.4 A Case in India

A mixed method approach was undertaken to test our conceptual model based on surveys taken in India. The qualitative part of the study conducted through semi-structured interviews revealed themes like financial benefits, growth benefits, usefulness, convenience, social influence, reliability, and trust. The quantitative part of the study conducted by taking surveys of 513 respondents of age group between mainly 20–30 years showed that psychological factors like previous learning experiences combined with authenticity and perceived benefits of the course do affect the intention to learn a particular course and influences performance. The analysis of the survey was done using structural equation modeling using SMART PLS professional version. The model fit measured by the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) value came as 0.074. The examination of the coefficients detected strong effects of perceived benefits and authenticity on the intention/interest to take up a particular technological course. The high influence of perceived benefits demonstrated that an individual's career choice is dependent on the perceived benefits he/she expects to derive from the course. Furthermore, the individuals' intention/interest in a particular course significantly influences the performance. Interestingly we found that though intention/interest has a strong influence on the choice goals, it has a weak positive relation with choice actions and performance. We also found that contextual influence, background of the individual and output expectations play minor roles in influencing the career choice and hence performance of individuals. We can hence argue that perceived benefits of a technological course affect the intention and career choice of individuals. This work is available in International Journal of Information Management (Ray et al. 2019).

Based on the responses received, we found that psychological factors affect the technical career course choice. Additionally, if the psychological factors capturing the perspectives of individuals can be combined with the marketing concepts to understand the gaps in which the firms lack, it can improve educational marketing. We have not conducted surveys in other sectors, and hence this can be taken up in further research. Moreover, we have taken technical-specific course since we were concerned about bringing the psychological, marketing and technological adoption aspects together. We feel that a combined framework of psychological, marketing and adoption of technology can improve educational marketing based on the results we got from our study in India.

12.4.1 Recommendations

From the results of this study it is evident that in the age of digitalization and with the penetration of Internet for attracting customers, the organizations need to think beyond the traditional ways of marketing. The companies or firms need to look into the psychological aspects that drive an individual's adoption or retention intention.

From this study, we also found that performance of an individual is related to the interest or intention. Hence educational firms while designing eLearning courses or when marketing their courses should focus on factors like the course pedagogy, the background, the simplicity of explanations etc., which can attract the students and also benefit them. Focusing on the psychological aspects and monitoring the behavior of each student toward a particular course over a period of time can help companies to customize offerings and hence create more loyal customers.

In conclusion, the career choice of individuals and the intention to learn a course for their career choice are strongly influenced by authenticity and perceived benefits. Though the main driver of performance is intention to learn a course, the intention to pursue a particular course for a career choice is influenced by perceived benefits, authenticity, and learning experiences.

12.5   Summary

In the age of digitalization and influence of social media feeds, it is important to remember the psychological aspects of the students' choice along with the factors influencing the rate of technological adoption and ways to reduce the service gaps if any. Social cognitive career theory (SCCT) is aimed at explaining three interrelated aspects of career development, which includes how basic academic and career interests develop, how educational and career choices are made, and how academic and career success is obtained. With digitalization on the rise and online technical courses shaping careers getting importance, for educational institutes and educational consultancies to attract more students, the firms need to focus on ways to target students based on the perceived benefits, authenticity, and ways to minimize the service gaps. As digital marketing plays an important role, this model can not only help firms with flexible multi-homing cost structure but also help them form better multichannel models for creating a better customer base. Also, with substitution effect on the rise, to get competitive advantage, educational institutes can benefit by working with the psychological factors for increasing the customer base through cross side network effect. This research will also help managers from development institutions, policy makers like the government, and NGOs to design their marketing strategies properly for creating a better customer base in various other sectors as well.

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Chapter 13
Smart Cities and Marketing: The Female-Relational-Orientation

Carl H. D. Steinmetz

13.1 Introduction

Most definitions of smart cities are no more than striving for an advanced extension of the Internet of the Things (Albino et al. 2015). These extensions are dominated by males and their concerns about innovation and technology. This might be called the male-competition-orientation (Fiske 2011). The focus on alone "male-narrow-mindedness" has consequences for marketing communications about smart cities. The missing link in this communication is the female-relational-perspective (Fiske 2011). This chapter uses as the central question: "should marketing communication about smart cities cover both the male-competition-orientational perspective as well as the female-relational-perspective because these perspectives in daily contacts between people go hand in hand?" (Fig. 13.1).

Therefore, the focus in this chapter will be alone on the female-relational-orientation. This perspective concerns the fluid or fixed/structural social organization (Blokland 2017) of human relationships apart from the male-competition-perspective because it broadens the look at marketing communication in smart cities. Our statement is that marketing activities in smart cities should also be designed for a variety of fluid or structural groups of people: single (with or without children), nuclear family, (parts of) extended families, tribes, and fluid communities (including social media communities) partly depending on the neighborhood and the number of incoming, permanent, and departing people in this neighborhood (these patterns can be studied with urbane rhythms) and similar human organization at (volunteer) work and in the leisure industry. This chapter about smart cities and the female-relational-orientations will also discuss Superdiversity, Cultural Bias, and All-Inclusive Multiculturalism and the consequences of these concepts for marketing in smart cities. This contribution

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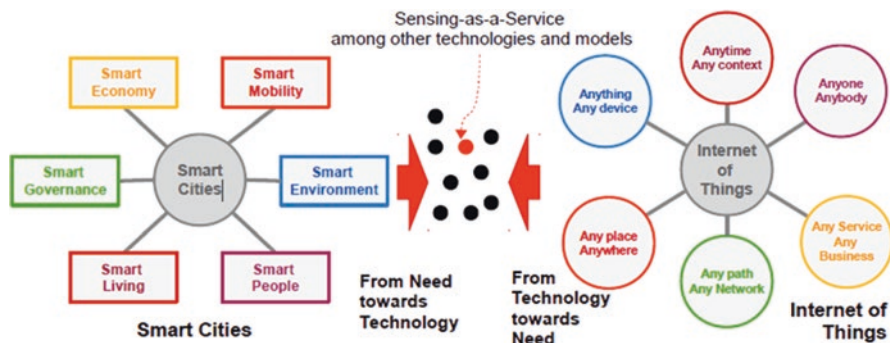
Fig. 13.1 Classical Male-competition-technology-oriented definition (Charith et al. 2014: 3)

ends with possible models/vignettes for education, health care, labor market and neighborhoods.

13.2 Definition of Marketing

The definition of marketing and the marketing process according to the business-dictionary is: "the management process[1] through which goods and services move from concept to the customer. It includes the coordination of four elements called the 4 P's of marketing:

1. Identification, selection and development of a product;
2. Determination of its price;
3. Selection of a distribution channel to reach the customer's place;
4. Development and implementation of a promotional strategy."

Marketing is based on thinking about a business in terms of customer needs and their satisfaction. Marketing differs from selling because (in the words of Harvard Business School's retired professor of marketing Theodore C. Levitt) "selling concerns itself with the tricks and techniques of getting people to exchange their cash for your product. It is not concerned with the values that the exchange is all about. And it does not, as marketing invariable does, view the entire business process as consisting of a tightly integrated effort to discover, create, arouse and satisfy customer needs. In other words, marketing has less to do with getting customers to pay for your product as it does developing a demand for that product and fulfilling the customer's needs."

This business-dictionary definition is hardly different from definitions of smart cities. Why? Because this definition of marketing does not distinguish like smart city definitions different types of human relationships (fluid and structural) at

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[1] http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/marketing.html

home, work, leisure, and transport. This marketing definition pretends that human relationships can be translated into elements of economic models like price and distribution channel. The following marketing definition however acknowledges indistinctly the female-relational-orientation: "a social and managerial process by which individuals and groups obtain what they need and want through creating and exchanging products and values with others" (Kotler et al. 2008: 6). Another definition that might be seen as a proxy of the female-relational-orientation is: "self-marketing can be defined as varied activities undertaken by individuals to make themselves known in the marketplace (Shepherd 2005: 590) which is also closely linked to the concept of self-promotion or self-branding" (Ward and Yates 2013; Resnick et al. 2016: 5). This definition acknowledges humans, unfortunately only as individual "male" entrepreneurs of small- and medium-sized enterprises. The American Marketing Association defined in 2007 marketing as "a set of processes for managing customer relationships to benefit the organisation and its stakeholders" (Resnick et al. 2016: 7).

In other words, the definitions of smart cities and marketing do have a striking similarity, with a focus on male-competition-orientation (such as Internet of the Things, price determination, and distribution channels) and the absence of the social organization of humans, both fluid and structural. Therefore, this chapter sets females and the female-relational-orientation down as equivalent to males and the male-competition-oriented-perspective. Within this context we will discuss superdiversity, cultural bias, and all-inclusive multiculturalism.

13.3 Smart Cities and Superdiversity

The concept superdiversity is coined by Vertovec (2007). Superdiversity is presented here in the context of smart cities since superdiversity might be understood as an organization principle (female-relational-orientation) of humans in smart cities. Superdiversity is a characteristic of large and smart cities in the small (western countries like the European countries and the US and the continent Australia) and big world (the continents Africa, Asia, and South-America). Another word for superdiversity that can be applied to large- and smart cities is majority–minority. In majority–minority cities the majority of the population comes from countries other than where we are (Crul 2015). It also means that the population of origin is mostly the largest minority. Recent Dutch research showed that the Netherlands contains 233 nationalities (Jennissen et al. 2018). Crul (2015) mentioned that "super diverse alerts us to other axes of difference between humans like gender, education, age cohorts and generations. The so-called new perspective is that between and within ethnic groups there is a growing difference between generations, between men and women and between more and less educated people. This calls for a shift of focus from fixed entities like 'the ethnic group' to a dynamic interplay between different characteristics of individual members of ethnic groups and the fluid relationships between them; in other words: a shift from an 'ethnic lens' to a multidimensional

lens." Furthermore, research of Crul (2015) showed that "children of immigrants nowadays no longer integrate into the majority group, but into a large amalgam of ethnic groups. Next to the diversification of ethnic groups, we see diversification within ethnic groups in the second and third generations." Thirdly Crul (2015) finds "another cardinal new trend in European cities, namely that classical immigrant groups that came in the 1960s and 1970s as labour immigrants now extend into three generations living in the city. Children and grandchildren of the first generation are mostly born in these very same cities and grew up there. They now form one of the established groups in the city. They are strongly rooted in the city and, also, because most of their close family lives there. Often people of native descent come to the large and smart cities to study and to find work and often leave when they marry and start a family. This trend overthrows the picture of who are newcomers and who belong to the established group. To say that the grandchildren of immigrants have become part of the mainstream or the majority population seems more problematic in Europe than in the USA." A nice example of the new world is portrayed for a neighborhood in the smart and superdiverse city Anvers Belgium (van der Vijver et al. 2015).

What are the lessons of superdiversity in smart cities for the female-relational-orientation in these cities and therefore marketing? The first lesson is that superdiversity outlines the social and organizational structure of inhabitants of smart cities. Immigrants, other newcomers and their children are the permanent inhabitants for three or four generations of smart cities and people of native descent are the temporarily inhabitants mainly trying to fulfill in smart cities the need to work and/or study. The second lesson is that newcomers learn from immigrants in their neighborhood about the characteristics of the culture of this particular homeland where they just settled. The consequences are that the original culture of the inhabitants of native descent disappears from the picture. These shifts in smart city cultures could lead to an increase in innovative forces but could also lead to far-reaching polarization. In Figs. 13.2 and 13.3 these trends in smart city cultures are shown.

In Fig. 13.3 attentions is paid to the two dimensions of superdiversity, a visible and invisible one. Important characteristics of the invisible dimension are stress language (differs for most mother- and fatherland cultures), the difference between collectivism and individualism, social organization of extended families or tribes, etc. The elements of these two dimensions are part of the structural and fluid social organization of large and smart city inhabitants. An example of a structural organisation is an extended family home in a neighborhood of a smart city and an example of a more fluid structure are the visitors of the local Mosque in the neighborhood. Inhabitants are sharing the Mosque and worship Allah there but need not to know each other.

Superdiversity for marketing of goods and services and the relation with the Internet of the Things in a smart city creates an opportunity to illuminate different groups of permanent or temporarily inhabitants of a neighborhood, taking into account that the neighborhood is at the same time the globalized world. Temporarily inhabitants are visitors of single person households with or without children, nuclear families with and/or without children and parts of extended families (other parts are
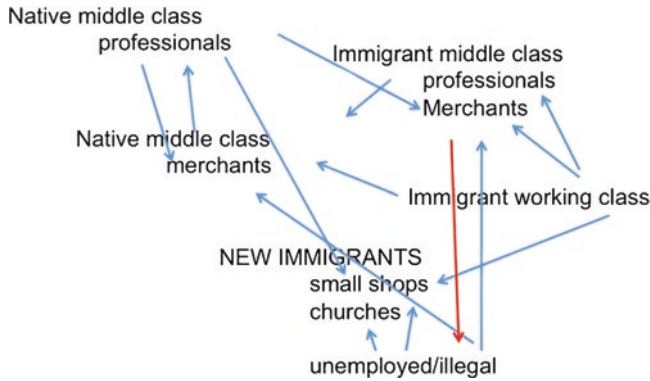
Fig. 13.2 Schematic representation of interactions in the neighborhood Berchem, Antwerp, Belgium (van der Vijver et al. 2015: 39)
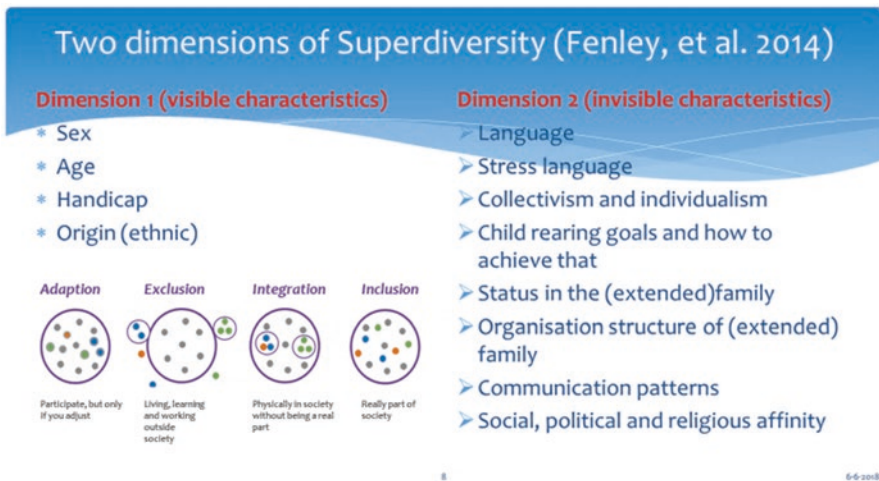
Fig. 13.3 Dimensions of superdiversity based on Fenley and Daele (2014)

living in a motherland and other fatherlands). Temporarily are also hotels or Airbnb tourists. Illuminating these groups seen from a marketing perspective means realizing that services and goods are one part of the medal and the inhabitants and how they organize themselves the other part. Behind illuminating services and goods we find mechanisms that direct society processes like adaption, exclusion, integration and inclusion. A favorite imbedding in society is inclusion since it acknowledges that we as inhabitants of smart cities differ from each other and are learning to accept these differences. Those differences and acceptation of it should be part of the marketing communication (Fig. 13.4).

Fig. 13.4 Two scenarios of superdiversity (Cantle 2015)
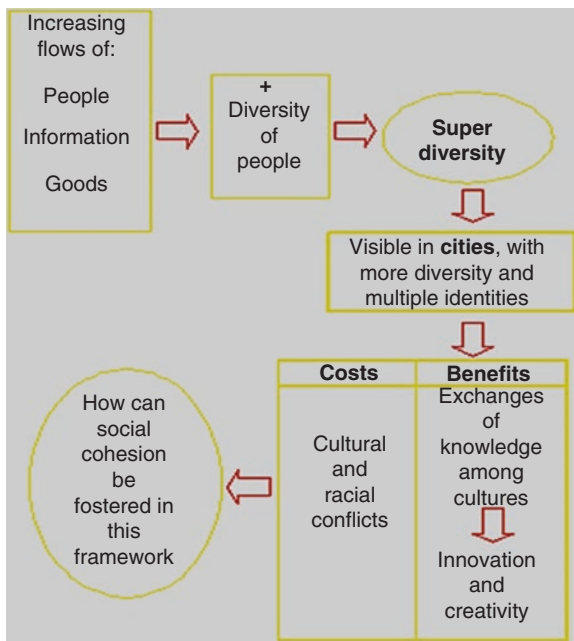
Cantle (2015) suggests that superdiversity might have two possible (temporarily) outcomes, in particular "racial and cultural conflicts" and "innovation and creativity." In order to prevent "cultural and racial conflicts" Resnick et al. (2016) raises the question "how can social cohesion be fostered in this framework?" "Fostering social cohesion via for instance social services[2] should be contingent on adequate resources and efficient public spending, must contrast with governments who often provide subsidies/payments that benefit the non-poor, prevent or mitigate duality and segmentation, not solely be efficient in monetary terms, utilize targeted cash transfers; programmes in Brazil, Indonesia and Mexico have attained coverage of up to one-third of the population through targeted cash transfers whilst costing them less than 1% of their GDP, devolve institutions to better reflect labour markets' realities so to produce fair outcomes with minimal strife and decouple social protection from job status through universal entitlements in order to offer best coverage at all levels." According to Cantle (2015) "a cohesive community is one where there is a common vision and a sense of belonging for all communities, the diversity of people's different backgrounds and circumstances are appreciated and positively valued, those from different backgrounds have similar life opportunities and strong and positive relationships are being developed between people from different backgrounds in the workplace, in schools and within neighbourhoods." These Cantle (Cantle 2015) rules can be applied to marketing in smart cities.

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[2] http://wikiprogress.org/articles/poverty-development/social-cohesion/

13.4 Smart Cities and Cultural Bias

Cultural bias is a mechanism that prohibits inhabitants to share a smart city life, enjoy and appreciate all possible differences between inhabitants of smart cities. Cultural bias is according to Wikipedia[3] "the phenomenon of interpreting and judging phenomena by standards inherent to one's own culture. Cultural bias is sometimes considered a problem central to social and human sciences, such as economics, psychology, anthropology, and sociology.

Cultural bias occurs when people of a culture make assumptions about conventions, including conventions of language, notation, proof and evidence. They are then accused of mistaking these assumptions for laws of logic or nature. Numerous such biases exist, concerning cultural norms for colour, mate selection, concepts of justice, linguistic and logical validity, the acceptability of evidence, and taboos." Cultural bias is not random, but structural and an anomaly. It is said that it is difficult to remove cultural bias than removing personal bias (Borgohain 2017). Why it is so difficult is been shown in Fig. 13.5.

In Fig. 13.5 implicit cultural biases is characterized by two mechanisms, stereotypes and differential treatment. "In social psychology, a stereotype is an over-
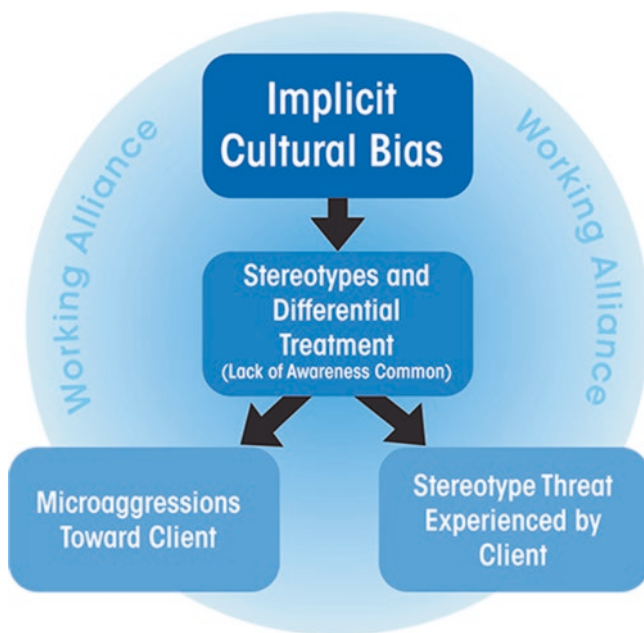

Fig. 13.5 Implicit cultural bias and its consequences. (Source https://openi.nlm.nih.gov/detailedresult.php?img=PMC4872612_arcr-38-1-47f1&req=4)

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[3] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cultural_bias

generalized belief about a particular category of people. Stereotypes are generalized because one assumes that the stereotype is true for each individual person in the category. Such generalizations are useful when making quick decisions, however they may be erroneous when applied to particular individuals. Stereotypes create a barrier that leads to prejudice, making one assume they know a person just based on a stereotype. Stereotypes, prejudice, and discrimination are understood as related but different concepts. Stereotypes are regarded as the most cognitive component and often occur without conscious awareness, whereas prejudice is the affective component of stereotyping and discrimination is one of the behavioural components of prejudicial reactions. In this tripartite view of intergroup attitudes, stereotypes reflect expectations and beliefs about the characteristics of members of groups perceived as different from one's own, prejudice represents the emotional response, and discrimination refers to actions (Wikipedia[4])." Examples of differential treatment[5] are "opening up certain position to a certain gender or race only, not promoting older employees because they may not stay around as long, having all members of a certain race or religion sit in the same section, only inviting couples that are man and woman to the holiday and company parties, demoting a pregnant woman from her current role upon her return to work and making certain tasks impossible for disabled employees. Different is an adjective most often used to show how certain employees are being treated differently because of something he or she cannot change about themselves." Humans in large and smart cities and at any place do experience (implicit) cultural bias as micro aggression and stereotype treat. "Being exposed to the daily assault of racial micro aggressions has major psychological implications and consequences. In a study examining workplace harassment at five organizations, minority women were significantly more harassed in the workplace than minority men and majority men and women. This study identified ten categories representing the most common symptoms likely to manifest in employees who experience chronic micro aggressions, anxiety, paranoia, depression, sleep difficulties, lack of confidence, worthlessness, intrusive cognitions, helplessness, loss of drive and false positives (person overgeneralizes negative experiences with others due to persistent feelings of harassment).The range of these categories illustrates the serious implications racial micro aggressions have on mental health (Holder et al. 2015)." In addition, exclusion is dangerous since the results might be short-term psychoses (van der Ven 2016).

An example of (implicit) cultural biases in the education system (in smart cities) is pointed out by the OECD (2018): "students with an immigrant background tend to underperform in school. This is particularly true of first-generation immigrant students (foreign-born students of foreign-born parents). On average across OECD countries, as much as 51% of first-generation immigrant students failed to reach baseline academic proficiency in reading, mathematics and science, compared to 28% of students without an immigrant background who failed to reach that level. Similar differences are observed in most other wellbeing outcomes as well: 41% of

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[4] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Stereotype

[5] https://hkm.com/employment-blog/differential-treatment/

first-generation immigrant students reported a weak sense of belonging, compared to 33% of students without an immigrant background who so reported; 31% of first-generation immigrant students reported low life satisfaction, compared to 28% of students without an immigrant background; and 67% of first-generation immigrant students reported high schoolwork-related anxiety, compared to 61% of students without an immigrant background."

Next constructed figure portrays characteristics of cultural bias and what might happen if cultural bias is eliminated (Fig. 13.6).

This section about (implicit) cultural bias indicates that marketing must prevent that the majority of inhabitants ("non-whites") of large and smart cities is ignored. They are ignored by the powerful minority of "white" native descents. An example of the contrary is the marketing ad of Coca Cola[6] (see Dutch Ethno-Marketing.nl platform, René Romer/TransCity). Obvious topics for marketing communication and messages are the holy days of immigrants, expats and refugees, and inhabitants of local origin (Ramadan, Christmas, Holi, Manasa Puja, and Yom Kippur), a variety of services and goods like scarves, cupping, Turkish and Moroccan bread, etc., (Kirgiz et al. 2018) and a variety of cultural norms and values. Less obvious are subjects like politics, collectivism, and individualism and ways of living together, in single, nuclear, or extended families. A visible consequence of the latter subject can be seen in smart cities during the summer period. Large and smart cities in Western counties are often empty in the summer and Ramadan since immigrants are going to their motherland to visit family and share rituals with them. If marketing communication and messages dedicate itself to acknowledgement of this large variety of

Characteristics of Cultural Bias
1. Exclusion and discrimination
2. Microaggression
3. Psychoses
4. Radicalisation
5. Bad study results (school dropout)

What if Cultural Bias is eliminated
1. More creativity and innovation power
2. More resilience
3. More belonging
4. Fit for the labour market

Fig. 13.6 Characteristics of cultural bias and what if cultural bias is eliminated

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[6] http://www.etnomarketing.nl/2018/06/07/waarom-durft-coca-cola-nederland-deze-prachtige-ramadan-commercial-niet-in-ons-land-in-te-zetten/

human beings and their behavior in large and smart cities, inhabitants might feel that they belong to the large and smart city. If used in this way, marketing is an instrument that ensures that polarization and exclusion of inhabitants of large and smart cities does not take place. Unfortunately, marketing is misused in the political debate. In the political debate in the United States and Europe large groups of people are alienated from each other and are set against each other (Buruma 2017). Marketing should not lend itself to that because the consequences are less resilience, creativity and innovation, less belonging, and not fit for the labor market.

13.5   Smart Cities and All-Inclusive Multiculturalism

Last but not least all-inclusive multiculturalism at the workplace in smart cities and the consequences for marketing need to be discussed as well. Companies and institutions have their own concepts of equipment to function in superdiverse smart cities. We will elaborate on these concepts and suggest how these concepts might be realized in practice. As a second step, the consequences of all-inclusive multiculturalism for marketing in smart cities are highlighted.

In short, how is superdiversity in smart cities organized in companies and institutions? What are the operational search directions and what are the conditions? Here we will elaborate on these themes. Three clarifying concepts are covered: (a) color-blind, (b) colorful, and (c) all-inclusive multiculturalism.

The struggle between color-blind and colorful (multiculturalism in the United States of America (Stevens et al. 2008)) takes place on the playing field of the second dimension of superdiversity, the less visible part ((Fenley and Daele 2014), see Fig. 13.3). Color-blind is a synonym for assimilation (adapt to the dominant culture). Color-blind is rooted in individual merits (meritocracy) and equality. The color-blind approach is based on the assumption that all people are treated equally. Feeling excluded is the price that immigrants, expats, and refugees are paying for a color-blind or color-neutral approach (Stevens et al. 2008). That certainly happens if exclusion and discrimination on top of the aforementioned approach are denied or denatured. There are even indications that racism becomes easier to commit if there is color-blindness. However, people of native descent experience color-blind as more inclusive for their own group (Fig. 13.7).

The colorful or multicultural approach to a superdiverse society assumes that "all cultures are equal and must be treated equally and that the cultural norms of one culture are not (morally) higher than those of the other." The implication of this view is in practice extra attention for immigrants, expats and refugees. Examples are diversity programs of state and municipal governments, institutions, and companies, such as addressing cultural disadvantages, intercultural care for the elderly, promoting inter- and cross-cultural awareness, and recruiting students from the expat population (University of Amsterdam). Diversity programs are said to be exclusive to people of native descent (Stevens et al. 2008: 121) because they are a break on the unity of the native population. This opinion is illustrated in the follow-

Fig. 13.7 "Wrong" exclusive concepts and characteristics based on Stevens et al. (2008)

ing statement: "multiculturalism originated in response to the central position that the United States and Europe occupy in our social system (ethnocentrism). At what point does centrism turn into ethnocentrism? The word multiculturalism mainly refers to non-western, non-white cultures instead of all cultures. When does this obsession with differences begin to threaten the bridging American nationality?" "People of native descent" job applicants find companies that are positive about immigrants, expats and refugees less attractive than companies that do not make that distinction. This result may be generally applicable, including to neighborhoods and municipalities.

13.5.1 Solution: All-Inclusive Multiculturalism

Color-blind and multiculturalism each exclude a party, namely immigrants, expats and refugees on the one hand and the people of native descent on the other hand. Exclusion here only relates to the first dimension of superdiversity (see Fig. 13.3), namely that of ethnic origin. Since superdiversity increases in large and smart cities one might expect a decrease of color-blindness. Due to the increase of the number of immigrants, expats, and refugees in large smart cities, being equal is not only determined by the formerly dominant group of native descent but also by immigrants, expats, and refugees. In short, on the basis of numbers of people alone, a legitimate basis of color-blind and multiculturalism has disappeared. The adage: Si vis pacem para castrum (If you want peace, prepare yourself for war) has been taken down (Fig. 13.8).
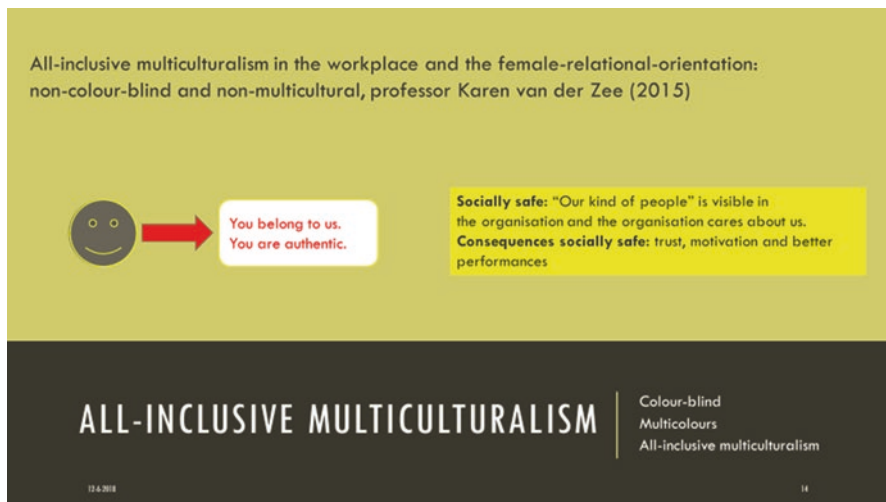
Fig. 13.8 All-inclusive multiculturalism and consequences based on concepts of van der Zee (2015)

These references have laid the foundation for a new adage "all-inclusive multiculturalism" (van der Zee 2015) in businesses and institutions. The following two frames indicate what this concept means in practice. First of all, organization and team indicate that each member of the team belongs to it and furthermore that the organization sees her/him as authentic. Secondly the concept of Social Safe is redefined. The new concept is Our Kind of People (OKP) is available and visible in the organization. Customers/patients/students are now able to identify with the organisation and its services. The additional connotation is that the organization cares about each of us. This leads to trust, motivation, and better performance.

13.5.2 All-Inclusive Multiculturalism and Marketing

What is the implication of all-inclusive multiculturalism for marketing is the remaining question in this section about smart cities? At least we can distil two messages from the above. Firstly, that marketing, if they are engaged in businesses and institutions in large and smart cities, their subcontractors, clients, patients, and students, should communicate messages from which these parties can conclude that they belong to the organization, regardless of their background. Secondly, that people who are involved in any role in these companies and institutions in these large and smart cities are told that they are authentic. These marketing messages will create a feeling of trust, motivation, and better performances. Thirdly, marketing should try not to fall into the trap of color-blind and multicultural/multicolor. Through these pitfalls different groups of people in these large and smart cities are excluded.

Fourth, marketing can provide information that shows that Our Kind of People are workers, subcontractors, clients, patients, and students of businesses and institutions. Social safety increases if marketing could portray in organizations and businesses little groups of 7–12 persons with a similar background. This is called the checkerboard model (Van Soomeren and Steinmetz 2015). Social Safety increases as a result of the fact that our kind of people are represented in the organization and that there is a little group apart from all the other little groups with whom everyone can work together.

13.6 Discussion

This contribution pays attention to the twin-orientation in smart and large cities, namely the female-relational-orientation and the male-competition-orientation. What is our motive to call this the twin-orientation? Our motive is in the first place, that the internet of things which we call the male-competition-orientation exists by grace of human activities and contacts, the so-called female-relational-orientation. At this stage we should keep in mind that humans have fluid and structural activities and contacts in smart and large cities (Blokland 2017). Blokland (2017) calls this "cement" between contacts, activities and humans in a smart and large city "culture." Blokland (2017) definition of culture is: "I drew on a concept of culture as shared symbolic practices, although the meanings we attribute to symbols don't have to be the same for all of us with four types of social ties which varies on an axis of high versus low rationality (Weberian) and an axis of instrumentality versus sociability." Examples of fluid contacts can be found in public transport, a park, a Mosque and as a tourist travelling in a smart city. Structural contacts can be found between children, singles, and single household with or without children, nuclear or extended family, elderly in elderly homes or members of a community, like a community center. Those fluid and structural contacts steer the Internet of the Things. We assume that social contacts are a "veil" of desired and unwanted activities between individuals and groups of people in a smart city. Possible activities are social media contacts, being at home or on the street, shopping, eating, studying, working, activities with other youngsters, singles, nuclear or extended family, friends, going out, etc.

In this contribution about smart cities and marketing we elaborate further on the consequences and meaning of superdiversity, preventing cultural bias and promoting all-inclusive multiculturalism in institution and businesses. Our motive to present this approach is that it is our opinion that these concepts are a second "veil" over human fluid and structural activities and contacts in smart and large cities. Superdiversity is at odds with the "white" power structure in large and smart cities. Fortunately there are now exceptions to this "white" dominance. London has an Indian Mayor, Sadiq Khan and Rotterdam has a Moroccan Mayor, Ahmed Aboutaleb. France is in Europe a modest exception. Of the more than 36,000 municipalities, a dozen have a mayor with an immigration background. Most of them are villages of

a few hundred souls. The most important of this group is the left-wing politician Eddy Aït, with Berbers as parents, openly homosexual, and since May mayor of the Paris suburb Yvelines-sous-Poissy, with 14,000 souls (NRC, 18 December 2008[7]). According to Crul (2015) immigrants are the actual residents of large and smart cities and residents of native descent are in large and smart cities for work and study. As soon as they start a family they leave the city. Cultural bias might be explicit or implicit and is often imposed by the "white" power structure in large and smart (western) cities. Cultural bias is imposing others' own culture and norms and values, as we often see in the political discourse of different EU countries (Holder et al. 2015). This political discourse is experienced by immigrants, refugees and expats as micro-aggression, exclusion and bullying. A result might be a phenomenon that is described as short-term psychoses. The consequence is that innovative power evaporates in large and smart cities. Finally, we also pay attention to the last element of the "veil" over institutions and businesses all-inclusive multiculturalism. It is of utmost importance that companies and institutions in smart cities prevent color-blindness and multiculturalism/colorful. Both urban practices exclude a group. Color-blindness excludes immigrants, refugees and expats and multiculturalism excludes people of native descent. The golden key is the concept "all-inclusive multiculturalism." The urban practice of this concept is showing in word and deed that workers, clients, patients, students and contractors belong to the organization and be considered as authentic. This leads to trust, motivation and better performance of all parties.

Working with these two veils (Veil 1: activities, fluid and structural contacts between individuals and groups of people present in a smart city; Veil 2: superdiversity, prevention of cultural bias and all-inclusive multiculturalism as steering mechanism behind social contacts of humans in a smart city, private, public and work but also social media) provided the opportunity to elaborate on rules and vignettes of marketing. We introduce these rules in order to prevent risks to happen, like a (local) mismatch between services and products, isolation and polarization between groups of residents in a large and smart city, and designing and planning only for the privileged.

In order to design marketing messages, research is needed. We advocate in this chapter to use algorithms through machine-learning, like logistic regression with in- and output simulation. Below is a diagram that shows what we mean.

Figure 13.9 shows the structure of a possible algorithm that might help to construct the marketing messages based on the earlier-mentioned vignettes. In this scheme we distinguish between independent, dependent variables, and covariates. With the independent variables and covariates we will estimate superdiversity, prevention of cultural bias, and all-inclusive multiculturalism. The focus is a neighborhood in a large and smart city. We would like to work with an algorithm that is called logistic regression in combination with a simulation of input-output data.

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[7] https://www.nrc.nl/nieuws/2008/12/18/allochtone-burgemeesters-dun-gezaaid-in-europa-11656485-a365224
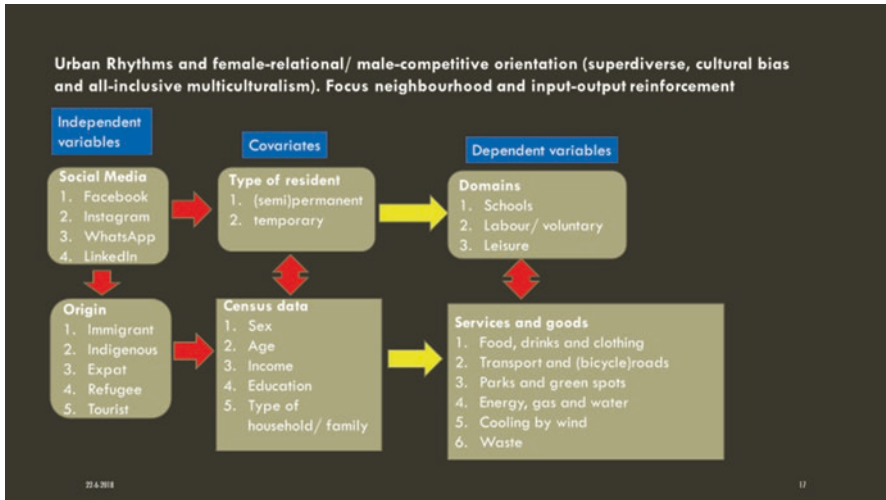
Fig. 13.9 Algorithm and input-output reinforcement (based on literature)

13.7   Conclusions and Vignettes

In this section all conclusions about the female-relational-orientation and the consequences for marketing in large and smart cities are bundled. Secondly we propose marketing vignettes that fit large and smart cities, the female-relational-orientation and the male-competition-orientation in these smart cities. According to Wikipedia[8] a vignette can refer to (the image of) a logo, a small image, a toll sticker and a very short story of several hundred words. For our vignettes we will combine these technics.

The conclusions that relate to superdiversity and marketing are:

1. Differentiate between permanent inhabitants (immigrants, and their (grand) children), temporary inhabitants of native descent, expats, refugees and tourists (single, couples, groups of youngsters and families).
2. Differentiate between face-to-face contacts (from rare too often), members of a community who share the same religion or passion and solely social media contacts.
3. Distinguish layers in large and smart cities like neighborhood, city, small villages and town around large and smart cities and globalization.
4. Distinguish classical social systems like single household (with or without children), nuclear or extended family, and tribe.
5. Distinguish females-males, old and young people, and people with or without a disability.

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[8] https://nl.wikipedia.org/wiki/Vignet

The conclusions that relate to cultural bias and marketing are:

1. Don't interpret and judge phenomena related to marketing communication and messages by standards inherent to one's own culture (white or non-white).
2. Prevent stereotypes and differential treatment.
3. Prevent microaggression, discrimination, and exclusion in marketing communication and messages.
4. Prevent cultural bias in marketing communication about education, labor market, leisure time, and living in large and smart cities.

The conclusions that relate to all-inclusive multiculturalism in businesses and institutions and marketing are:

1. Prevent that marketing communication is color-blind and/or colorful.
2. Promote all-inclusive multiculturalism in marketing.
3. Apply in marketing for businesses and institutions the concept of "small" available groups of Our Kind of People in the organization. The availability of Our Kind of People generates the feeling of being at home.
4. Apply in marketing for businesses and institutions the concept that worker, clients, patients, students, and subcontractors belong to the organization and are authentic. This increases the feeling of social safety.
5. Develop a toolkit for marketing in businesses and institution that covers marketing of all activities of the organization.

In this section we propose several vignettes that meet the requirements of super-diverse, anti-cultural bias, and all-inclusive multiculturalism for institutions and businesses in large and smart cities.

In the first vignette we like to pay attention to smart cities and marketing, in particular the female-relational and male-competition-orientation. Apart from these orientations we will use in all vignettes as an example services and products of a supermarket.

13.7.1   Super (Our Example for Producing Vignettes)

The smart city "New World" has a supermarket chain "Super" all over the city. "New World" has almost two million residents (immigrants, refugees, expats, and residents of native descent) and 100,000 illegals, all from 250 different countries. "Super" has in every neighborhood of the smart city "New World" an establishment, almost 1474 establishments (a neighborhood has 1400–1450 inhabitants). The supermarket has an inclusive marketing team of females, males (50–50%), people of the relevant four largest and four smallest communities in the smart city SMART, and people of three age groups (40% young, 20% middle, and 40% old). Ten to 15% of the members of this marketing team have a disability (one of them is an Olympic athlete). For "New World" and "Super" we will develop several marketing vignettes.

Fig. 13.10 Vignette smart cities and marketing (Source of pictures Wikipedia)

Fig. 13.11 Vignette superdiverse, sustainable food and marketing (Source of pictures Wikipedia)

The first vignette is aimed at the female-relational-orientation and the male-competition-orientation (Figs. 13.10 and 13.11).

The second vignette aims marketing for sustainable food in a superdiverse environment.

"Super" directs its marketing to the hyperdiverse neighborhood "KitchenGarden" in the smart city "New World" with marketing messages for sustainable food. This neighborhood is relatively poor. Residents did eat mainly fried meat and potatoes and virtually no vegetables and fruit. "Super" knows this since it collects data through buying and selling the data of its clients, telephone data (to determine who

Fig. 13.12 Smart city and prevention of cultural bias. (Source of pictures Wikipedia)

the clients are), and interviews. For this purpose they developed a machine-learning-algorithm (logistic regression) that simulates output sustainable food data which then feeds the algorithm with the true data.

The residents, mainly young and old, are living in extended families and ethnic communities. They support each other. One of the initiatives of the elderly is the development of a vegetable and fruit garden street where vegetables and fruit are grown. "Super" therefore stimulates her marketing of sustainable food, seeds, and soil for vegetables, fruit, potatoes, and rice and also techniques to be able to build up a winter supply. "Super" did engage for her marketing older and younger female and male residents from a number of extended families. They evaluate together the eating pattern of the neighborhood residents, partly based on visualization of the algorithm data (Fig. 13.12).

"Super" wants to transport the concept of the vegetable garden street to other neighborhoods in the smart city "New World." "Super" would like to try this idea in the neighborhood "Mix-To-The-Max." Like in the neighborhood "KitchenGarden" "Super" rolled out the first steps. First an analysis was done of the neighborhood characteristics in combination with client data (mobile and buying services and products) in combination with an algorithm. In this neighborhood "Mix-To-The-Max" 40% is poor (new immigrants and refugees) and 60% had a more than average good income (3–4 generation immigrants and people of native descent). The latter outcome (a good income) was caused by gentrification. Through interviews "Super" found that in this neighborhood animosity has arisen between rich and poor. The rich blamed the poor for the presence of rats and the poor blamed the rich for taking over all facilities. They said that the "Super" only cares about the rich and that "Super" is only out to make money. "Super" installed a neighborhood committee to find out how the animosity between both groups can be addressed. The committee

Fig. 13.13 Smart city and all-inclusive multiculturalism. (Source of pictures Wikipedia)

came with three solutions. Solution one was "Super" was divided in two parts, one for the rich and one for the poor. In the part for the poor "Super" copied the concept of the "vegetable garden street" with the intention to increase awareness about consuming sustainable food. Solution 2 was the rich are providing coaching services for educating children of the poor and adult who like to find a job. Solution 3 was that every rich person/family adopted one or two poor individuals or families, and also eats regularly with each other. Solution 4 was making use of the local ethnic communities to realize the goals of pleasant and happily living together, by means of the solutions that have been devised by the committee. The committee was successful since their work was not culturally biased, since they cared about the poor and rich and the newcomers and the established groups in the neighborhood (Fig. 13.13).

The supermarket "Super" with her inclusive marketing team of females, males (50–50%), people of the relevant four largest and four smallest communities in the smart city SMART, people of three age groups (40% young, 20% middle and 40% old), and people with a disability (10–15%; one of them is an Olympic athlete) discovered that they were in practice either working color-blind (behaving as if everyone has the right to equal treatment. Immigrants, refugees, and expats experience this approach as discriminative) or multicultural/colorful (behaving as if immigrants have more rights than resident of native descent. Residents of native descent experience this approach as against them). Examples of these defects are a victim-oriented approach (only taking care of the poor and the newcomers = colorful) and ignoring the effects of gentrification (many of poor extended families could no longer pay the rent after their house was renovated and had to move to a cheaper neighborhood). "Super" and her marketing team were thinking about these results again. They found that they violated several all-inclusive multiculturalism rules. The most important one was that the staff of the "Super" branch did not mirror local residents.

The second violation was that this marketing team did not develop rules of thumb to keep pace with all-inclusive multiculturalism. The outcome was changing HR department and policy and also developing an all-inclusive multiculturalism toolkit for "Super."

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Chapter 14
Examining the Underlying Attitudinal Components Driving Technology Adoption, Adaptation Behaviour and Outcome in Entirety

Syed S. Muhammad, Bidit Dey, Sharifah Alwi, and Mujahid Mohiuddin Babu

14.1 Introduction

The ever-increasing use of and interaction with technology has intensified researchers' and practitioners' interest in technology adoption and adaptation behaviour (Muhammad et al. 2018). Use and adoption of technology has grown exponentially and has become an integral part of individuals' lives. The exponential growth of mobile telephony (Sharma 2017), cloud computing, 4G and 5G networks have created many more technological touchpoints. As a result, individuals are found to be connected to technology (smartphones, tablets, smartwatches, Cortana, Siri and Alexa) 24/7.

However, new technology creates various expected and unexpected outcomes in users' environment. They interpret and assess these outcomes in a number of ways by inducing different types of behavioural responses. Coping Model of User Adaptation (CMUA) describes that new technology or modification of the existing technology can bring about changes that are perceived as novel by users and cause disruption in their environment (Beaudry and Pinsonneault 2005; Louis and Sutton 1991; Lyytinen and Rose 2003). The acts that users perform to cope with such outcome of novelty and disruption etc. are called adaptation behaviour. Such adaptation behavioural responses range from restoring emotional stability to that of

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resisting or abandoning technology completely (Beaudry and Pinsonneault 2005). Similar stance was taken by Morris and Venkatesh (2010) and Venkatesh et al. (2010) that individuals' resistance to and acceptance of new technology or change in the existing technology has been a big challenge. Users perceive a number of changes in their environment around technology and experience many expected and/or unexpected outcomes of such technological disruptions. Based on such technological disruptions, individuals undertake different adaptation behaviours to cope with situations (Beaudry and Pinsonneault 2005; Fugate et al. 2008). Such situations or experiences, as described by Bala and Venkatesh (2016), result in negative consequences which may lead from underutilisation to complete abandoning of technology. Therefore, it is important to examine users' adoption and adaptation behavior in its entirety along with their outcome.

It is not known as what factors determine such adoption and adaptation behaviour and their outcome in its entirety especially in the current context of technology-related opportunities and users' privacy and security concerns. Researchers, academics and practitioners alike have not addressed this research gap as to how users react to technological changes and how their adoption and adaptation behaviour impacts on the consequences of such behaviour. Similarly, limited attention has been given to the interaction between antecedents of technology adoption and adaptation behaviour.

Although users' engagement with technology has received significant research attention (Al-Jabri et al. 2015; Charlesworth 2014; Hajli 2014; Hsu and Wu 2011; Akar and Topçu 2011; Hau and Kim 2010), there is paucity of research that identifies and analyses the factors that influence individuals' technological adoption, adaptation behaviour and outcome. Moreover, individuals' attitude was not given the due consideration in technology adoption. It is argued that technology adoption models need to re-introduce attitude into technology adoption models because attitude is the perceptions and dispositions held by individuals regarding the technology and the context (Dwivedi et al. 2017a, b).

Furthermore, we feel attitude is more relevant in this dynamic world of digitalisation and mobile applications, which have provided technology customers an entirely different world of technological innovation and technological devices (Agarwal et al. 2017). The advent of social media and the exponential growth in mobile telephony, cloud computing, 4G and 5G networks have created many more technological touchpoints (Sharma 2017). These ubiquitous technological touchpoints have enhanced connectivity and flexibility for customers (Chhonker et al. 2017) to adopt technology and be connected to technological devices 24/7. As a result, customers live virtually on these technological platforms using multiple devices such as tablets, smart phones including smart devices like Alexa, Siri and Google Home leaving their digital traces for marketers. Such digital footprints are not just identities but also memories, moments and behaviour. Social media providers that collect and crawl these digital footprints can determine how and why customers behave and purchase on digital platforms (Fish 2009). Therefore, technology adoption and adaptation behaviour help marketers analyse customers' sentiments and shared contents by using advanced analytics to gain deeper insight into their

behaviour and develop their profiles (Charlesworth 2014; Dwork and Mulligan 2013). Hence, further investigation is needed in this context to contribute to technological adoption and adaptation scholarship. This chapter addresses this research gap by reflecting on the existing literature and developing a theoretical understanding of the factors that determine individuals' adoption and adaptation behaviour and their outcomes.

Nonetheless, technology adoption and adaptation have been researched by previous studies. However, technology adoption has been researched more extensively (Davis et al. 1989; Hsu and Wu 2011; Lin and Anol 2008; Lu et al. 2009a, b; Venkatesh et al. 2003, 2012) than technology adaptation behaviour especially in the context of negotiating with new technological disruptions and users' perceptions of the consequences of such behaviour as to how they change their beliefs, attitude, knowledge and skills. Prior scholarly works focused mainly on adoption, antecedents and use of technology. They provided a landscape of theoretical frameworks on the adoption of technology (Hsu and Wu 2011; Lin and Anol 2008; Lu et al. 2009a, b; Venkatesh et al. 2012), for instance, Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), Technology Acceptance Model (TAM), Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), Decomposed Theory of Planned Behaviour (DTPB), Motivation Model (MM), Model of PC Utilisation (MPCU), Social Cognitive Theory (SCT), Innovation and Diffusion Theory (IDT) and the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT and UTAUT2) are widely cited theories and frameworks for assessing individuals' adoption of technology.

TRA identified attitude and subjective norm as determinants of technology adoption. Attitude was identified as an individual's positive or negative feelings towards certain behaviour, subjective norm as an individual's perception of how others think an individual should use technology (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975). Similarly, TAM further developed the adoption of technology by identifying the functional attributes of perceived usefulness (enhance job performance), ease of use (free of effort) and subjective norms identical as in TRA (Davis 1989). TPB, on the other hand, added a new cognitive construct of perceived behaviour control (individual's self-evaluation of the inner capabilities and how easy or difficult one feels on the use of technology) to attitude and subjective norm constructs of TRA (Ajzen 1991). In addition to the above factors, MPCU identified constructs of job fit (enhance job performance), complexity (innovation difficult to use), affect (feeling of joy) towards acceptance and outcome that would pay off in the future (Thompson et al. 1991). Similar position was adopted by Davis et al. (1992), who theorised the Motivation Model and postulated extrinsic (valued outcome) and intrinsic motivations as an explanation of adoption behaviour. In addition, SCT proposed personal outcome expectation (self-esteem), anxiety (emotional reactions while using technology), self-efficacy (ability to accomplish certain task) and affect as liking certain behaviour (Compeau and Higgins 1995). Whereas IDT propounded relative advantage, ease of use, image, compatibility, voluntariness and result demonstrability. As a result, Venkatesh et al. (2003) unified the commonalities amongst the above eight models in their UTAUT model and combined the constructs having common themes into four constructs of performance expectancy, effort expectancy, social influence

and facilitating conditions as the key determinants of adoption of technology. They subsequently added more constructs in the form of habit, price and hedonic motivation in consumer context and proposed UTAUT2 (Venkatesh et al. 2012). Although UTAUT was initially developed to explain employees' adoption of technology in organisational contexts (Venkatesh et al. 2003), it was later extended into consumer technologies and finally into a Multi-Level Framework for cross-context theorising (Venkatesh et al. 2016).

The above theoretical landscape highlights the key antecedents of technological adoption but little focus is given to individual's adoption, adaptation behaviour and outcome of such behaviour in entirety. Adaptation behaviours are the acts that users undertake to cope with the perceived and emotional consequences/outcome of the technological event(s). Adaptation acts are performed by individuals in response to the change and disruptive event in their environment.

CMUA posits that an individual employs cognitive appraisal and adaptation behaviour when a user encounters a change in his/her environment or faces a stressful event (Beaudry and Pinsonneault 2005). Similarly, Bala and Venkatesh (2016) argue that individuals employ two processes when they face technological disruptions. First is the cognitive appraisal of the situation and second is the adaptation behaviour which represents the cognitive and behavioural efforts to cope with the technological disruption. Bala and Venkatesh base their arguments on the seminal literature of Beaudry and Pinsonneault (2005) that an individual copes with the change of technology through two sub-processes. Firstly, they evaluate the outcome of the event for personal relevance (primary appraisal). If it is positive and has benefits, they consider it as an opportunity or if it is negative and has harmful effects, they consider it as a threat based on personal well-being (Folkman et al. 1986; Major et al. 1998). In addition to the primary appraisal, individuals also evaluate the coping options (secondary appraisal) available to them. Coping options denote how much control or resources users have to deal with the event. Such interactions of both primary and secondary appraisals explain adaptation behaviour (Bala and Venkatesh 2016).

Adaptation behaviours are different actions (coping efforts) an individual performs to deal with the situation which is a combination of cognitive and behavioural efforts categorised as either problem focused (managing the disruptive event, dealing with the specific issue e.g. alleviating, altering the environmental issues, barriers and resources or changing oneself by developing new set of behaviours such as learning new skills or procedures and finding new channels of gratification) (Lazarus and Folkman 1984) or emotion focused (changing individual perception rather than the event e.g. regulating personal emotions and regulating personal distress or maintain a sense of stability minimising the consequences of threat; maintaining hope, positive comparison, passive acceptance, avoidance, denial and seeking emotional support). The specific combination of problem and emotions focused depends on individual's appraisal of the situation. They choose the particular coping strategy that has a major chance of success. Also, emotion focused mainly happens where an individual feels to have limited control on the situation while problem focused happens when one feels in control. Bala and Venkatesh (2016) argue that individuals

adapt problem focused and emotion focused coping strategies when they face technological disruptions make similar argument. The former is used when an individual directly engages with the situation to solve the problem at source, whereas the latter is used when they manage emotional distress. In addition, they suggest four technology adaption behaviours. First is about maximizing personal benefits by taking full advantage of the opportunities offered by a technology. Second is about benefit satisficing which means taking limited advantages offered by a technology. Third is about disturbance handling that denotes to minimising perceived negative consequences of technology and restoring personal emotional stability. Fourth is about self-preservation and restoring personal emotional stability with no impact on individuals' performance of a technology.

Hence, it can be argued that adoption literature has made strong contribution to IS scholarship over the years. Models such as TRA and TPB focused on users' attitude to determine users' adoption of technology (Ajzen 1991; Davis 1989; Davis et al. 1989; Fishbein and Ajzen 1975), whereas Venkatesh et al. (2003) argued that the impact of attitude on technology acceptance is spurious. In addition, TAM, UTAUT and UTAUT2 analyse technology adoption predictors at the micro and individual level, others such as IDT look into the diffusion of technology at the macro level. The other classic models such as TTF analyse technology use against specific task and job-related issues. Subsequent models and concepts emanating from these classic frameworks mostly deal with the factors that determine technology adoption. While some literature redefines some of the factors, others have introduced fresh new components to enrich and advance the understanding such as UTAUT2 model for consumer technologies by Venkatesh et al. (2012) and their subsequent Multi-Level Framework for cross-context theorising (Venkatesh et al. 2016). Nonetheless, these scholarly works predominantly based on quantitative modelling have been criticised by a different stream of literature that deals with a parallel notion. Over the years, the likes of Orlikowski, De Sanctis and Poole, and Beaudry and Pinsonneault have worked on how technology is further applied, extended and appropriated. It essentially raises questions on whether or not technology adoption literature should be confined only with technology adoption and determining factors. Simultaneously, a significant research stream within IS has developed in the last two decades that seeks to assess the impact of technology use. As such, adoption is not an end in itself and it needs to be studied as a component of the entirety of adoption, use, adaptation and outcome study. This study aims to develop a broader conceptual framework by examining the above propositions in the context of Coping Model of User Adaptation by examining the relationship between the antecedents (cognitive and affective) of adoption and adaptation behaviour and their outcomes.

The current theoretical models take into account factors that influence users' acceptance and use of technology but they do not fully capture the joint attitudinal components of cognitive and emotional influence on both technology adoption and adaptation behaviour. As Alwi and Kitchen (2014) suggest attitude is not only about cognitive but also affective evaluation of behavioural responses. As such, technology adoption is not an end in itself and it needs to be studied as a component of the

entirety that adoption, adaptation behaviour and their outcome when new technology or change in the existing technology is introduced. Therefore, the existing frameworks do not fully capture the dynamics and kinetics of technology adoption, adaptation and their outcome. In addition, they do not address the interaction between the adoption and adaptation behavioural antecedents as how such antecedents influence the outcomes of adaptation behaviour. They provide limited scope for generalisation.

In technology adoption literature, attitude has received most attention as psychologists have researched it for decades. It is defined as an overall judgement of an object (Fazio 1986) but Thurstone and Chave (1929) highlighted it as an evaluative or affective response to the attitude object. Zajonc and Markus (1982) defined attitude as two component structure of cognition and affect but the most popular definition of attitude in consumer psychology is proposed to consist of affective, cognition and connation (behaviour), the three responses to an object (Chiu 2002). Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) suggested that actions are controlled by intentions, which are determined by attitude towards behaviour that is personal positive or negative evaluation of the performing behaviour. Similarly, Chiu (2002) argues that affect-based components of attitude consist of emotions and feelings, whereas the cognition-based components include beliefs, judgements, or thoughts associated with an object. Attitude towards behaviour can be determined by salient beliefs and/or affect about the behaviour, each belief or affect links the behaviour with some valued outcome.

Moreover, the hierarchical causality of cognitive and affective aspects of attitude have been discussed immensely in the previous studies and their interaction had not been resolved (Lazarus 1982) such that several sequences are possible that emotions may precede cognition or vice a versa or they may have a dual process. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) argued that affective components are based upon cognition. Similarly, previous studies concluded that emotional components germinate from cognitive elements (Da Silva and Syed Alwi 2008; Franzen and Bouwman 2001), which means that cognitive process precedes the emotional components, leading affective response. Whereas Zajonc (1980) propounded a strong counter argument that affect has primacy in the formation of certain preferences, that is, affect precedes cognition and at times functions autonomously.

Similar to this explanation, the determinants of technology adoption propounded by the previous models (TRA, TPB, TAM, UTAUT, UTAUT2 and Multi-level framework etc.) neither explicate the joint attitudinal components (cognitive and affective) leading to adoption and adaptation behaviour nor determine the hierarchical causality of cognitive and affective aspects of attitude. According to Alwi and Kitchen (2014) attitude is not only about cognitive but also affective and behavioural responses. Moreover, recently researchers (Dwivedi et al. 2017a) have not only re-introduced attitude into technology acceptance models but also highlighted the role attitude in technology acceptance and adoption (Dwivedi et al. 2017b; Rana et al. 2017, 2016). Dwivedi et al. (2017a) argue that it is important for technology acceptance and adoption models to reconsider the role of attitude in technology adoption. They posit, even though the four exogenous constructs of UTAUT are

based on technological (performance and effort expectancy) and contextual attributes (social influence and facilitating conditions), in effect they underline the individuals' perceptions of a technological application within a given context. The key element missing from UTAUT is the individual characteristics, user dispositions, such as attitude explaining the adoption behaviour. Nevertheless, adoption and adaptation of technology not only denote the cognitive or functional attitudinal attributes but also related to emotional, symbolic, affective and hedonic aspects such as fun, enjoyment and self-enhancement (Diffley et al. 2011; Park and Kim 2014). Henceforth, it can be argued that prior models have not paid enough attention to such attitudinal components with partial explanation of users' attitude and do not fully capture the impact of joint attitudinal components. Moreover, so far there has been little discussion around the negative attitudinal components around perceived threat, privacy and security risks and trust on technology adoption and adaptation behaviour. Such factors as this research aims to examine can influence users' adoption and adaptation behaviour of technology (Boyd 2008; Chew et al. 2008; Lee et al. 2013). It is, therefore, vital to consider both cognitive and affective attitudinal components for their joint impact on users' adoption and adaptation of technology and focus on the key outcome of such adaptation behaviour.

Looking at new technology attraction for users, it is based on both functional aspects related to tangible benefits such as usefulness, ease of use and convenience etc. whereas emotional aspects are manifest in their feelings of attitude towards technology (Chiang 2013; Hajli 2014; Zhang et al. 2014). Technology adoption and adaptation scholars such as Venkatesh, Bala, Beaudry and Pinsonneault have recognised the cognitive appraisal but did not touch on the emotional components. Hence, it can be argued that both cognitive and emotional attributes jointly determine adoption and adaptation behaviour and an individual assesses the outcome of technological disruption jointly rather than merely cognitive appraisal. The extant literature (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980; Al-Gahtani et al. 2007; Bhattacherjee 2001; Compeau and Higgins 1995; Davis et al. 1989; Lin and Anol 2008; Moore and Benbasat 1991; Muhammad et al. 2018; Plouffe et al. 2001; Thompson et al. 1991) suggested several determinants on technology adoption hinging around the key social, personal and technological factors but little on joint attitudinal components. Looking to this line of argument, prior models have indistinctively posited the key antecedents (attitudinal components). Therefore, they provide limited expositions of users' joint attitudinal components of adoption, adaptation behaviour and outcome. Even Venkatesh et al. (2016) in their revised multi-level framework acknowledge that UTAUT has reached its practical limitations and research. The revised framework was formulated based on a comprehensive literature review of UTAUT from 2003 to 2014 to understand the developments on the use and adoption of technology. They identified key limitations of technology acceptance and adoption of UTAUT with little focus on adaptation behaviour but with focus on technology feature outcome studies (Lu et al. 2009a, b; Venkatesh et al. 2008, 2012, 2016). Moreover, they posited that there was a lack of paradigm shifting research in technology adoption (Venkatesh et al. 2016).

This research is in concordance with the view that a paradigm shifting research is needed to study technology adoption, adaptation behaviour and outcome. The paradigm shifting research is vital because it is evident from the above discussion that users (consumers, citizens, employees), organisations, including contexts (online buying, posting, blogging etc.), and tasks (buying, sharing, filing tax return) all hinge on user's attitude towards adoption and adaptation behaviour of technology depending on the joint cognitive and emotional dispositions towards new technological disruption.

Therefore, in this chapter we aim to address this gap in the literature and develop a model of technology adoption and adaptation behaviour based on prior technology adoption models (UTAUT, TAM, TPB etc.) and CMUA to identify attitudinal antecedents and outcomes of such behaviours. It is to focus on the recursive interactions amongst technology adoption, adaptation behaviours of an individual and the outcomes of such behaviour (Bala and Venkatesh 2016; Nan 2011). It provides insight into two distinct adaptation behaviours. The first is about individuals' actions to appropriate technological features and adapt technological behaviour (explore and exploit technological benefits, explore to revert or avoid technology completely). The second is about recursive actions that include changes in contexts such as control mechanisms. Individuals undertake several adoption and post-adoption behaviour to embrace different adaptation strategies to cope with the new technology or change in an existing technology.

14.2   Conceptualising Adoption and Adaptation Behaviour

From the above scholarly works, several technology adoption factors determine users' acceptance and reluctance to adopt or adapt technology. There are not just cognitive but also affective (emotional) attitudinal components that influence their adoption and adaptation behaviour. Psychologists have discussed attitude for decades and it has received much attention in consumer behaviour research (Chiu 2002). Attitude is defined as a mental state of readiness exerting influence upon an individual's response to an object and contains cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to an object or stimuli. Cognitive is what an individual knows about an object, affective refers to feelings or emotions and conative is how the individual is likely to act on his/her knowledge and feelings (Chiu 2002; Breckler 1984; Edwards 1990).

To analyse a user's attitude towards technology and their fear of privacy and security and feeling of threat about technology adaptation behaviour, it is vital to throw some light on attitude in technology adoption and adaptation behaviour. Prior studies suggest that attitude is linked to an individual's intention, as intention is assumed to accurately capture the motives that determine actual behaviour (Armitage and Conner 2000; Gupta and Pirsch 2006). Furthermore, it is also argued that behaviour is well explained by intention, attitudes and normative beliefs, whereas

numerous studies have used cognitive and affective attitudinal components to determine individuals' attitude towards an object or entity (e.g., Armitage and Conner 2000; Gupta and Pirsch 2006; Lwin et al. 2002; Pike and Ryan 2004).

As such, attitude is formed on the basis of cognitive, affective and behavioural components with numerous conceptualisations of attitudes (Chiu 2002; Eagly and Chaiken 1993; Ford and Smith 1987; Lazarus 1982; Rosenberg and Hovland 1960). Eagly and Chaiken (1993) argue that a cognitive component exists when an individual processes information about the attitude object (technology), which forms into beliefs. Similarly, Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) highlighted that attitudes are formed of beliefs that get accumulated during an individuals' lifetime. Due to which an individual will perceive the outcome of his/her action either positive or negative based on his/her beliefs. It means if an individual has a positive belief about the outcome of behaviour, they will have a positive attitude about the behaviour and vice a versa. Kwon and Vogt (2010) suggest that affective attitudinal components are emotional experiences or preferences. Both positive (e.g. enjoyment) and negative (e.g. fear) emotional influences can arise from positive and negative experiences of the attitude object (technology) such that a positive emotional reaction to an experience are more likely to evaluate an attitude favourably (adopt technology) and vice a versa (Eagly and Chaiken 1993). Kwon and Vogt (2010) claim that attitude is composed of affective components such as delight, satisfaction and fear, whereas behavioural response is an action that an individual exhibits as a result of particular attitudinal attribute(s).

Reflecting upon the above academic debate around users' attitude towards an object (technology), Beaudry and Pinsonneault (2005) in their Coping Model of User Adaptation have ignored the affective (emotional) element in technological adaptation behaviour. They argue that an individual undertakes primary and secondary cognitive appraisals to cope with the consequence of a new technological event. Since this study aims to examine technology adoption and adaptation behaviour as a composite phenomenon, it is vital to examine the joint impact of cognition and affection on technology adoption and adaptation behaviour. Based on the review of the scholarly works and being parsimonious towards the antecedents of technology adoption and adaptation behaviour, this study convincingly proposes the joint cognitive and affective antecedents of adoption and adaptation behaviour with the details discussed later in this chapter.

Therefore, this study, unlike CMUA, posits that it is not only cognition but also affective components that influence technology adoption and adaptation behaviour and expound four cognitive antecedents (perceived opportunity, perceived relative advantage, perceived social influence and perceived control) as the cognitive utilitarian attitudinal components of technology adoption and adaptation behaviour and five affective attitudinal components (enjoyment, self-enhancement, threat, fear and trust) as affective (hedonic) attitudinal components of technology adoption and adaptation behaviour along with key outcomes. Each of these constructs is discussed below.

14.2.1 Adoption

14.2.1.1 Perceived Opportunity

Bala and Venkatesh (2016) define perceived opportunity as the degree to which an individual believes that new technology would offer them success such that they may perceive new technology as providing personal growth opportunities, reward, job performance. Hence, they develop a holistic assessment of the opportunity with the introduction of the new technology. Similarly, Venkatesh et al. (2003) suggested that when users adopt technology, they develop tend to believe that the use of new technology will enhance their job performance. Dutton and Jackson (1987) suggest that perceived opportunity is a positive situation in which users' gain is expected to happen. It can be argued that a user having adopted the technology, based on their cognitive appraisals, assesses the outcome of the use of new technology as how they would be personally and professionally affected. Such assessments determine an individual's adaptation behaviour and from such assessment they may infer that the new technology is less tedious and more fun. It offers more opportunities to learn new things and new skills. Hence, such assessment of the consequences or outcome of technology adoption is considered as perceived opportunity by an individual (Dutton and Jackson 1987). However, technology is multifaceted and can be assessed by individuals to have both positive and negative consequences. It depends on the relative importance of these consequences and based on such assessments adaptation behaviour will occur (Lazarus and Folkman 1984). In addition, Beaudry and Pinsonneault (2005) highlight that the adaptation behaviour of an individual starts as soon as they become aware of the consequences of the adoption of technology, they evaluate the new technological disruption in terms of personal and professional relevance and importance. Louis and Sutton (1991) argue that the individuals who have strong locus of control about the external stimuli would be able to have adaptation sooner. They identify individuals' locus of control as their personal belief that they would be able to control their destiny. In the context of technology adoption literature, the more technology provides control to individual users, the adoption of technology would abound and henceforth their adaptation behavioural efforts will occur. Coping literature and CMUA have their locus on a certain point that individuals develop their assessment of technology based on certain features of technology or functional characteristics that they perceive to be novel. Such assessment leads to their perceived compatibility of technology with their individual values and needs and expected task and technology fit which they perceive as an opportunity. When individuals believe strong task technology fit, they will perceive that as an opportunity to improve their performance and technology will be assessed positively (Karahanna et al. 1999; Venkatesh et al. 2003; Zigurs and Buckland 1998).

Agarwal and Prasad (1999) argue that individuals who have high personal innovativeness are likely to perceive technology more positively. Hence, it can be argued from the above discussion that individuals when face any technological disruption in their environment, they will develop the assessment of such technological

disruption based on the consequences. If they believe that new technology or change in the existing technology improves their tasks, improve their job or bring about a success in certain aspects of their lives, they would perceive such technological disruption as an opportunity.

14.2.1.2 Perceived Relative Advantage (PRA)

Perceived relative advantage, as a key measured construct, is defined and operationalised as follows. Relative advantage is used in previous studies in several dimensions; however, mainly with common themes. This research has taken a similar stance and operationalised PTI to embody the key constructs of performance and effort expectancy adopted by UTAUT (Venkatesh et al. 2003) along with the theme of relative advantage for technology users (Zolkepli and Kamarulzaman 2015). Hence, this research postulates that PRA includes usefulness, ease of use, technological innovation and convenience affecting cognitive utilitarian attitude. This exposition also complements the premise that UTAUT was formulated in 2003. Although it was revised in 2012 in the consumer context and multi-level framework in 2016, it does not fully capture the joint attitudinal components (cognitive and affective) and the rapid technological advancement, which has brought a paradigmatic shift in users' acceptance of technology worldwide.

Previous studies identified perceived utility, perceived usefulness, ease of use, and relative advantage as predictor of intention to use technology (Compeau and Higgins 1995; Davis et al. 1989; Moore and Benbasat 1991; Plouffe et al. 2001; Thompson et al. 1991). Venkatesh et al. (2003) incorporated these constructs under a unified construct of performance and effort expectancy. Similarly, this research incorporated them into one utility cognitive construct of PRA based on the similarities found in the previous studies (Chiang 2013; Gironda and Korgaonkar 2014; Wang et al. 2012; Zhang et al. 2014; Zolkepli and Kamarulzaman 2015). Relative advantage is defined as the degree to which technological innovation is perceived being better than its precursor, perceived usefulness to enhance job performance (instrumental in achieving valued outcome) and perceived ease of use is identified to be free of effort (e.g., Chen et al. 2009; Chiang 2013; Davis 1989; Garcia and Calantone 2002; Hsu et al. 2007; Jan and Contreras 2011; Kitchen and Panopoulos 2010; Lean et al. 2009; Lee et al. 2011; Lin 2011; Papies and Clement 2008; Rogers 2003; Vijayasarathy 2004). This research incorporates them into a utility cognitive construct of Perceived Relative Advantage and postulates that PRA unifies the aforementioned utility constructs.

14.2.1.3 Perceived Social Influence (PSI)

Social influence is defined as the degree to which an individual perceives that important others think he/she should use technology and subjective norms are a type of social influence by referent group (friend, family etc.) to influence behavioural

intention (Ajzen 1991; Chiasson and Lovato 2001; Dholakia et al. 2004; Fishbein and Ajzen 1975; Talukder and Quazi 2011; Venkatesh et al. 2003). Venkatesh et al. (2003) suggests that social factors, subjective norms and social image are related terms and combines them into social influence.

Similarly, this research posits that social influence is users' perceived social pressure (PSP) which are their cognitive psychological goals to develop and maintain social relations with others and enhance interpersonal utility (Ellison et al. 2007; Grieve et al. 2013; Whiting and Williams 2013). As a result users perceive social pressure to connect, collaborate and communicate with others on technology (Chang and Chuang 2011; De Valck et al. 2009; Hussain 2012; Trivedi et al. 2016). Hence, PSP is users' cognitive psychological pressure from external factors to interact, maintain social relations and enhance interpersonal utility of technology (Bharati et al. 2014; Chiasson and Lovato 2001; Grace et al. 2015; Talukder and Quazi 2011; Venkatesh et al. 2003). Such perceived social pressure drives social interaction; desire to connect, collaborate and communicate with others through technology (Chang and Chuang 2011; De Valck et al. 2009; Hussain 2012; Trivedi et al. 2016), establish social ties with others (friends, colleagues and family), social bonds, shared goals, increased social belonging to the community (Blanchard and Markus 2004; Hau and Kim 2010; Chiu et al. 2006; Chow and Chan 2008; Cohen and Prusak 2001; Ridings et al. 2002) and social support; a social aspect of exchange to help and share information with others on technology (Ali 2011; Crocker and Canevello 2008), willingness to help, fulfill social needs that result in warmth online relationship (Laurenceau et al. 1998; Liang et al. 2011; Maslow 1954; Zhang et al. 2014). Hence, this research postulates that PSP denotes users' perceived social pressure for social interaction, social ties and social support.

Social interaction is highlighted as the desire to communicate, interact with others and build relationship (Al-Jabri et al. 2015; Ko et al. 2005). It is human nature to socialize and interact with others (Dyson 1998). Technology is perceived by users to enhance social interaction, connect them anywhere and complement their offline relationship (Park et al. 2009; Papacharissi 2009; Rosen 2007). Users are led by psychological goals to develop social relations, increased social motivation, companionship and interpersonal utility with other technology users to gratify their socialisation needs (Amichai-Hamburger et al. 2002; Ellison et al. 2007; Cheek and Buss 1981; Grieve et al. 2013; Korgaonkar and Wolin 1999; Nie 2001; Oldmeadow et al. 2013; Palmgreen and Rayburn 1979; Papacharissi and Rubin 2000; Park et al. 2009; Whiting and Williams 2013). Hence, they feel pressured from others (peers, family etc.) to adopt technology (Grace et al. 2015). Users' behavioural intention is positively associated with social strengths and their behaviour can be determined by social influence that enhances their technology use and acceptance (Hsu and Wu 2011; Lin and Anol 2008; Lu et al. 2005; Venkatesh and Morris 2000; Wei et al. 2009).

Social support is an exchange of resources between a provider and a recipient with the intention to enhance the well-being of the recipient (Shumaker and Brownell 1984). Social support is more a personal and social aspects of exchange with the function to share information with the ones who are loved or cared for

within the communication network (Ali 2011; Cobb 1976). Social support is a major social value for technology users from the online community (Obst and Stafurik 2010; Shaw and Gant 2002). Social support is understanding and providing information (solution, advice and recommendation) to other technology users, that is, if social support is present, it is natural for technology users to share commercial information (Crocker and Canevello 2008; Taylor et al. 2004).

14.2.1.4 Perceived Control

This research proposes that if technology provides more control to users, they will have positive attitude towards technology. It also improves their trust in technology. As a result, it will reduce their feeling of threat and fear and enhance their trust (Cheung et al. 2015). Ridings et al. (2002) argue that if technology users are given more control, their trust in technology will enhance. Similarly, extant literature suggests that users' online transaction decisions depend on the level of control regarding information disclosure is given to users by technology which in turn builds their trust in the integrity and reliability of vendors and reduces the level of risk (Culnan 2000; Eastlick et al. 2006; Hadjikhani et al. 2008; Hoffman et al. 1999; Li et al. 2006; Morgan and Hunt 1994; Warrington et al. 2000; Wu et al. 2010). Tucker (2014) suggests that users react positively when web platforms give control to them. Similarly, perceived control on personal information can enhance trust among technology users. If they are able to control their information on technology, their trust on technology will improve and risk of privacy will reduce (Cheung et al. 2015; Krasnova et al. 2010).

14.2.1.5 Enjoyment

Venkatesh et al. (2003) unified facilitating conditions from perceived behaviour control and compatibility from Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), Technology Acceptance Model (TAM), Innovation Diffusion Theory (IDT) and Model of PC Utilisation (MPCU). This research posits that compatibility and facilitating conditions are cognitive utilitarian factors and therefore incorporated them into PTI but users' hedonic factors are operationalised as follows.

Enjoyment constitutes of users' intrinsic emotional factors driving their perceived intrinsic sensory pleasure (hedonic and emotional) (Park and Kim 2014) that satisfies their hedonic needs of enjoyment. Vroom (1964) highlighted that individuals' target behaviour can be determined based on certain hedonic benefits that satisfy their needs. Enjoyment is intrinsic motivation that encourages users to share information, participate in discussion and engage in a sensation (Lin et al. 2008; Nov et al. 2010). Hence, this research postulates that users are driven by their intrinsic sensory elements of joy and enjoyment, hedonic and emotional self-focused dimensions originated from self-interest that drives users' attitude (Hau and Kim 2010). Similarly, pleasure is identified as playfulness, fun and an

intrinsic acceptance of technology (Moon and Kim 2001; Sledgianowski and Kulviwat 2009; Van der Heijden 2004; Zolkepli and Kamarulzaman 2015). Furthermore, flow is highlighted as users' full immersion in an online activity leading to culmination of enjoyment (where nothing else seems to matter) and ensuing more online activity and significant effect on users' purchase intention (Domina et al. 2012; Huang 2012). It can be argued that flow enhances users' enjoyment driving their attitude toward technology. Hence, enjoyment is constituted of pleasure and flow, optimal psychological experience in online activity resulting in greater enjoyment, revisit of websites, prolong usage, purchase products and revisit technology (Csikszentmihalyi 1977; Cyr et al. 2005; Hsu and Wu 2011; Jackson and Marsh 1996; Kabadayi and Gupta 2005; Koufaris 2002; Lu et al. 2009a, b; Novak et al. 2000; Rettie 2001; Wu and Chang 2005). Thus, users' affective needs are intrinsic by nature, arousing from within, ensuing pleasant hedonic motivation of joy, fun and pleasure (Champoux 1996; Chiang 2013; Franke and Shah 2003; Füller et al. 2007; Hau and Kim 2010; Jeppesen and Molin 2003; Lerner and Tirole 2002; Porter et al. 2003). Similarly, Kim et al. (2011) argued enjoyment as intrinsic fun resulting in pleasure and satisfaction from a playful experience.

14.2.1.6 Self-Enhancement

Self-enhancement and self-esteem are the positive feelings about oneself for self-fulfillment (Hepper et al. 2011; Sedikides and Gregg 2008). High self-enhancers have high self-esteem due to which they overwhelmingly update and present their self-focused status online, share information regarding themselves and anything that they feel would enhance their self-status, image and attract attention from others (Hennig-Thurau et al. 2004). Self-status and self-esteem are the important factors that gratify technology users' self-fulfilling hedonic needs of self-esteem behaving and presenting themselves to portray the desired impression (Ali and Lee 2010; Sas et al. 2009; Terry et al. 2007). Similarly, self-presentation, which Boyd and Ellison (2007) argue, is the key element to motivate for technology adoption. Users reveal desirable information on technology to formulate the impression they wish to produce on others (Krasnova et al. 2010) and they also apply positive self-presentation strategies to reveal information for their subject well-being (Kim and Lee 2011). This research posits that self-esteem and self-enhancement enhance self-presentation and self-image expression on technology.

14.2.1.7 Affective Hedonic Attitude

Attitude is composed of affective components such as enjoyment and self-enhancement, whereas behavioural component has been highlighted as the actions that an individual exhibits in relation to the attitude object (Kwon and Vogt 2010).

Similarly, this research proposes that affective attitudinal components are users' positive emotions (e.g. enjoyment, flow) which arise from positive technology experiences. As a result such positive emotional reactions turn users' attitude more favourable to technology. It posits that technology adoption and adaptation behaviour is not only determined by cognitive attitudinal attributes but also more emotional and hedonic technology attributes such as fun, enjoyment, self-enhancement and self-presentation (Diffley et al. 2011; Park and Kim 2014). As Chiu (2002) confirmed that affect-based component of attitude consists of emotions and feelings. This research has a similar stance and therefore postulates that users' affective attitudinal components are emotional positive feelings of enjoyment, flow and self-enhancement which arise from positive experiences of technology such that their positive emotional reactions influence attitude positively. As such, it can be argued that enjoyment and self-enhancement are the affective attitudinal components which determine users' affective hedonic attitude.

14.2.1.8   Threat

Liang and Xue (2009) highlight that individuals make emotional appraisal when coping with technological threats. They define technological threat as when they feel that they are susceptible to malicious technology and the consequences of such technological disruptions are severe, they will feel threatened by technology. Similar argument is echoed by Bala and Venkatesh (2016) that the degree to which individuals believe that technological disruption and new technology brings about harm to their well-being, success or growth, they will perceive it as a threat. Some will feel technology will have an impact on their performance, it will downgrade or belittle their status and reputation in the organisation and amongst friends and they consider the technology as a threat (Beaudry and Pinsonneault 2005). Extant literature for example Liang and Xue (2009); Lapointe and Rivard (2005) posit that individuals develop an overall feeling of threat from the new technology. This leads individuals to feel that new technology has a negative impact on different aspects of their lives which they feel as a threat. They further suggest that individuals resist and avoid technology when they feel it as a threat and they consider that threat is a key antecedent to avoidance of technology.

According to Bala and Venkatesh (2016) individuals develop overall feeling about technology when they develop anxiety about specific situation. In the context of feeling about new technology, such anxiety can have negative influence on technological adaptation behaviour. Also, such assessment leads to their perceived incompatibility of technology with the values, needs and past experiences and task and technology misfit which could be felt as a threat by individuals (Dishaw and Strong 1999; Venkatesh et al. 2003; Zigurs and Buckland 1998). Hence, it can be argued from the above discussion that individuals when face any technological disruption in their environment, they will feel threatened of such technological event.

14.2.1.9   Fear

Privacy is the right to be left alone, the ability to control and select to divulge personal information (Eastlick et al. 2006; Ha and Stoel 2009; Warren and Brandeis 1890). It is defined as the individual's sense of fear on the consequences of disclosure of personal information, that is, the fear of identity theft, cyber harassment, and personal record for scrutiny by the public, the disruption when personal information goes viral. It is the fear of users that has negative relationship with the sharing of personal information online (Boyd 2008; Chew et al. 2008; Featherman and Pavlou 2003; Gross and Acquisti 2005; Im et al. 2008; Krasnova et al. 2010; Lee et al. 2013; Pavlou et al. 2007; Phelps et al. 2000; Rosenblum 2007). Akar and Topçu (2011) in their study on consumers' acceptance of technology found that users' fear had a huge impact on the use of technology. Furthermore, Ghosh et al. (2014) claimed that users' sense of fear impacts purchase intention and credibility which influence their decision making on the use of technology. Consumer behaviour in the virtual world is affected by consumers' fear of privacy and security (Cheung et al. 2015).

This research focuses on users' fear of privacy and security on technology adoption and adaptation behaviour. By adopting technology, individuals create public profile, connect and share information. These revelations and adoption of technology lead to fear of privacy and security (Cheung et al. 2015; Krasnova et al. 2010). It is the fear of the threat from the disclosure of information, abuse or unauthorised access to their personal information. Hence, the adoption of technology causes fear and anxiety amongst individuals (Karyda et al. 2009; Lanier and Saini 2008).

14.2.1.10   Trust

In addition to fear and threat of technology, trust is found to affect users' adoption and adaptation behaviour. It is users' sense of uncertainty over technology or confidence in the features of technology to provide them protection or improved their performance (Cheung et al. 2015; Cheung and Lee 2006; Gefen et al. 2003; Krasnova et al. 2010; McKnight et al. 2002; Metzger 2004).

In addition to fear, trust is found to affect users' adoption and adaptation behaviour. It is users' feeling of uncertainty over the ability of technology to provide them protection and confidence as users pay considerable heed to the features of technology and the integrity and reliability of such technological features (Cheung et al. 2015; Cheung and Lee 2006; Gefen et al. 2003; Krasnova et al. 2010; McKnight et al. 2002; Metzger 2004).

Users' attitude towards technology depends on the feeling of trust users have with the technology (Szmigin 2018). It refers to how confident they feel on the reliability of technology. Feeling of trust depends on technology's ability and reliability in handling users' expectations (Moorman et al. 1993). The feeling of trust is found

to have a key relevance to users' feeling of fear. Higher protection and confidence in technology may enhance users' feeling of trust in technology (Cheung et al. 2015). It can be argued that users' feeling of trust in technology play a significant role in users' fear of the outcome of technology adoption. Gamboa and Gonçalves (2014) suggest that trust enhances user loyalty. Equally, Pentina et al. (2013) found that consumers' trust in technology influences their intention to continue using technology. Trust is suggested to have a key relevance to users' fear and threat. It can be argued that the lack of reliability of technology will make the users more reluctant to adoption. Hence, if users' trust in technology is low, they would resist or abandon technology completely.

14.2.2 *Adaptation Behaviour*

Coping are those adaptation acts which individuals perform when they encounter a stressful event in their environment. The introductions of new technology or changes in the existing technology are major concerns for technology users (Beaudry and Pinsonneault 2005).

14.2.2.1 Exploration to Maximise Technology Benefits

Bala and Venkatesh (2016) highlighted maximizing personal benefits as the first adaptation behaviour which takes full advantage of the opportunities offered by a technology. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) describe that when individuals appraise the consequence of technological disruption as an opportunity, they take full advantage of the technology and tend to maximise personal benefits. Similarly, Boudreau and Robey (2005) argue that individuals are likely to maximise their efforts to technology and explore new technological features which improves their work and provide them opportunities to accomplish their job in innovative and creative ways. The same argument was propounded by Thatcher et al. (2011) that exploration of feature exploration of technology is tantamount to maximising innovative ways to use technology and maximise benefits of such technological features. Likewise, Bala and Venkatesh (2016) suggest that individuals who explore new technological features cognitively engage with benefit maximising strategy to take optimum advantage. Furthermore, it is argued that if individuals perceive new technology as an opportunity for instance improve their performance, brings success or growth in their job, they will both maximise the use of technology and take full advantage of technological features (Lapointe and Rivard 2005). Hence, one set of adaptation behaviour relates to optimizing the benefits of the technology by exploring various means of its use.

14.2.2.2 Exploitation to Satisfice Technology Benefits

Individuals in a certain situation where they perceive the outcome of new technology as an opportunity by making positive appraisal (both cognitive and emotional) of technological features, they will exploit technology benefits. However, if they perceive that they have limited control on technological features, they will have minimal adaptation acts (Beaudry and Pinsonneault 2005), which means their adaptation efforts will reduce. It is due to individuals' beliefs that the lack of perceived control on new technology limits their exploitation of technological features as they believe that they cannot avail the technological benefits (Folkman and Moskowitz 2000). Due to which individuals will explore to satisfy the limited benefits technology offers. Similarly, Bala and Venkatesh (2016) identify exploitation to satisfice technological benefits as routine and regular use to accomplish certain tasks. In other words they are known habitual features. It would mean they would not be able to exploit additional benefits because of the lack of perceived control on those technological features and individuals' inability to go beyond such technological features. Hence, in such a situation individuals will satisfice themselves with the limited benefits that a certain technology offers. Zuboff (1988) described that minimal adaptation was carried out when the new control system introduced in an organisation provided interesting opportunities to enhance employees' job performance but provided limited autonomy to employees to change their work and technological features. In addition, Bala and Venkatesh (2016) and Beaudry and Pinsonneault (2005) highlight that benefits satisficing is both problem and emotion focused strategy due to which individuals would be willing to exploit technological features. However, they will not be able exploit additional technological benefits because of their inability to go beyond technological features they learnt to exploit.

14.2.2.3 Exploration to Revert

Individuals perform different coping strategies when they assess the consequence of dealing with the technological disruption as a threat. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) describe such strategies are problem or emotion focused. Problem focused strategies are the combination of cognitive and behavioural efforts that is managing a disruptive event by alleviating and/or altering the environmental issues by developing new set of behaviour. It means they focus on managing the external event. In emotion focused strategies they change their individual perception by regulating personal emotions, personal distress to bring a sense of stability and minimise the consequences of threat. The combination of problem and emotion focused dimensions depend on individuals' appraisal of the event and the feelings that they have some control on the situation. If the threat is appraised as problem focused whereby they assess that threat can be managed well by managing the external event, they would adopt problem focused coping strategies. Similarly, if the threat is appraised more as an emotion focused, they will focus on minimising the inner emotional anxiety and distress. Similar argument is posited by Beaudry and Pinsonneault

(2005) that when individuals assess a situation as a threat they rely on both problem focused adaptation efforts (managing the situation by reverting it) and emotion focused adaptation efforts (minimizing the inner emotional distress and restore emotional stability) and it also depends on the individual perceived controllability of the situation. Hence, they may minimise the negative outcome of the event and restore emotional stability. Also, adaptation efforts get orientated to oneself, technology and task they perform. Majchrzak et al. (2000) argue that when an individual's adaptation efforts are orientated to oneself, s/he would likely seek more training. If it gets orientated to technology, individuals would look to revert technological features and make the efforts to minimise the negative features of technology. Likewise, if it gets orientated to task, they may change work procedures so as to better fit with the technology. Similar stance is expounded by CMUA that when individuals appraise the consequences of new technological features as a threat, they restore emotional stability and minimise the negative outcome of new technology. As a result they engage in exploration to revert adaptation behaviour by searching old ways of performing tasks. Also, Bala and Venkatesh (2016) posit that when individuals perceive that new technology is harmful for their well-being or may hinder their growth or damage their reputation, they explore ways to minimise the harmful consequences of such technological event.

14.2.2.4 Avoidance of Technology

Beaudry and Pinsonneault (2005) describe that when individuals assess a situation as a threat and they have limited control on the situation, they tend to opt to avoid technology altogether. It is because individuals' adaptation efforts will be mainly emotion focused. They would want to come out of the distress and their main focus would be restoring emotional stability (Folkman 1992; Lazarus and Folkman 1984). Individuals would also have strong intention to avoid technology if they find that there is high task and technology misfit. In addition, where individuals perceive that new technology would deskill or eliminate their job, they would completely avoid technology (Patrickson 1986). Bala and Venkatesh (2016) conceptualise the avoidance of technology as emotion focused adaptation because they posit individuals would eliminate psychological distress completely by avoiding technology when they assess technology as a threat and having no control on technology causing distress. Therefore, individuals would resort to self-preservation strategy and reducing distress caused by the technology. Similarly, the same argument is reflected in the CMUA theory and some qualitative IS literature (Dey et al. 2013; Carroll et al. 2003) that individuals will completely abandon technology if they perceive that new technology may cause tension and is characterised to be unhelpful. Unlike exploration to revert adaptation behaviour, where individuals assess the technological event (both problem and emotion focused) by changing the event (seek more training, change technological features or change work procedures), in this case they would resort to self-preservation strategy and complete avoidance of technology to restore emotional stability (Liang and Xue 2009).

14.2.2.5   Adaptation Behaviour and Outcome

Extant literature e.g. (Beaudry and Pinsonneault 2005; Kessler 1998; Lazarus and Folkman 1984) highlight that situational outcome of adaptation behaviour is determined by both primary and secondary cognitive appraisals. Bala and Venkatesh (2016) identified two adaptation behavioural outcome for employees; job performance and job satisfaction. They argue that following a technology implementation in an organisation, employees' exploration to maximize technological innovation or technological benefits will have a positive influence on their job performance and their job satisfaction. However, they also suggest that new technology brings about a change in employees' work processes. If employees perceive those changes as a threat and explore to revert or use old ways of doing their work, these employees will not be effective and efficient in doing their job. The implementation of new technology will make their job less efficient and decrease their job performance. Such adaptation to revert behaviour may develop negative reactions towards their work and may find their job demotivating and a feeling that new technology has neither enriched nor transformed their job. Hence, employees feel threatened from the work environment resulting in frustration and demotivation (Bala and Venkatesh 2016).

14.3   Summary

This chapter highlights some of the key issues around technology acceptance, adoption and adaptation and the role of attitude. In so doing it identifies and responds to the research gap and discusses the key underlying antecedents and discrete adaptation behavioural outcomes for technology adoption, adaptation and appropriation. Moreover, this chapter also sheds light on the joint attitudinal cognitive (perceived opportunity, perceived relative advantage, perceived social influence, perceived control) and affective (enjoyment, self-enhancement, threat, fear and trust) components, which are the key antecedents to adoption and adaptation behaviour. As such the chapter contributes to the advancement of the scholarship of technology adoption, adaptation and appropriation and offers theoretical impetus for further empirical investigation.

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Part IV
Digital Marketing: Case Studies and Practitioner Experiences

Chapter 15
Considerations on Global Social Media Marketing

Esther Curiel

15.1 Introduction

Digital marketing technologies that started emerging during the final decades of the twentieth century are now advancing at break-neck speed, and changing the face of marketing in ways that are challenging practitioners like never before, but that are also opening up great opportunities for growth.

These technologies came hand in hand with Web 2.0 developments, which brought about a fundamental shift in the way businesses communicate with their customers. These have been described in detail by Berthon et al. (2012).

Arguably, the most significant change the new technologies brought, at least in social terms, is the power shift from the business to the consumer —with firms no longer fully in control of the content and messaging that users consume, and a new need to enter into a conversation with users where simply putting content in front of them had sufficed in the past.

The discipline of content marketing was thus born, with social media marketing —facilitated by the rapid uptake of social media networks by users—quickly becoming an important component. However, the pace of technology development and adoption has been so rapid that academic research and publications have lagged behind (Kannan and Li 2017). This has thankfully started to change, but the topic of social media marketing for international markets still suffers from a dearth of publications, both in the academic and the business worlds. It is still uncharted territory to a large extent.

The purpose of this chapter is to offer a practitioner's perspective on the opportunity and challenges that global social media marketing presents, as well as some

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pointers that could form a basis for further research and an implementation framework for practitioners. It is the author's opinion that joint collaboration between academia and the business world should enable better and faster results.

15.2   Social Media Marketing: Challenges and Opportunity for Global Businesses

15.2.1   *The Increasing Influence of Social Media in Marketing Strategy*

The number of social media users at a global scale has been growing steadily. Statista, the online statistics and business intelligence portal, published the number of social media users worldwide between 2010 and 2016 in 2017 (Statista 2018b), with projections up to 2021 that are already starting to look conservative (2.46 billion projected for 2017, versus the 3.196 billion reported by Hootsuite and wearesocial for the same year (Wearesocial 2018)). By way of comparison, around 209 million of users these were in the United States (Statista 2018c), showing the global reach of social media.

But it is not just the number of users that make social media attractive to marketers. Social networks are taking up an increasing amount of users' online time, and businesses have been quick to realize that there is great potential targeting these users in the platforms where they are already congregating and spending a significant portion of their time. In addition, the large amount of personal data that users share via these networks, coupled with ever more sophisticated AI capabilities, enable the easy microtargeting of users by businesses.

Literature on the ROI of social media marketing is not abundant. But marketing managers have certainly realized that it pays to invest in social media marketing, and are voting with their wallet: the American Marketing Association, Deloitte, and Duke's University Fuqua School of Business have been conducting a biannual survey among high-level marketers (The CMO Survey 2018), and their February 2019 results show that spending on social media has been increasing steadily (with a dip for the last 6-month period, but an upward trend expected to continue). ROI has still not been fully proven, but social media are seen as a great tool to accomplish key strategic objectives for the company.

Hoffman and Fodor (2010) propose a very sensical alternative to the traditional ROI frameworks that focus on short-term business results, like increases in sales, and instead turn the focus on customer motivations, the goal of the social media strategy, and long-term objectives. As they rightly point out, there is a tension between marketing managers, who have a good sense that social media marketing works, and their higher management, who might not understand social media value and will want to see clear metrics to justify investment.

15.2.2 But What About International Markets?

Without clear ROI, and with just the promise of potential, it is no surprise marketers have not embraced the opportunity of social media marketing in global markets yet. Okazaki and Taylor (2013) give a well-reasoned assessment on this situation, and suggest that because of its opportunity for personalization and global reach, social media will play an increasingly important role in global advertising strategy.

This seems to be substantiated by observation on the uptake of social media marketing by Fortune 500 companies, with high adaptation levels in many cases that point to the willingness to invest in this area, and the expectation that investment will pay off.

Once organizations decide to expand their social media marketing efforts to international markets, how can they ensure these are successful?

15.2.3 Back to Basics: Social Media Marketing Goals

In the confusion that the fast-evolving world of social media marketing can bring, with the popularity of different platforms coming and going, different uses, numerous sets of metrics to measure performance, etc., it can be useful to come back to basics and remember the benefits that organizations can expect from social media marketing. This can help see the forest from the trees and ensure that strategy is aligned with goals and not with the latest fad.

The benefits social media can bring to organizations can be summarized as follows.

15.2.3.1 Brand Awareness

It pays to keep in mind that the level of brand awareness can be different in regional markets than it might be in the domestic market. This can have implications in terms of content strategy that are often overlooked, and that can affect the effectiveness of the local campaigns.

Other than that, there is no reason to doubt that brand awareness strategies will work in international markets just as well as they do in the domestic ones; indeed, ElAydi (2018) researched the effect of social media marketing on brand awareness in Egypt, where the number of social media users increased significantly in 2017, and found it to have a positive impact.

15.2.3.2   Trust Building/Brand Engagement

This can be achieved in a number of different ways, from the sharing of relevant informational and entertaining content, to conversations with users, engaging influencers to act as brand ambassadors, actively engaging users to create and share content (including the creation of online fori), etc. The influence of user-generated content (UGC) and word-of-mouth (WOM) in trust-building has been studied extensively. Kannan and Li (2017) offer a good summary of research in this area, and Karamian et al. (2015) investigated them in the context of Iran, and also reached the conclusion that they have a positive effect on brand equity (as well as perceived quality). Influencer marketing has been studied by Kumar and Merchandani (2012) in the context of an Indian retailer, and has been shown to have the potential to generate additional sales.

15.2.3.3   Lead Generation

Social media is becoming an important aid in the generation of new leads for Sales. This can be done through social media advertising, and by sharing and promoting so-called lead magnets (good quality content that will help resolve a need the target user has) —by sharing "gated content" that can only be accessed upon completion of a form, companies get access to personal information and contact details for interested users. It is important to remember that regulations dealing with consent and data protection (like GDPR) can vary across different international markets.

15.2.3.4   Other

Social media marketing can also have other uses, like marketing research, and product and service research (The CMO Survey homepage 2018) (such as new product offerings and enhancing of existing offerings, based on findings from social listening) (The CMO Survey homepage 2018). Its efficacy for market research efforts (as well as its potential for cost savings through user-generated help desk information), have been studied by Hoffman and Fodor (2010).

15.2.4   *Challenges and Common Pitfalls in International Markets*

Global social media marketing strategy needs to start with the goals in mind, as stated above. The next crucial step is to be aware (and plan) for a set of pitfalls and common challenges that often lie at the heart of unsuccessful (or moderately successful) international marketing strategies.

15.2.4.1   Cultural Challenges

Ford et al. (2011) described culture as the "elephant in the room" in international advertising. Indeed, not enough attention is paid to the cultural context of the different markets a firm might want to target. Their paper provides a good summary of the different frameworks that have attempted to classify cultural values, and that can be used to provide helpful insight into the amount and type of adaptation that marketing and advertising messages might require in different cultures.

The standardization versus adaptation debate (whether, and to what extent, marketing and advertising should be standardized across markets), which has taken quite a central role in academic and business publications over the past five decades, seems to be resolving itself in favor of a mixed approach, where certain communications can remain standardized, but others need to be adapted. These cultural frameworks will prove helpful for practitioners to determine the correct mix for their markets. Studies for individual markets (such as those of those of Karlíček et al. (2013) for the Czech context, or Kanso and Alan (2002) for the Swedish and Finnish markets) can also prove helpful.

15.2.4.2   Legal Constraints

Although these can be seen as part of what culture encompasses, they deserve separate mention as overlooking legal regulations in the different markets can have serious consequences for firms.

15.2.4.3   Level of Brand Recognition

Once again, it pays to consider that the level of brand recognition in foreign markets is likely to be lower than in the domestic market. The brand might be talking from a position of authority in the domestic market that does not necessarily exist in regional markets. The tone and the messaging might need to be adapted in certain circumstances to account for this.

15.2.4.4   User Needs

Although there is a trend for organizations to become less product-centric and more customer-oriented, putting user needs at the center of both their product development and their marketing strategies, it is interesting to note that oftentimes, an assumption is made that the needs of users in international markets are the same as those in the domestic market. Good product fit and market research should inform marketing strategy.

15.2.4.5 Budget and Resources

Social media marketing requires an investment, in terms both of human and monetary capital, that organizations might not want to (or be able to) make in all the markets where they are present. Market segmentation thus becomes necessary. Steenkamp and Hofstede (2002) provide a good overview of the research in this area.

Tied to this is the added challenge of ensuring that social media communications, particularly when engaging in conversation with users, are timely and relevant. The fast-moving nature of social media poses an extra burden on regional teams who might not have the same resources in terms of manpower to reply to users in a timely fashion. There often is not a dedicated social media team as there might be in the firm's headquarters, and as a result it is not infrequent to see social channels in regional markets where the firm is only pushing content of limited value to the user, on a random basis rather than with the frequency needed to build engagement, and missing the opportunity to engage in conversation. Needless to say, any expectations that these half-hearted attempts will help improve brand equity are misplaced.

15.2.4.6 Platform and Technology Landscape

Platform choice is complicated enough for domestic markets, given the large (and quickly evolving) network of platforms catering to different needs and audiences. The best-known ones at a global scale (Facebook, YouTube, WhatsApp, Instagram, Twitter, LinkedIn, etc.) originated mostly in the US, but others originated in different geographies (QZone and TikTok/Douyin in China, Line in Japan, etc.) and then expanded to other geographies (Statista 2018a). Preferred networks and platforms might differ from country to country. LinkedIn, for instance, has had less acceptance in Germany than local professional network Xing. KakaoTalk is more popular in Korea than Facebook Messenger. These are just some examples, but they serve to illustrate the importance of researching the social media landscape in each target market, as well as the type of audience and users it serves, before making a decision on which channels to invest on.

15.2.4.7 Localization

Although localization can be seen as simply a technique to make a product or a message linguistically and culturally relevant, and thus could be included under Sect. 15.2.4.1 above (and in particular the standardization versus adaptation debate), it deserves separate mention as it is one area that can give marketing practitioners countless headaches. Expectations in terms of quality and effectiveness are often unmet and can be a source of tension between central marketing teams (often managing the localization process centrally) and regional teams who find the content has

not been sufficiently adapted to local needs. In the context of social media marketing, with its emphasis on engagement and two-way communications with users, it is imperative that there is a framework in place that outlines, among other items, what centrally produced content would be useful in the regions and therefore suitable for localization, what type of content should be produced locally, the level of adaptation required and allowed in order to preserve the brand integrity, etc.

15.3 Recommendations

Some Other authors have provided valuable insights and recommendations for practitioners. Berthon et al.'s (2012) five axioms provide a great framework.

I am attempting to provide some additional guidance focused around four main areas, derived from observation and practical experience.

15.3.1 Defining the Markets Where the Organization Is Willing to Invest in Social Media Marketing

As seen earlier, marketing budgets and resources are not infinite. A badly maintained social media presence will not help achieve the desired goals, and marketers should be realistic about what they can achieve with the resources at their disposal, and the size of the opportunity versus the investment required. Embarking on social media just because everyone else seems to be doing it —or because an individual in a local office is interested— without proper planning and resourcing, will at best be a waste of precious resources —and at worst, have a negative effect on consumers' perception of the brand. Growth- and emerging markets are good candidates, but ultimately each organization's goals and budgets will determine which markets should be prioritized.

15.3.2 Assessing the Cultural Environment of the Selected Markets

Local expertise, market research, and the application of a cultural framework will help establish the correct level of adaptation needed (if any) in terms of brand positioning, content and messaging, user personas, social media platforms, legal compliance, etc. It can be helpful to analyze the strategies that successful global companies have adopted in the target markets, such as Mahobia and Jain's (2015) study of Starbucks adaptation to the Indian market, or Johansson and Thelander's (2009) research on IKEA in China.

15.3.3 Defining the Execution Strategy

Ill-defined areas around execution have the potential to reduce the impact of social media marketing. A social standard operation procedure (SSOP) will help bring transparency and ensure there are no unfounded assumptions. The SSOP should clarify areas such as where the ownership of the social media accounts lies, who should post, with what frequency, what type of material, storage of and access to assets, communication channels between the regions and headquarters, communications and information sharing with other internal teams involved in marketing and strategy and with external vendors, crisis handling, and even the localization process, for any content that is adapted rather than created in-country.

15.3.4 Measurement, Reevaluation, and Iterating

Finally, a set of metrics that helps decide if current efforts are having the intended results needs to be decided upon. The ultimate goal is the ability to prove ROI, which is in principle possible through attribution models, although these remain complex, and there is a good argument for doubting if current models are measuring the right metrics (Hoffman and Fodor 2010).

Change is a constant in social media marketing, so these metrics should be monitored regularly and used to help iterate and refine the strategy for the region on a continuous basis.

15.4 Conclusion

Social media marketing is quickly becoming an essential part of successful organizations' marketing strategies, and its use among them keeps growing.

However, when it comes to the same organizations' international markets, social media uptake is much lower, and it is not unusual to see failing attempts where user engagement and trust building are not only not happening but also might in fact end up being damaged. The core elements of social media (immediacy, personalization, and 2-way conversations between brand and user), coupled with businesses' own challenges in terms of budget and resources, make its application to international contexts even more complex. But with growing competition and often plateauing growth rates in domestic markets, ignoring the potential of international markets seems short-sighted.

This highlights the importance of additional research in the area, which will help create a set of best practices for successful global social media marketing and a framework for successful cultural and market adaptation where required.

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Chapter 16
Multi-channel Digital Marketing Strategy in an Emerging Economy: The Case of Flintobox in India

Kuttimani Tamilmani, Nripendra P. Rana, and Yogesh K. Dwivedi

16.1 Introduction

India has witnessed unprecedented growth of online retail popularly known as e-commerce in the last decade. The proliferation of internet-enabled smartphones complemented by online ecosystem players such as the banks that provide secured payment gateways for effortless payment to purchase goods and services (Dwivedi et al. 2014) has fuelled India's e/m-commerce growth story. E-commerce revenue of Indian companies is on upward trajectory and is expected to jump from US $30 billion in 2016 to US $120 billion in 2020, growing at an annual rate of 51% highest across the globe (PWC 2018). The Indian e-commerce space is highly crowded particularly among horizontal players with everyone one competing for their share of customer's mind and wallet. Majority of these companies are making huge losses in billions and focussing on valuations and gross revenue rather than profitability (Deloitte, Future of e-Commerce: Uncovering Innovation 2018). This strategy is not sustainable, as companies have to be on continuous look out for funding to manage their working capital requirements due to substandard unit economics and low customer lifetime value.

However, the companies that focus on niche product or services, offering unique value proposition to consumers through innovative business model, can reach road to profitability much earlier. One such company is Flintobox.com, which operates

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in the educational toy segment. Despite Indian toy market's double-digit growth over the last 5 years, around 40% toy companies have closed down, due to increased imports from countries like China and Italy having better manufacturing capacity (Business standard, Indian toy industry hit hard by imports, says study 2013). This is attributable to capital-intensive brick and store business model of the companies following push strategy offering similar products without understanding consumer needs. However, consumers are ready to spend on innovation-driven high-end toys/games like board games and activities that promote learning while playing (Mamgain and Dewan 2011). Flintobox.com has made strong inroads into this untapped educational toys segment and has created a niche for itself growing steadily since its launch by harnessing the power of digital channels through disruptive online subscription model. The evolution of digital marketing ecosystem has deepened organisations understanding of consumers enabling them to precisely target their markets faster, in the most cost-effective manner, facilitating customer development and retention (Stone 2014). In the case of flintobox, subscription business model amplified the effects of digital marketing as customers pay money upfront for the product improving customer lifetime value and retention. Given the preceding discussion on importance of digital marketing in reducing customer acquisition cost to businesses, this study employed case study methodology to understand various channels employed by flintobox ensuring them to stand out from the crowd.

16.2   Research Method

This study employed case study methodology, which addresses research problem in descriptive scenario rather than prescriptive cases, focusing on real-world problems and answering research question on "how" or "why" (Perry 1998). Thus, researchers employed a combination of interview and unobtrusive protocols for data collection. An in-depth-interview was conducted with the chief marketing officer to understand the end–to-end marketing strategy of the company complemented by unobtrusive method that involved data collection from publicly available domain of company without interference on daily operation of the business (Perry 1998; Marshall and Rossman 2014).

16.3   Multi-channel Digital Marketing Strategy

The company hired a chief marketing officer (CMO) as soon as it was ready for scaling to figure out the most cost-effective channel for customer acquisition. The CMO came up with a complete road map for marketing and figured out that traditional marketing strategies used for E-commerce products will not work for Flintobox. The three major challenges facing the company about marketing are below:

1. Flintobox is not a search product, it is a discovery product. They need quality content to deploy inbound marketing strategies for attracting consumers.
2. Communication of subscription concept to nascent Indian E-commerce consumers. In western countries, companies like Dollar Shave Club popularized the concept of subscription where consumers get razors every month under a dollar. The greatest challenge in India was to educate consumers that it is not a one-time purchase and they would be getting the product every month. To add complication unlike western countries recurring billing is restricted in India for subscription products by its central bank, Reserve Bank of India (RBI).
3. Flintobox as a company was not in a position to offer free trial products like most freemium subscription products where customers can experience the product before buying.

The marketing team developed a clear strategy to address these challenges. They developed multi-channel digital marketing strategy and did lot of A/B tests (a method for comparing two versions of a webpage or app against each other to determine which one performs better when shown to similar visitors at the same time) using tools like Mouseflow and Optimizely to identify most the cost-effective channels.

16.3.1 Search

Initially, search was primary mode of customer acquisition since more than 80% of website traffic was driven by search. However, bounce rate for search was at 80–90% (the percentage of visitors who enter a site and then immediately leave the site without viewing other pages) as parents were not looking out for "monthly subscription boxes for kids" or "educational subscription toys for children" in search engine rather looking for generic do it yourself (DIY) activities for their children. When these consumers landed on flintobox website, there was mismatch between their expectation and flintobox product offerings resulting in higher bounce rate. They realised that search marketing is ill suited with sales conversion at a minimal rate of 0.5%. Researchers have found that failing to implement search engine marketing properly can be detrimental and sometimes affect firms negatively (Aswani et al. 2018).

16.3.2 Public Relations

This was the most successful channel for flintobox immediately after graduating from accelerator. The team realised the sales went up exponentially every time they had an article about flinto in media. In addition, the conversion rate for customers' coming through PR articles was higher at 5%, whereas the normal conversion of

their website was around 0.5%. The major reason for this was customers were able to recognize their need when they read article on flinto and how it can contribute to the development needs of their children resulting in clean sale. However, flinto cannot be relying on PR entirely for acquiring new customers since it is very costly to engage a PR agency. The greatest lesson from PR was that their current website was not communicating the need of flinto enough to a potential customer who lands on the website without having any prior information about the product resulting in higher bounce rate and lower conversion.

16.3.3   Discovery Platforms

In conventional products like diapers, the consumer knows exactly why they need the product. Whereas for early child development products like flinto most prospective consumers are not aware; they have problem at first place. For instance, some consumers felt that kids spending time on watching TV and playing games on mobile phones is good as they can do their work without the need to look after them. To educate customers "why watching TV is bad for Kids", "how spending too much time on smartphone's affects kids' development" they needed lot of quality content. Content generation played a very crucial role in marketing communication of flintobox to position them as offering solution for early child developmental needs. Hence, the customer journey is lengthy for discovery products like flintobox, as they have to educate consumers about their problem first and offer solution subsequently.

16.3.3.1   Social Media

Social media platforms have become an indispensable part of our day-to-day life. It has gained tremendous fame and has emerged as a highly impactful medium of communication in this digitalized modern era (Tamilmani et al. 2018; Kapoor et al. 2017; Shiau et al. 2018; Dwivedi et al. 2015). Facebook became the first-ever social media platform to reach two billion monthly active users (Statista 2019). The raise of social media has garnered interest among researchers with studies focusing on comparative effect of various social media advisement sources (Shareef et al. 2019), identification of various factors leading towards consumers positive attitude development of social media advertising (Shareef et al. 2018), co-creation through social media communities (Kamboj et al. 2018) and consumer purchase intention (Alalwan 2018). The sheer size of social media has led governmental adaption of social media with studies focusing on socio citizenry (Aladwani and Dwivedi 2018) and cluster analysis of social networks (Shiau et al. 2017). Discovery platforms like Facebook give opportunity to identify consumers based on demography, age, location, gender and so on. This helped to narrow down on target customers for flintobox based on their persona. In search, it was difficult to drive traffic even if they spend money as

nobody was searching for these products. However, Facebook started to give traffic when the consumers are targeted with campaign that better resonated with their problem. They ran various marketing campaigns with titles "Get activity boxes for your children", "First ever subscription box", "Education activity box for children", "New toys every month" and "Take your kids off TV/Smartphones" targeting prospective customers through sponsored ad in consumer's newsfeed. Out of all these campaigns "Take your Kids off TV/Smartphones" worked better in terms of click-through rate (CTR—The ratio of users who click on a specific link to the number of total users who view a page, email or advertisements) since it resonated better with parents' pain point. Soon Facebook emerged as the major customer acquisition channel for flintobox.

16.3.3.2 Native Ads Platform

Apart from social discovery platforms, native ads platforms like Taboola, Outbrain and Colombia were also able to drive traffic relevant to flintobox. Native advertising refers to paid advertising of companies like flintobox that closely match the look and feel of unpaid news and content of the actual media platform; in essence, the advertisement mimics the original unpaid content (Hyman et al. 2017). Native ads platform uplifted flintobox's product offering. For instance, cost-per-acquisition through Taboola was 20% lesser than other channels, which is attributable to high-quality relevant traffic increasing new subscribers by 15%. The relevant traffic from native advertisement decreased the bounce rate from 90% to range of 50% and website conversion rate increased from 0.5% to 2% after reducing the dependency on search and fine-tuning the marketing communications. The traffic now majorly comprised of social media around 65%, with native ad platforms contributing 33% and search around 2%. However, they cannot ignore search completely as consumers who discover flintobox through various channels still end up searching "flintobox" in Google at a later point in time. They still have to spend on Google AdWords in order to show up in top of search results for flintobox keyword; it enables them to show the contact number of the company and product-related information providing better experience for consumers who search the product.

16.3.4 Affiliates

This was the most sought-after customer acquisition channel that flinto CMO intended to develop. Affiliates refers to third-party websites that direct traffic to a particular product or services in exchange for a share of the revenue (Dwivedi et al. 2017). Flinto used Admitad platform for seamlessly managing their relationship with their affiliate partners. The advantages of these platforms are that flinto can define the terms on which they want to work with affiliates such as pay per sales (PPS) that involves sharing revenue with affiliate partner for each successful

subscription sale and/or cost per action (CPA) that involves sharing revenue with affiliates for driving prospective consumers to flintobox website. Flintobox engaged affiliates on pay per sales (PPS) model with a commission of Rs. 300 per customer if their referred visitor became a flintobox subscriber. Affiliates model did not take off as intended since the consumer-buying journey is long for a discovery product like flintobox. Although affiliate websites were successful in driving the initial traffic, they were not able to take visitors to next steps and convert them into subscribers. Since the customer journey is longer, the wait for affiliates to get their incentives is also long. Affiliates are better off in promoting commodity products such as baby diapers and feeding bottles that need less awareness about need recognition among customers resulting in immediate purchase and faster revenue recognition for affiliates.

16.3.5   Referrals

Apart from marketing done by the company, existing customer's testimonials for the product can serve as reference for prospective customers in their social circle. Unlike traditional word of mouth that are purely organic, referral programmes are marketer directed initiatives by enticing existing customers to attract their friends, families members, and business contacts to become new customers (Kumar et al. 2010). Marketer directed referral programs aims to turn existing customers as influencer and advocate of the products by exceeding their expectations. This leads to customer delight; in the case of flintobox such customers post pictures of their children playing with flintobox both on company and their own social media account pages creating virality for the product through electronic word of mouth (Berman 2016; Ismagilova et al. 2017). In order to channelize and encourage existing customers to bring new customers, flintobox devised referral program. The company-engaged Referral Candy a referral-marketing tool to manage the entire referral programme. This tool provides existing customers with a unique link that they can share amongst their friends across social media platforms to purchase flintobox at discounted price. Once three of their referrals became subscribers existing customers are rewarded with free flintobox.

16.3.6   Email

Email is critical channel for customer acquisition, engagement and retention for any digital business; flintobox is not an exception. Flintobox has to build their email database from scratch as a brand new company operating in a complete niche customer segment. As they developed the email list they realised that the same content does not work for all customers. In order to derive greater value from the email list they have to segment their email list into different personas. They conducted survey amongst parents across India to understand their biggest challenge in engaging

children at their home. They found four major types of customer personas emerging from challenges of the parents participated in the survey. They are as follows:

1. Screen addiction: The major challenge for the parents in this category was their children spending too much time on mobile phone and TV.
2. Low concentration: Parents in this category had children with low attention span and they get bored very easily.
3. Poor engagement: Parents in this category did not know how to engage their children meaningfully at home due to lack of tools.
4. Busy parents: Parents who are busy and do not have enough time to spend time with their children.

They designed quiz with these persona types for collecting new email IDs. Flintobox sent customized email newsletters and solutions to each persona types on how they can help in addressing parents' challenges. They found email open rates increased as they started to provide content based on the persona types. Flintobox was using Mailchimp tool to manage the email campaigns. However, as the email base stared increasing, exponentially they started looking out for sophisticated customer relationship management (CRM) tools with robust data analysis capabilities to manage campaigns and make data-driven decisions.

16.4   Discussion

Flintobox discovered the marketing platform that works best for them through rigorous A/B testing. The typical marketing funnel of flintobox is depicted in Fig. 16.1. However, they were lacking a full-fledged metrics board. They were currently tracking marketing metrics manually in single Google spreadsheet, which enabled easy
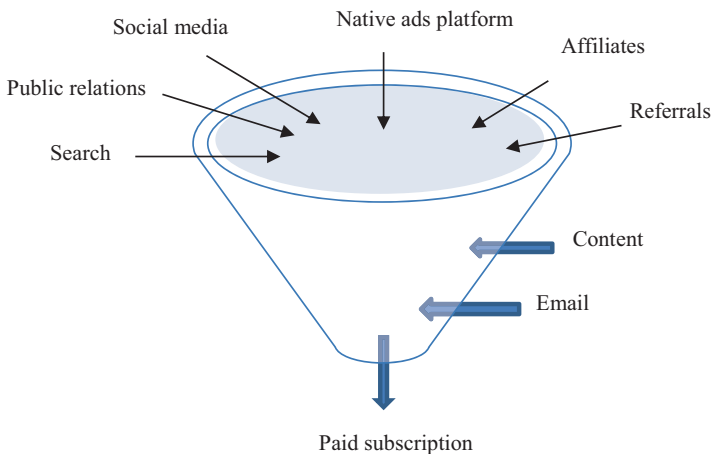

Fig. 16.1 Flintobox marketing funnel

sharing of data amongst employees managing different channels. Marketing metrics was arrived by aggregating data from different tools such as Optmizely (to analyze data on actions taken by consumers on website), Google AdWords (search), Mailchimp (email marketing), Admitad (affiliate marketing), Referral Candy (referrals), Taboola, Outbrain, Colombia (Native ad Platforms) and output from its e-commerce platform. The marketing team the followed below data points closely in the metrics dashboard:

- New customer acquisition cost and renewal rates by marketing channel.
- Website traffic to email subscriber conversion rate.
- Conversion rate of website traffic to new customer.
- Renewal rate.
- Order value of customers acquired through different channels.

One of the important metric missing in this list was customer Lifetime Value (LTV). They were still in early stages to determine what would be the LTV. Hence, they decided to be very careful on CAC. After trying various marketing channels flinto found their typical consumer-buying journey involved four steps:

- *Awareness stage*: Customers are made aware about their pain point through various channels to bring them to the website. They become qualified lead when they leave their contact details and take quiz. They were persuaded to buy the product right on the thank you page of the quiz; if someone does not buy it there, they go to the next stage.
- *Consideration/Evaluation stage*: Once someone becomes a lead and does not buy the product right on the quiz thank you page, they would be re-targeted through Facebook and Google AdWords to bring them to the main site. If someone has visited the main site and not bought a product, they were shown more proof through existing parents' and kids' testimonial videos to push them further down the funnel. The motto is to move them from awareness to consideration stage.
- *Conversion stage*: If someone is a lead, visited the website in the past few days or has seen the proof video or visited review page, then they will be retargeted with an offer ad, which is only shown to them. This is the stage where the visitors actually become customers and make purchase decision.
- *Post-purchase evaluation*: At this stage, customers evaluate the value of the product against their expectation. If their perceived value of the product is higher than the perceived cost, they renew their subscription leading to higher lifetime value (LTV). Else, they stop their subscription.

16.5   Conclusion

This case looked into multi-channel digital marketing strategy employed by early-stage start-up flintobox, an online subscription commerce company. The results revealed that search engine marketing did not work for flintobox, which was

overcome through discovery platforms like social media and native ads platform contributing to majority of the traffic. The company also faced lot of challenges in terms of communicating the subscription concept to consumers, which was overcome by creating awareness about the product through website and email campaigns. The results are of great significance to both research and practice, as the company has already reached profitability while majority of the e-commerce companies are making losses in billions.

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Chapter 17
Corporations Taking Political Stands on Social Media: Risks, Benefits, and Potential for the Creation of Social Value

Stephanie Guimond

17.1 Introduction

In the not-so-distant past, the leaders of most American companies would steer clear of taking a public political stand on issues of the day, thinking it better to appear neutral in front of stakeholders. Political activity on the part of most corporations was limited to things done on the fringes of public visibility, such as lobbying government, contributing to political campaigns, and supporting groups with similar goals (Gaither et al. 2018). Executives considered wading into political waters dangerous, taking a position on the hot-button political issues of the day, risky. Corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives tended to focus on taking up an uncontroversial cause, perhaps through a foundation owned by the company or a favorite charity whose goals were related in some way to the company's core business (Dodd and Supa 2014).

The willingness of corporations to engage in public political activity or advocacy has increased over the past 10 years, along with the political polarization of Americans evidenced by the election of Donald Trump as president and the rise of the Me Too, Black Lives Matter, and Never Again movements (among others). Corporations know that a growing number of consumers expect them to take a stand on issues of social and political importance and that doing so can help them engage with their customers and sell products and services to them (Deng and Xu 2017). This expectation is fed in part by the unprecedented ability of activists to hold businesses accountable for their corporate activities and political stands (or lack thereof) through action on social and digital media. It is also fed by the proliferation of dozens of social media platforms where political ideas are exchanged, and how use of

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social media increases political awareness and engagement among participants (Grover et al. 2018).

Corporate participation on social media does more than answer the demands of consumers. It also helps firms build a positive image and brand through social interaction with stakeholders (Kim and Ko 2012 cited in Alalwan et al. 2017; Kapoor et al. 2018). Paying attention to how participants use social media now can help corporations identify how consumers may perceive their brand over time, helping to create effective online marketing strategies (Alalwan et al. 2017). Firms must also participate in social media to manage the impact of negative consumer feedback (Kapoor et al. 2018). Research shows that the damage created by negative online posts and electronic word of mouth is much greater than the benefit gleaned from positive stakeholder interactions and recommendations (Alalwan et al. 2017; Kapoor et al. 2018). For all these reasons and more, about 93% of corporations around the world have adopted social media as part of their stakeholder engagement and marketing toolset (Alalwan et al. 2017).

Unlike consumers of traditional news media, social media users are not passive recipients of political information (Grover et al. 2018; Hossain et al. 2018). They are able and willing to use social media platforms to share their political views (Grover et al. 2018; Hossain et al. 2018). Activists can bring together political information from many sources to their preferred social media platform, providing a "one stop" clearinghouse of ideas for their stakeholders (Muhammed et al. 2017 cited in Hossain et al. 2018). Once gathered and disseminated, this information can be used to influence social media users' opinions on political matters and how corporations respond to them. Duggan and Smith (2016) report that one in five social media users changed their opinion on a political issue based on content they saw on social media (cited in Hossain et al. 2018). By extension, it is possible that information on social media regarding corporate political stands could cause users to adopt a different view of a corporation.

Given the factors described above, it has become essential for companies to move beyond the idea that the "business of business is business" (Friedman M., cited in Kennedy 2017, p. 3) and embrace the role they can play by engaging politically to solve social problems. By doing so, companies expand their role from sellers of goods and services and purveyors of jobs to creators of value through more engaged relationships with their stakeholders and society in general (Reiter 2016).

This chapter investigates the ways in which activists and corporations interact via social media, harnessing its power to take political stands and engage their stakeholders to create social change. The analysis includes a discussion of the elements needed to effectively engage activist and corporate constituents to achieve desired results, as well as the pitfalls to be avoided. Getting a political message wrong can be devastating and cause lasting damage to a brand, whether corporate or activist. Risks involved with taking a political stand must be carefully managed, partly by ensuring that messages are sincere and align with a corporation's values, as well as those of their stakeholders.

17.2   What Is Motivating the Trend Toward Companies Taking Public Political Stands?

Before describing the benefits of companies taking carefully considered and constructed political stands, it is important to understand why they are doing so. As previously stated, one of the main contributors to this trend is the increasing political polarization of American society and how it is changing the expectations of consumers, who want businesses to take a more active role in promoting social and political issues. According to the Pew Research Centre (2017), the percentage of Americans with ideologically consistent views has increased between 1994 and 2017. American political points of view have also become more tightly associated with partisanship, particularly for those considered politically engaged (Pew Research Centre 2017). The Pew Research Centre (2017) reports that in 2011, most Americans held political points view that were a mix of liberal and conservative ideologies. This changed dramatically in 2017, with far more Americans expressing political points of view that were "consistently liberal" or "consistently conservative" (Pew Research Centre 2017). In both 2011 and 2017, the polarization of American political points of view increased when party affiliation was added to the mix, though this divide was again much sharper in 2017 versus 2011 (Pew Research Centre 2017).

Political polarization is fed in part by social media (Grover et al. 2018). A phenomenon known as *homophily* tends to take place, whereby people use social media platforms to find others with the same political beliefs in order to bolster and justify their own, and to create a community (Himelboim et al. 2016 cited in Grover et al. 2018). Ironically, though many groups use social media to express political points of view and disseminate the information that is important to them, exposure to differing political views is unlikely as social media users don't tend to seek them out (Grover et al. 2018).

Whatever its roots, political polarization has led to much greater interest among the American public in the position of CEOs on social issues, which in turn affects their purchasing decisions (Dodd and Supa 2014). This is truer for millennials than any other generation (Weber Shandwick and KRC Research 2017). In 2017, 51% of Millennials reported being more likely to make a purchase from a company whose CEO shares their stand on a given political question than they would otherwise, an increase of 5% over 2016 (Weber Shandwick and KRC Research 2017). The story is different for members of Generation X, only 33% of whom say a company's political stand would affect their purchase intentions; baby boomers do not lag far behind at 30% (Weber Shandwick and KRC Research 2017). This means that while the opinions of Generation X and Baby Boomer consumers might lessen the need for corporations to take a political stand and could make doing so a bad idea for corporations who primarily cater to them, over time, as Millennials own a larger piece of the economy, taking a political stand will become more important across corporations (Weber Shandwick and KRC Research 2017).

A recent study by APCO (2018) further complicates the landscape for corporations by adding that the benefit to them of taking a stand on a political issue depends on the party affiliation of their customers and other stakeholders. For example, when confronted with the statement, "It is acceptable for companies to take a stand on a political or social issue, even if it is controversial," 56% of Republicans agreed, compared with 81% of Democrats (APCO 2018, p. 10). The partisan divide on corporate political stands can be broken down even further when looking at specific issues. When asked whether the statement "Global coffee company promises to hire 5000 refugees" improved readers' opinions of the company, 45% of Republicans answered "yes," compared with 83% of Democrats (APCO 2018, p. 11).

Given these statistics, it is obviously important for corporate actors to understand the demographics of their audience before taking a political stand on an issue. Add to this that many consumers associate themselves with a given brand to maintain their own positive self-image (Wan et al. 2016), and the need to carefully construct a company's messaging and overall political persona is brought into sharp focus.

Many consumers apply corporate brands to themselves figuratively the way property used to be branded literally (Raphael and Lam 2017). They do this by carefully considering their own audience, how they wish to be perceived by it, and how corporate affiliations will impact their image. In other words, consumers are carefully curating associations that feed their "perceived social recognition," or PSR (Hossain et al. 2018). An environmental activist choosing to wear a Patagonia t-shirt to display their allegiance to environmental causes lends legitimacy to the Patagonia brand as representing the same politics as the activist. Branding can be said to be reciprocal between companies and stakeholders, particularly when it comes to political identity.

Once consumers have bonded with a corporation on an image level, it will be important to them that the corporation continues to reflect what that consumer considers to be their mutual brand. For example, if being known for acting on its stated social or political values versus a profit motive forms a big part of a company's image, not taking a side on a political issue can be as fraught with risk as taking one vis à vis pleasing stakeholders (Korschun 2016, cited in Gaither et al. 2018). Even if a values-oriented company takes a political stand that its stakeholders do not like, the results in terms of consumer opinion are often better compared with taking no stand at all. Consumers and activists do not like corporate hypocrisy—if a company is supposed to care but appears not to, there will be consequences in the form of damage to their brand (Korschun 2016, cited in Gaither et al. 2018).

When it comes to the perceived sincerity or hypocrisy of a corporate political stand, no one is more central to the argument than the CEO (Weber Shandwick and KRC Research 2017). Examples of CEO political positions damaging brands abound. While Uber was facing allegations that its drivers had sexually assaulted women in several cities, its CEO, Travis Kalanick, was interviewed for an article in GQ magazine wherein he made a joke about how women were readily sexually available to him because of his fame (Kennedy 2017). Social media activists were incensed and made their feelings known, to the detriment of Uber's brand (Kennedy 2017). Chick-fil-a's CEO, S. Truett Cathy, well-known for his strongly held

Christian beliefs, gained notoriety both online and in the mainstream media by taking a stand against gay marriage (Gilkerson 2017).

CEO political values not only have the power to generate good and bad press but also affect decision-making about company priorities and direction (Chin et al. 2013). Politically liberal CEOs are more likely to continue investing in corporate social responsibility initiatives than their conservative counterparts (Chin et al. 2013). It is imperative that companies formulate stakeholder strategies that take their CEO's political values into consideration (Chin et al. 2013). CEOs need to manage the process of taking political stands to keep it aligned with marketing strategies (Kennedy 2017). Given the rising importance of corporate political stands in social media and beyond, it may be that in the future the political views of candidate CEOs and whether they mesh with a corporation's values and goals will become more important to the hiring process (Chin et al. 2013).

Along with the considerations outlined above, corporations and activists must learn effective strategy for attracting attention to, and action on, a political stand. The best strategies for drawing attention to a political stand include: (1) use social media activism to attract like-minded stakeholders to the cause, (2) get a lot of attention from the mainstream media to involve interested parties who are not engaged already via social media, and (3) interest state actors (legislators and government officials) in your cause (Uldam 2016; Dixon et al. 2016; Kennedy 2017). In the case of state actor involvement, the threat they pose of potential legislation or industry regulation is a powerful inducement for corporate entities to pay attention to an issue (Kennedy 2017). Most corporations prefer to self-regulate when they see an issue gaining strong support from powerful state actors rather than waiting for the government to impose regulations on them (Kennedy 2017).

Some of the examples of social media and corporate activism that follow exemplify the tenets of this three-pronged strategy, most notably that of Dick's Sporting Goods and the school shooting in Parkland, Florida in February 2018.

17.3   How Do Companies Communicate Their Political Stands? Examples from the Social Media Trenches

Few examples of social media activism have achieved the visibility of the #NeverAgain student movement for gun control, which came out of the shooting tragedy at Marjory Stoneman Douglas High School in Parkland, Florida in February of 2018. Students from Marjory Stoneman Douglas organized thousands of their peers in social media activism promoting gun control (Pasarow 2018). Many retailers including Dick's Sporting Goods, Avis, Enterprise, Delta Airlines, and others took note of the groundswell of online support for the Parkland students' stand on gun control and cut all ties with the NRA (Pasarow 2018). Dick's Sporting Goods stood out among them because the shooter responsible for the Parkland tragedy purchased a gun from the company, though it was not used at Marjorie Stoneman Douglas on the day of the shooting (Pasarow 2018).

In the weeks following the shooting, Dick's Sporting Goods changed the age to purchase guns at its stores from 18 to 21, a move receiving an unexpectedly favorable reaction from most Americans; 70% of comments on social media about Dick's new policies on gun sales and its stand on gun violence were positive (Gaither et al. 2018). In an interview with CNN about the retailer's policy change, Dick's CEO, Edward Stack, explained, "We don't want to be a part of this story any longer" (CNN Money 2018, 2:36, cited in Gaither et al. 2018, p. 181). He cited the Parkland students' activism as the reason he had chosen to do something about gun control and said that the company chose to take its political stand publicly in order to spur other corporations and stakeholders to join them and create meaningful change (Gaither et al. 2018). The very public stand the Parkland students took against gun violence, both on social media and in person, inspired Dick's to make their stand public as well (Gaither et al. 2018).

Mr. Stack didn't stop there—he also issued a memo containing a bulleted list of gun control policies that he wants the US government to enact (McGregor 2018). The stand Mr. Stack and his company took on gun control also provided them with a vehicle through which they could publicly restate what he saw as his company's long-standing values, namely, that sports can have a positive impact on people's lives (Gaither et al. 2018).

The lesson in this example is that though Millennials are a subset of the American populace, they are expert social media users and can galvanize support for causes overnight. Corporations ignore them at their peril. The Parkland students, along with Dick's Sporting Goods' executive, also mastered the three main tenets of successful social media activism—they built support for their cause on social media, used that momentum to get the attention of the mainstream media, and involved politicians in their cause to create legislative change. In the year following the Parkland shooting, Florida raised the age to buy a gun from 18 to 21, banned people with relevant mental health issues from purchasing guns, and set up a system allowing law enforcement officers to remove guns from individuals deemed a threat to themselves or others (Melendez 2019). Many other states including Washington, Vermont, New Jersey, California, Louisiana, and New York passed laws further restricting gun sales and ownership (Melendez 2019).

Although most saw the Parkland students' and Dick's Sporting Goods' activism as positive, their message had its detractors. Fox News host Laura Ingraham criticized #NeverAgain activist David Hogg for not achieving acceptance at the colleges of his choice (Tuttle 2018). His reaction was to call his 660,000 Twitter followers to action, telling them to write to Ingraham's advertisers saying they will boycott them if they continue advertising on her show (Tuttle 2018). The results? Of the 12 advertisers Hogg identified on Twitter, 11 announced they would no longer advertise on Ingraham's show, with many issuing statements clearly meant to appeal to the young people who initiated the boycott (Tuttle 2018). For example, Nestlé wrote "Hey, thanks for letting us know how you feel (and your neat space stuff)—we have no plans to buy ads on the show in the future" (Tuttle 2018, para. 19). Other advertisers were careful to note that Ingraham's comments were "inconsistent with their values." or words to that effect (Tuttle 2018, para. 17).

Though David Hogg and his followers undoubtedly did some damage to Laura Ingraham's reputation and managed to pull her off the air for a week or two, it is unlikely that Fox News suffered much hardship from this campaign as the channel has a reputation for taking controversial stands. Its stakeholders like the largely conservative, often inflammatory opinions the channel's stars express. If, as Brayden King (2008) suggests, the power of boycotts to create change depends on their ability to hurt corporate reputations, Fox News's brand likely escaped long-term damage.

The situation with Laura Ingraham's comments on the Parkland students illustrates that celebrities are not immune to the influence of activists on social media. In fact, celebrities are often recruited by companies as brand representatives because of their fan followings. In his foreword, P. David Marshall posits that celebrities "possess emotional connections to their audiences, which is convertible into an affective connection to the associated product that they endorse or embrace in some way" (Raphael and Lam 2017, p. 1). Celebrities offer the good feelings their fans have for them as a type of commodity for corporations to appropriate, or in a sense, purchase.

The endorsement deal between Colin Kaepernick and Nike illustrates how this relationship works, with a political activism twist. Kaepernick, a quarterback with the San Francisco 49ers, became famous worldwide by kneeling when the American anthem was played at NFL games, his way of protesting police brutality and racial injustice in America (Dudharejia 2018). Fans of Kaepernick's political stand, and of the man himself, fit well with Nike's consumer base of young, liberal, urban-dwelling people (Dudharejia 2018). As this demographic also heavily favors companies that take political stands (Weber Shandwick and KRC Research 2017), Kaepernick's association with anti-racism politics makes the match even better. The new Nike slogan on the Kaepernick ads, "Believe in something, even if it means sacrificing everything," could really be applied to Kaepernick, Nike, or their shared fan base.

Through the ads featuring Kaepernick, buying Nike Shoes became synonymous with supporting anti-racist political stands. This meaning is amplified by the fact that Donald Trump came out against Kaepernick taking a knee at NFL games—Nike shoes could be said to be an anti-Trump statement, as well. As Spellings (2018, para. 4) puts it, "Now, by aligning itself with Kaepernick, Nike stands for a new kind of activism and has new power."

With Kaepernick as its spokesperson, Nike has found a brilliant way to profit from the increasing polarization of American political views and the expectation from American consumers that corporations will join in and take a side. The company's stock hit an all-time high in September 2018, directly following the Kaepernick ad campaign's launch (Dudharejia 2018).

However, things are rarely so simple when corporations take controversial political stands. Critics who are aware of the bad working conditions in Nike's factories in Vietnam, Thailand, and Taiwan attacked the company, calling it hypocritical (Spellings 2018). One social media activist, Hoda Kotebi, wrote "Rad @Nike is backing @Kaepernick7 rn, but I wish they'd also back the garment workers of color they exploit in their sweatshops, bc you know they also exist & backing dope ppl

doesn't justify ur violence abroad. If we pro justice for ppl of color, let's not be exclusive" (cited in Spellings 2018, para. 2).

Though it makes sense that Nike wanted the relationship with Kaepernick out of genuine concern about racism in America and as a means by which it could form a closer bond with its consumer base, it could be argued that they may also have hoped that it could provide an opportunity to clean up their own history with exploitation. This process is called corporate social responsibility (CSR) washing (Pope and Waeraas 2016). Even if Nike hoped its relationship with Kaepernick would help clean up its reputation, this should not mean that we dismiss Nike's anti-racist political action in America. Nike should be praised for its stand with Kaepernick against racism, while being held responsible for its actions abroad (Spellings 2018).

Another case of a company receiving more than the share they were expecting of positive social media attention over a political stand comes from investment firm State Street Global Advisors (SSGA). The night before Women's Day, 2017 SSGA unveiled a statue called Fearless Girl, a 50-in.-tall bronze statue of a girl with a very defiant look on her face and her hands on her hips (Richards 2017). She was placed facing Wall Street's Charging Bull statue (Richards 2017). SSGA hired advertising firm McCann New York to come up with the concept, apparently on a very tight budget (Richards 2017). SSGA didn't invest any money in paid media for the statue or its unveiling, but the social media response was nothing short of staggering. Twitter impressions about Fearless Girl reached over one billion in the first 12 h of her existence. She brought in $7.4 million in free TV, social media, and radio advertising for SSGA (Richards 2017).

Fearless Girl's creation was not conceived to promote SSGA itself, but as a reflection of the company's values when it comes to women's empowerment. Fearless Girl's purpose is to raise awareness of SSGA's SHE fund, through which they invest solely in companies who put women in high-level leadership positions (Richards 2017). The investment paid off—Fearless Girl increased the trading volume of the fund by 384% over the 3 days following her unveiling, and 170% in the 20 business days following that (Richards 2017). The world fell so in love with Fearless Girl that 40,000 people petitioned SSGA to keep her in place through 2018 (Richards 2017). Though her face may look defiant to some, SSGA says her expression means "I want to participate in the American economy in this notion of American prosperity that Wall Street represents." (Richards 2017, para. 11).

The sincerity behind Fearless Girl is a huge part of her charm and effectiveness. SSGA lives the values embodied in Fearless Girl by educating the companies it invests in on the performance advantages that hiring women to a Board of Directors can generate (Richards 2017). Out of 476 companies that SSGA invests in, 76 heard the message about hiring women. The firm dropped the other 400 (Richards 2017). There is a clean, unbroken line between SSGA's corporate values and objectives—to invest in companies it believes can be profitable, which for SSGA means hiring women at high levels—and its stated political stand on women's empowerment. The response of stakeholders is a testament to SSGA's ability to proactively and positively engage with them in a way that can only increase the value of their brand over time.

17.4 What Are the Limits of Social Media Activism as an Agent of Corporate and Political Change?

While the examples in this chapter show that social media activists can have an impact on corporate policy and action, there are limits on their power. These limits apply primarily when a corporation simply doesn't view the issue social activist are taking on as one that can cause damage to their brand, or when a corporation doesn't have much public visibility and is therefore less susceptible to attempts by social media (or other) activists to discredit them and cause brand damage (Kennedy 2017; Uldam 2016; Dixon et al. 2016).

It is also important to acknowledge that there are sometimes tensions between the profit motive of a corporation and the goals of an activist group that prevent collaboration (Uldam 2016; Dixon et al. 2016), and that though activists may change corporate behavior through social media action, this does not always translate into change that promotes their movements' overarching goals (Dauvergne 2017).

In addition, Uldam (2016) argues that the structure of the internet vis à vis the issue of visibility favors the ability of corporations to shut activists out when they want or need to for brand preservation. It is not always safe for activists to identify themselves, but many social media platforms require this in order to host your web page, blog, account, etc. Uldam (2016) provides the example of anti-BP (British Petroleum) activists on WordPress. They set up a web page with a URL called "f***ingthefuture.org.uk," a play on words derived from BP's slogan "fueling the future" (Uldam 2016, p. 213). The activists behind f***ingthefuture.org.uk didn't want to provide the site's host, WordPress, with their names or addresses given the extra security live and online in London in preparation for the 2012 Olympics, which is when they registered the domain (Uldam 2016). When BP notified WordPress of their objection to the activist website based on an argument of brand infringement, WordPress was able to use the activists' non-adherence to their terms of use by refusing to provide a name and address to remove the site (Uldam 2016).

The BP example shows that though social media activists can and do monitor corporate activity and political stands, the same can be done to them by corporations (Uldam 2016). Activists sharing political content online also run the risk of social sanction through loss of friends and legal action including potential imprisonment (Hossain et al. 2018). An activist cited in Uldam named Yossarian, an Indymedia programmer, describes political action on social media this way, "It's like holding all your political meetings at McDonalds and ensuring that the police come and film while you do so" (2016, p. 210). Ironically, the power of social media to make things public and force corporate and political change can also be a source of risk for activists and a means for monitoring them and shutting them down (Uldam 2016; Hossain et al. 2018).

Notwithstanding the issues presented above, it is certainly still true that some collaborations between social activists and corporations have produced astoundingly profound messages that contribute positively to society and to corporations' bottom lines. The difficulties and limitations involved should not be reasons to stop

this work, but they do beg the question, how can corporations take political stands in ways that are beneficial to themselves, activists, and society?

17.5   Practical Steps Companies Can Take to Craft a Political Stand

All companies taking a political stand would love to have the outcome that State Street Global Advisors achieved with Fearless Girl, but how can they accomplish this? Weber Shandwick and KRC Research (2017) list the following key considerations:

1. Ensure your message fits with your company's actions and values. Sincerity is key.
2. Know your audience. If it is mostly comprised of American Millennials, a stand is likely not just advisable, but required.
3. Establish the risk of taking the stand vis à vis your audience. No matter what constituency you are appealing to, not all of them will be onboard with your message.
4. Assess the impact of the message on employees—will they feel less loyal and included in the company's culture after the stand is taken?
5. Discuss the stand you are going to take with your board of directors.
6. Think before you speak. Take the time to plan your message and get it right.
7. Consider partnering with other companies to support the cause at hand.
8. Consult the company's PR department first.
9. Consider tone of voice and the method of delivery for your message and whether they match the message itself.
10. Have a crisis preparedness plan in place before you say or do anything.

Companies must also strategize around how they will engage with activists that have an interest in how they do business. Kennedy (2017) suggests that there are seven steps to success for businesses that wish to engage in taking political stands for the benefit of themselves and society.

1. Align. Companies should align themselves and their activities with the idea that they exist to benefit their bottom lines as well as society (Kennedy 2017). They should engage in social and political activities that relate to the company's core business and values to emphasize the authenticity of their actions. Kennedy (2017) cites the example of Nike promoting the importance of exercise, a move that benefitted its bottom line by selling more merchandise as people participate more in sports and provided benefits to society in the form of improving people's health.
2. Anticipate. Assess potential risks to the company's brand from activists, and also identify opportunities to collaborate with them to help the company create social value (Kennedy 2017).
3. Assess. When activists bring up a concern, assess whether it is legitimate and should be addressed as such by the company (Kennedy 2017). Also assess what

strategy the company should use in dealing with the concern (Kennedy 2017). What will move the company forward—confronting activists or collaborating with them on the issue at hand?

4. Avert. If activists have taken up a legitimate issue but collaborating with them doesn't benefit the company, propose solutions that help the company avert damage to its reputation while addressing activist concerns (Kennedy 2017).

5. Acquiesce. If the cost of fighting an illegitimate claim by activists is not worth any benefits that can be derived for the company, acquiesce (Kennedy 2017).

6. Advance. When social activists pursue a legitimate political issue that also benefits the company, collaborate with them and other corporations and/or state actors to promote the issue together (Kennedy 2017).

7. Assemble. Gather together businesses with similar interests to fight illegitimate claims of activists where acquiescing would cost the company too much money (Kennedy 2017).

17.6 Conclusion

There is much doubt among activists, academics, and the population in general about the social good corporations can do and their motivations when they take social and political stands on issues (Kennedy 2017; Pope and Waeraas 2016). For collaboration to happen between social activists and corporations and for the public to believe in the possibilities these coalitions can create, corporations acting authentically is vital. Companies pretending to care, or associating themselves with people who genuinely do, is not enough. Social activists will not compromise their principles to engage with corporations in solving problems unless corporations are truly committed and want social and political change as badly as activists do.

The example of Amazon's recent attempt to secure a second headquarters in New York City exemplifies the wasted opportunities that can happen when corporations do not look beyond the profit motive to identify the social value they can add. The vetting process Amazon used to choose a city for its new headquarters was kept secret, creating mistrust among activists and the public (Rubin 2019). The company also did not consider the damage to its brand that reports of worker abuses and interference with attempts to unionize had done (Rubin 2019). That, along with Amazon's demand that the cities vying for the headquarters project provide them with massive tax cuts, that they would occupy a space in Queens that had been set aside for schools, social housing, and parks, and that city officials were sidelined during negotiations in favor of state-level government, created community outrage (Heater 2019). What could have been a project that created jobs and added value to society was cancelled because Amazon did not take the time to understand how its brand would mesh with the political and activist environment it was trying to enter.

Social media has made it very easy for the public to access information about corporate activities and political issues at a level and speed that is unprecedented in human history. Not to harness this power, along with the money and clout corpora-

tions have and the vision and passion of activists, to benefit society is a waste of opportunity that will cost humankind. Hopefully, all stakeholders in the society can push against the barrier of political polarization and myth-making around the corporation as self-concerned to create opportunities for meaningful social change.

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Chapter 18
Using Layout Review and Messaging Analysis to Form Localization Hypotheses: An Example for Localization of E-Commerce Female Clothing Websites for the Russian Market

Check for updates

Ekaterina Howard

18.1 Introduction

It is widely accepted that localization and cultural customization lead to higher customer intent, longer time on page, and better consumer attitudes (Dray and Siegel 2006; Singh 2012). However, evidence suggests that in many cases cultural differences remain unresolved in the localization of promotional materials (Furner 2018). This is unfortunate, because it is often the case that local culture can have a direct impact on the way the website is perceived. For example, using images with testimonials on a house-cleaning website—a no-brainer for any US-based business—is perceived as undesirable by users in Singapore (Sherwin 2016).

Websites—in their native or localized form—need to fulfill a number of purposes, from providing information to persuading the users to perform a specific action—to click on a button or make a purchase—and incorporate a variety of elements, such as graphical symbols or imagery on page (Jimenez-Crespo 2013), which have a significant impact on how a webpage is perceived (Chiaro et al. 2008) and how well the website as a whole is able to fulfill its purpose.

For the website to work well on a different market, all of the elements have to align with the local market's expectations. In other words, "[l]ocalization—or fitting a product to the users and context of another country—is not simply a matter of translation" (Dray and Siegel 2006).

Hofstede's cultural dimensions are frequently mentioned as a way of preparing a website for adaptation (DBS Interactive 2015; Cermak and Smutny 2018). However, they do not take into account the need to speak to a specific audience, not to a country as whole, i.e., to take into account the requirements and expectations of a

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particular part of the country population, which may or may not correlate with the expectations based on Hofstede's dimensions (as seen below).

Therefore, it makes sense from a marketing standpoint to approach website localization as an audience-driven project. As Buchanan stresses, "[it] is important to know demographics, psychographics, and more specifically what buying process and communication style an audience prefers when shopping for a product or service" (Buchanan 2012), even though this might seem overwhelming when you are writing for a different audience in another country.

While in the beginning of the digital age it was true that "[i]n the case of publicly available Internet sites, one of the frequently mentioned translation problems is the apparent lack of any specific target user, since the site may in principle be accessed by anyone at all" (Pym 2009), these days a wide variety of online tracking tools make it much easier to collect information about your users and discover their demographic and psychographic profile, from GoogleAnalytics (Anonymous 2019a) to Hotjar (Anonymous 2019b) to local tools, such as Yandex.Metrica in Russia (Anonymous 2019c).

Such tools facilitate on-page polls and surveys, as well as show traffic sources and pinpoint what exactly is going on on-page, such as the pop-up survey on this page of Mothercare's localized Russian website asking visitors the reason for their visit, as does Mothercare on their Russian website (Anonymous 2019d).

While factors affecting customer satisfaction on an e-commerce website may be the same across the globe (Albert and Sanders 2003), it is quite likely that, for example, Russians might want to verify whether or not your website is the "official" website, as opposed to a knock-off masquerading as the real deal (Leach 2018).

You might decide that to satisfy your target Russian audience's need for additional assurance and trust you will need to include more trust-building details on your localized website.

From a marketing standpoint, it is just as necessary to realize that a localization project is not happening in a vacuum. It is very likely that visitors to a localized website will have researched competitors' websites as well—both localized and local ones. Therefore, localization project managers or the marketing team should also be aware of what competitors' messaging is, as this will impact their prospective customers' state of mind (Wiebe 2017).

As research shows, "[u]sers also make consistent subjective ratings about the trustworthiness and perceived usability of web pages after only 50 ms of viewing" (Jahanian et al. 2018), which means that any localized website has to appeal to prospective buyers in a very short amount of time.

Understanding messaging, especially the hero section that is the focus of a visitor's attention in the first few seconds, will allow you to make some hypotheses as to what matters most to the target audience (Shapiro 2019), which will inform possible changes to the localized website.

In addition, reviewing the layout of local competitors' websites can give you an idea of which changes to make, or to test, such as by applying the LIFT model to evaluate localization changes (Anonymous 2019e).

Comparing homepage layouts of local and localized websites can help form a hypothesis on which webpage elements might need to be moved to a more prominent position to retain visitors. For example, comparing the messaging of female apparel e-commerce websites in Russia can reveal significant differences between local and localized websites.

18.2   Analysis of Messaging and Layout on Localized and Local Russian-Language E-Commerce Female Apparel Websites

18.2.1   Gathering Initial Information

Before launching into competitor website review, it is worthwhile to gather market information from online sources to have additional data points for decision-making.

As far as the Russian online female apparel market goes, the following information can be readily found:

- Sixty-two percent of Russians buying from e-commerce websites were repeat purchasers, 48% picked a site because they knew the web address for it, and 41% were following recommendations from friends and family (Anonymous 2017).
- Seventy percent of Russians prefer to pay on delivery, 62% do not feel comfortable providing their credit card information online (Anonymous 2016).
- Offers and discounts are the main contributors to a purchasing decision, followed by free delivery (Bafico 2017).

It is important to remember, however, that trends and country-wide data do not replace target-audience research. Rather, just as the messaging and the layout analysis, they serve as stepping stones to conducting in-country research—for example, testing a hypothesis that many members of the target audience might be interested in a COD option (just as it is apparently possible to pay cash for an Uber ride in India (Sherwin 2016)).

18.2.2   Sites to Review: Russian and Localized Websites

While this is by no means an exhaustive comparison, it is a good starting point to analyze the differences in layout and messaging between websites with slightly different price segments and to see how messaging and layout differ based on brand aspirations and the target audience.

18.2.2.1   Russian Websites

- Rise (Anonymous 2018a)
- Sogrevay (Anonymous 2018b)
- BStatement (Anonymous 2018c)
- 12Storeez (Anonymous 2018d)

18.2.2.2   Localized Websites of Foreign Brands

- H&M (Anonymous 2018e)
- Zara (Anonymous 2018f)
- SheIn (Anonymous 2018g)
- Next (Anonymous 2018h)

18.2.3   Layout and Messaging of Local E-Commerce Female Clothing Websites (Table 18.1)

12Storeez appears to be an outlier with a heavily image-based layout and low-priority promotions. All the other websites display drastically more information on their homepages, especially in the header, including phone numbers and addresses.

Another notable feature is the prominent display of delivery info and wide availability of call and/or chat options. If you look at customer reviews on RISE, you will see that a lot of buyers clearly order by phone and value interaction with operators (Anonymous 2018a) (Table 18.2).

12Storeez appears to be an outlier again. Other homepages contain different amounts of copy, depending on the perceived need to build trust (and it is not just a matter of their stage of awareness, more about level of sophistication: one can assume that RISE customers are less comfortable with online shops than the presumably more urban BStatement and 12Storeez buyers).

18.2.4   Layout and Messaging of Localized E-Commerce Female Clothing Websites (Table 18.3)

Out of these websites, Zara is one with a homepage design very much in line with that of 12Storeez, focusing on visuals instead of text elements on the homepage. The busiest hero section with multiple notification tabs is undoubtedly on the SheIn website.

Other localized websites use the top navigation area to display site links instead of promotional banners.

Table 18.1 Layout table comparison: Russian websites

Website	RISE	Sogrevay	BStatement	12Storeez
Header navigation area	Notification bar: toll-free phone number, company address, company phone number Menu: logo, homepage, payment and delivery terms, about, news, contact information Menu second level: login, cart Menu third level (highlighted): collections by season, new collections, sale, youth fashion	Above menu: social media links, toll-free phone number, login and registration, cart, search Menu: collections, terms of purchase (drop-down menu with links)	Notification bar: free delivery terms Eyebrow copy above logo: phone number, customer service info, login, cart Logo Menu: collections, gift sets, about, blog, showroom information	Overlay for scrolling: menu, logo, favorites, cart
Hero section	Spring collection announcement banner (no link, no sale) Below image: delivery information, payment information, terms of return, reviews	Slider with 2 promos (new collection and sales), welcome running line	Collection, value statement	New collection tiles
Main page area	Collections by categories, toll-free numbers, social media links Blurb about the internet shop (condensed information from the About page): 4 paragraphs	Free delivery promotion, product slider, "Why buy from us" section (in all caps), new product reviews	Positioning, more collections, blog (news, how collections are prepared, history), social media feed	More collection tiles, break-out tile in the third line with newsletter subscription
Footer	Footer: newsletter subscription, menu links, client references, information on product delivery partner	Footer: site links, social media, toll-free numbers, payment option logos, search, site map, company address	Footer: site links, promo link, payment option logos, social media logos, subscription form	Overlay for scrolling: language versions, reviews, social media logos, store locations, contact information
Sidebars and pop-up elements	Sidebar: live chat	Right-side bar: request a phone call option	n/a	Pop-up: subscription

Table 18.2 Homepage messaging table comparison: Russian websites

Website	RISE	Sogrevay	BStatement	12Storeez
Homepage messaging	New collection Trust-building links Collections Contact information Social media Trust-building information about the company Newsletter Repeated trust-building information Trust-building information about delivery partner	Incentives to buy Collections Incentives to buy (advantages spelled out) Trustworthiness (customer reviews)	Comfort Quality Affordability	Collection browsing

Next is another outlier among the localized websites: in addition to prominently displaying a phone number, it also has a section with local influencer copy (Table 18.4).

Next again seems to be more in line with the local Russian websites, as opposed to global by design Zara and H&M.

SheIn, on the other hand, firmly places value on displaying as many products as possible on their homepage and on driving sales with offers and promotions.

18.3 Forming Localization Hypotheses

18.3.1 Differentiation by Price Segment

Lower-price-segment websites offer a more crowded look, with several promotions shown simultaneously, whereas more high-end websites feature a visuals-centered layout with less emphasis on promotions or special offers. Russian brands with luxury aspirations tend to go for the "foreign" look and even sometimes use English in their copy. For example, only one link in the Ushatava menu is in Russian (Anonymous 2018i). Still, most Russian websites provide more context information about their companies on the homepage than the localized websites, as well as provide toll-free phone numbers and company address in their header or footer sections.

Table 18.3 Layout table comparison: localized websites

Website	H&M	Zara	SheIn	Next
Layout	Eyebrow copy left: customer service and newsletter links, drop-down menu for mobile users Eyebrow copy right: my account, login, favorites, cart Below eyebrow copy: logo, menu, including sales, search	Eyebrow copy: login, contact information, cart Below eyebrow copy: search + logo Menu positioning: left side, by category, storyboards, sustainable development, sub-menu with other categories	Notification bars: 1. Personal discount 2. Bar with two promotions placed together Below bars: country of delivery, currency, promo banner with sales carousel, logo, login, customer support, search, favorites, cart Menu: categories, trends, sale Below menu: bar with most popular categories	Eyebrow copy: logo, search, my account, quick shop link, customer service, toll-free phone number, cart, language indicator Menu: categories, including sales Below menu: offers (free next-day delivery, announcement about COD terms), English website link
Hero section	Country-specific sales banner	Slider with collections and announcements	May holidays sale promotion	Sales announcement
Main page area	New collection banner, free delivery offer, female clothing collection models breakout, one-column collection sections, breakout with 3 CTAs: mobile app, newsletter, and premium quality collection. Storyboard and gallery	None	Collections, style gallery with search by style support	Collections lead, Russian influencer's choices, collections, social media, information on delivery and returns, store locator, payment options, Russian partners
Footer	Footer: H&M Magazine (in English), site links	Newsletter subscription form and social media icons, site links	Menu links, social media, links to apps, newsletter subscription form, protected website logos	Menu, social media links
Sidebars and pop-up elements			Sidebar: incentive to register (subscribe)	

Table 18.4 Homepage messaging table comparison: localized websites

Website	H&M	Zara	SheIn	Next
Homepage messaging	Sales Collections Mobile app Newsletters Social	Collections Newsletter Social	Discounts Collections	Sales Collections Local influencer Collections Social media Risk reducers

18.3.2   Social Proof and/or Appeal to Authority

Many Russian websites have either testimonials or visible links to testimonials on the homepage, instead of displaying them under a product, as many e-commerce stores do both within Russia and abroad (Anonymous 2019f, g, h). It is possible that the reviews also help buyers self-select based on the tone of voice and style of the reviews; in many cases, "About" pages are also written to facilitate self-selection by describing the target audience. Studies show that identifying with a particular group makes people more inclined to act—be it show up to vote (Bryan et al. 2011) or purchase family-style sweaters (Anonymous 2018j)

18.3.3   Influencers

Influencer content was available only on one website (localized). However, the 12Storeez brand is built around the designers/owners, so in this case they serve as influencers for their own brand

These hypotheses suggest testing the following possible changes to a localized website's messaging and layout:

- More prominent placement for terms of delivery and payment options
- Adding secure payment information or logos
- Adding more trust signals (social proof, appeal to authority, secure payment information)
- Offering local delivery and payment options
- Including customer reviews

18.4   Recommendations

Often, website localization projects are performed outside of the marketing context and with minimal information on the prospective target audience provided to the localization department or the outsources. This means that the localization is performed in vacuum, outside of the audience research and competitor research realm.

While launching a full-scope marketing research can understandably be seen as challenging or cost-prohibitive, a wide variety of online tools, from site analytics to user research services, can make research of a foreign audience easier to perform, which, in turn, can make localized websites appear more trustworthy, increase their usability and thus positively affect conversion rates.

18.5   Conclusion

While localization is frequently performed in a silo, making localization decisions based on marketing and sales information for a given country and using marketing tools to conduct research should make localized websites more effective in achieving their communicative goal. If no customer information is readily available for a specific locale, competitor messaging and homepage layout analysis can serve as the first step towards identifying possibilities for website adaptation and localization, which can then be tested and applied.

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Chapter 19
Online Product Localization: Challenges and Solutions in Global Online Marketplaces

Mandi Ciocca

19.1 Introduction

The San Lorenzo Leather Markets in Florence, Les Puces de Saint-Ouen in Paris, and the Queen Vic Market in Melbourne are open-air marketplaces that demonstrate the physical interaction between buyer and vendor in a multi-seller environment. Culture is so impactful that truly meaningful exchanges between people cannot occur without it (Hall 1989). This holds true in the actions of buying and selling. Vendors must market their products with the intention of appealing to the culture of their audience in order to successfully reach their customers. But how can this be done when interaction shifts from physical to virtual? How can sellers interact with buyers culturally in an online marketplace?

19.2 What Are Online Marketplaces and Who Uses them?

While physical storefronts still hold a strong presence globally, advances in technical and increased accessibility to the internet have consumers fulfilling their shopping needs elsewhere. In 2016, there were 1.52 billion online shoppers across the globe (Statista n.d.), and this number is forecasted to rise to 2 billion within just 4 years, by 2020. Whether looking for a specific item or browsing many products to find the right one, consumers have unlimited options in doing so online. With the forecasted number of smartphone users growing to 2.5 billion this year (Statista n.d.), there is only a stronger indication that shoppers will move from in-store to online as they then have ability to search for an unlimited amount of products in every vertical all

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within the palm of their hands. Mobile shopping apps have added an additional level of convenience. As users are "...more likely to download an app that offers product ranges broader than one store can offer," (Kestenbaum 2017), marketplaces stand to benefit from this emerging trend. Recently, use of online marketplaces has exploded both on mobile and desktop, capturing 62% of all online shoppers (Wallace 2019). In the 2017 entitled "The UPS Pulse of the Online Shopper," we learn that 38% of all online shoppers in the United States begin their online shopping research in the online marketplace (UPS 2017). The most popular US online marketplaces are also extremely popular globally, think eBay, Amazon, and Google Shopping, along with sites like Alibaba and Aliexpress from China that draw users from all over the world. Whether a marketplace is vertical, horizontal, small, or large, nationally diverse users come to see what international sellers can offer them. International marketplaces are also extremely beneficial for the seller as they increase the online presence and accessibility of their products. This can boost sales and in fact "Amazon claims that sellers often report a 50% increase in sales when they join the Amazon marketplace" (TranslateMedia 2015). Vendors cannot solely rely on the popularity of marketplace shopping online in order to increase their sales. With expansion comes competition to produce the best user experience and products to this international audience that is continually growing. This then begs the question, how do you reach customers in different locales while using a global marketplace and ensure that they receive an optimal user experience despite cultural and linguistic barriers?

Localization efforts need to be taken in order to target products towards your audience but as marketplaces are made up of culturally diverse audiences, difficulties in this process can arise. Localizing products in a large online marketplace can be challenging not only in translating the content accurately but also considering the sociocultural distance and diverse cultural values that exist between seller and customer and among customers themselves. Examples of these issues can be detected among merchants selling on US and international marketplaces varying in size, popularity, and product space. How can these localization issues be addressed? What is the best way to scale localization efforts in order to reach such a diverse crowd of users?

19.3   Why is Marketplace Localization Important?

First, one must consider the pros and cons of product localization, the process of adapting linguistic and sociocultural aspects for individual cultures, versus standardization, creating uniform product standards on a global scale. Why can't a merchant simply standardize their product feed and display it on various marketplaces? Specifically, if English is the second most spoken language among native and non-native speakers worldwide, it seems to be an easy decision to standardize your product feed to reach that large demographic. In fact, if you browse various international marketplaces in different locales, you will find a large amount of products that are either entirely in the English language and also those that have only translated

product titles but the remaining product metadata is in English. One advantage of standardization as having "...easier control, monitoring, and coordination with a single tactical approach since the same products and advertising strategies are adopted," (Nguyen 2016). However, the vast majority of users prefer to shop in their own language as it provides a stronger sense of trust and familiarity, particularly in an online marketplace where smaller vendors compete with globally recognized and credible brands. In fact, a report done by Forrester (2013) found that 42% of the largely bilingual European online shopping community will only shop and make purchases of products in their native language. If almost half of these online shoppers are more prone to show interest in products listed in their target language, language standardization may affect clicks, conversions, and overall user engagement from this large portion of online shoppers. Apart from personal preferences, issues of cultural distance come into play with standardizing a product for one global audience.

The Sociocultural environment in an international marketplace includes a multitude of languages, cultures, colors, and symbols that will not appeal to every user equally. Products sold on a marketplace are essentially advertisements for that product and the brand as a whole. The representation of those products in their title, description, attributes, images, and other metadata need to be adapted both linguistically and culturally dependent on the audience the seller hopes to reach. For example, if your product, even if translated to the target language, has a description that tells a narrative rather than presenting the main functions and specs of the product, it may not have much success in a low context, individualistic culture that would prefer to know the functionality of the product outright. This concept can also extend to the title of the product. Consumers from a high context culture may overlook your product if the title is simple and generic and those from a low context culture may find longer, "markety" titles to include too much extraneous information to be relevant to their search needs. Interpretation of the product image can also be affected by these contextually different cultural values. If your product contains multiple images showing the product in use by other consumers so that a buyer can relate to the usability, this may appeal to a high context culture. On the other hand, a low context culture may prefer direct images of product use and angles.

While product representation in different cultural environments is important to consider, it is also important to localize these products to benefit search optimization and reliability of product data. Particularly relevant to this topic is the actual accurate translation of all pertinent info for that product. Are the concept, object, and term all in agreement? Additionally, is your metadata accurate and are your keywords being used properly so that the audience can find and engage with your product among the many competing products also available in this marketplace? There is fault in using too many keywords to draw a larger audience by reducing reliability and trust that your product is indeed what it claims to be. This outdated search engine optimization tactic appears spammy and, in fact, is against Google Webmaster's definition of quality content. These questions can help determine if users can easily find your product in search and then click through to consider for purchase.

19.4 Examples of Localization Issues on International Marketplaces and Proposed Solutions

19.4.1 Google Shopping

With 20+ locales, Google Shopping has a dominant global presence. Merchants from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds may choose to advertise their products in various locales. This however can cause issues when translation and localization efforts are not made. For example, given the proximity in location, it is likely that merchants from Mexico, a Spanish speaking country, may choose to have their products displayed on the US version of Google Shopping. There may also be reasons that a Mexican merchant may choose linguistic standardization and not translate their product feed into English. Roughly 14% of American residents speak Spanish as their first or second language. According to a 2016 study, there are 37.2 million Spanish speakers in five US states alone - California, Texas, Florida, New York, and Illinois (US Census Bureau 2018). In fact, if you do a search on Google Shopping for *mochila* (backpack) in the en-US locale, you do return a large amount of results that are indeed backpacks. This however can be problematic in terms of violation of policy. Guidelines for Google's Merchant Center, where merchants are able to manage their product feeds for display on Google Shopping, states that you must use the supported currency and language for the locale in which you are advertising (Google Merchant Center Help n.d.). Additionally, as Google Shopping does not have a Google-hosted checkout page, the landing page for your product must also be in that supported language. While there are locales that support multiple languages, i.e., Switzerland can support English, Italian, German, and French, the only supported language for the US locale is English. Therefore, although a merchant may think it beneficial to appeal to Spanish speaking users residing in the States, they may face penalties and suspensions by supplying products in an unsupported language. Most importantly, their products may simply not be advertised, which eliminates the possibility that a user can even enter the purchase funnel as they are not able to even view your product. It does appear that some merchants use both *mochila* and *backpack* in their product titles and supply the rest of their metadata in English, perhaps in order to satisfy this language requirement. In order to avoid such issues, merchants should certainly abide by the guidelines of the marketplace and consider that this sort of bilingual tactic may not yield positive results, particularly in regards to user engagement and click-through rate.

Highly impacted by elements of trust, click-through rate is a vital metric that sellers must optimize in order to have online success. A major factor in click-through rate is target keyword and placement within a product title as it appears in a shopping ad (Reiffen 2016). Therefore, to have an optimized title, the target keyword must be placed upfront as it is the first word users see. For products using both "backpack" and "mochila," the placement of that keyword in the title can significantly alter click-through rate. If "backpack" appears later in the title, users looking for "backpack" may gloss over that product as it does not target the user's search

intent. In an even more severe case, if a title is too long and the keyword "backpack" is placed too far back in the title, Google may cut it off, rendering it invisible to the user. The best option is to target the keyword that the majority of users are seeking, in this case "backpack," as the majority of US audience would be searching for that term in the English language.

19.4.2   Amazon

Amazon has quickly become one of the largest online marketplaces both domestically and internationally with no signs of slowing down. Currently, they have 11 marketplaces (in 12 locales counting both English and French-speaking Canada). However, Amazon does ship products from each of these locales globally in case, for instance, you're located in Switzerland, which does not have a locale specific site. Swiss German users are then able to purchase items from the German site as products would be available in the same language. This practice however does not come without localization issues. While products may be available in the German language to Swiss German, Austrian, or other German speaking customers globally, there are other linguistic and cultural differences to consider. For example, if a Swiss German speaking customer does a search for a mobile phone, they are more likely to use the word *natel*, a colloquial term used only in Switzerland, rather than *handy* which is a much more common term in Germany. By doing this search on Amazon.de, *natel* returned 222 results whereas *handy* returned more than 700,000 results. It is certainly possible that a Swiss German customer may be aware of this difference and adjust their search accordingly as this is a rather common and widely known product type but the takeaway here is that vocabulary differences may impact searchability of your products across locales. How can sellers address this issue in their product feed?

First, it is necessary to determine if benefits outweigh the efforts for this level of localization. If your product's popularity is much higher in Germany than Switzerland, it may not be worth your efforts. Additionally, if your product type already has lower clicks and impressions, this detailed level of localization may not be best spent on these product types. Looking deeper into the keywords *natel* and *handy*, these are very broad head terms for a product that has many associated *zubehör* (accessories). On an individual level, localizing one product type for a Swiss German audience may seem more effort than it is worth but if that product has many associated products, the level of importance grows. The target audience is important to consider as well. It is likely that a mobile phone vendor on Amazon.de would target all German speaking users, but it may be the case for more locally based vendors that the only audience they intend to target is entirely within one country. It could however be the case for that more culturally traditional products, such as the Austrian *käsekrainer*, a cheese-stuffed sausage native to Austria, localization is more important for the Austrian German speaking audience as the majority of the target audience for this product is within the Austrian locale. It is therefore necessary

that a merchant look into the analytics for these products in order to determine the level of localization that will be the most beneficial and feasible given the merchant's resources and global sales goals.

19.4.3   Ebay

Like Google Shopping and Amazon, eBay has many country code top-level domains for various locales where you can choose to sell your items. However, eBay also offers a global shipping program in which a merchant can choose to ship their product to any eligible country. Historically, eBay has had many issues with claims of counterfeit products being sold to unknowing users. They have taken action to address this but with such well-known criticism of fraud, a customer's ability to have faith in a product description being accurate and reliable is extremely important. This should be taken into consideration when attempting to localize or standardize your product data if choosing to only sell on one locale and ship globally. For instance, if you are a seller from Japan attempting to sell your items on the US site, you may be more inclined to use a verbose product title including embellished information that low context buyers in the States may see as signs of an unreliable product as the product's main intended purpose is not explicitly stated.

For example, a search for *face masks* from Japanese sellers on eBay returns within its results a product with the title "☼PURESA☼ Utena Face Mask 5pcs. Vitamin C Prune enzyme Try Japan quality!!". The title includes some text symbols which are uncommon in English, is rather long and also puts an emphasis on the quality of the product. The keyword that is the most important, "Face Mask," gets lost in the extraneous info that would be better suited for a description. In a low-context culture, if the main function of the product is not very easily discernible, users will be less likely to click through to that product from the search page. This makes the title appear spammy. Coupled with the known history of fraud, the user's trust is not easily won. Additionally, the description of the product gives even more information on quality and results using exaggerated language and reviews of the product which may not appeal to culturally low context consumers. The description insists that, "*This is a genuine product definitely have been sold in Japan.*" While the intention here was to instill trust that this is a reliable product, the description has had the opposite effect. The unnatural sounding language adds to the spammy nature of the overall product data and impacts its reliability. Finally, the product's main image is of the product package with only Japanese language visible for title, description and directions of use. While the packaging for this product may only exist in this form, the main image could have been more carefully selected as to not include linguistically specific information if hoping to reach a broader audience. Additionally, the type of image used to represent this product could be adapted to appeal to a low-context cultural by showing different angles of the product itself.

It is important however to remember that likely this lower ticket item may not be worth the additional localization efforts as the revenue impact could be substantially

lower than high ticket items, which are the main products of a brand and yield higher ROI. In this case, standardization may have been most useful.

19.5   Conclusion

From the examples above, one can conclude that there are indeed many factors that must be taken into consideration when deciding to sell internationally on online marketplaces. Linguistic accuracy is important not only to potential customers but also to follow marketplace guidelines that ensure your product is visible to consumers. Vocabulary choices are also important so that user search results display your product. Issues also go beyond text. Image and symbolic aspects of your product must also be culturally and linguistically adapted.

While the marketplaces and products in the examples above are for tangible goods, online marketplaces also exist with the intent of selling of intangible goods, such as services (Pymnts 2017). *UrbanClap* is such a marketplace listing providers of service for various types of tasks from installing your TV to interior design, *Fiverr* offers freelance professional services such as graphic design or digital marketing. The question then becomes: How do you localize service representation if these vertical marketplaces also become global? Is this possible if these services can be rendered remotely? This question certainly requires more research to answer but considering important localization factors for tangible good marketplaces may be a good place to start. As internet behavior evolves, the focus on localized search and optimized results only deepens. If the answer of localization versus standardizations is localization, the question then becomes, how deep do we go?

Throughout the past year, Google has made an effort to favor local business. Google is now "…offering a number of features that enable actions without ever leaving the SERP" (Morsello 2018), such as business listings and map packs that appear on the top of the page, including those with commerce intent. This is particularly impactful on global horizontal online marketplaces, having no physical storefront or strong signals of trust for local search intent. If local is favored over global, it is certain that products without localization on these global marketplaces are at an even greater disadvantage. This is also the case with paid results. Google offers local inventory ads, which help users find products locally in-store. Going a step further, even if products are localized, the hyperlocal nature of local business may still put them ahead. In the examples above, there have only been instances of localization on a national level. With an elevated focus on local search, is there a need to become even more localized by considering the regional or even city-level adaptations? In the US alone, there are so many regional differences in vocabulary that failing to consider this may impact your ability to compete at a hyperlocalized level.

The question of localization and if it matters has a long answer, but through research into products across multiple global online marketplaces, the short answer

is: yes. Determining which level of localization is required should however be largely dependent on target audience, effort levels, and overall impact on successful marketing and purchase of your product.

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Chapter 20
Taste vs. Values: Effective, Authentic, and Nuanced Hyperlocalization in the Digital Marketing Era

Brendan M. Keating and Nitish Singh

20.1 Introduction

Consumers in the cross-winds of globalization and Internet-fueled cultural flows are increasingly becoming part of global consumer culture (Alden, Steenkamp, & Batra 1999; Singh, Bartikowski, Dwivedi, & Williams 2009; Yalcin, Singh, Dwivedi, Apil, & Sayfullin 2011). And yet there is a countervailing trend toward preserving one's unique group identity and not being completely sanitized by a uniform global culture. This is evidenced by the emerging salience of various group identities, whether they be identities based on demographics or specific cultural or subcultural identities. To prevail in this world of paradoxical trends, global marketers need to not only appeal to the elements of global consumer culture that connect worldwide consumers, but to also identify and micro-target consumers based on their unique group identities. This chapter provides insights on how global brand marketers have largely struggled to leverage brand authenticity, which is a unifying global consumer value, while at the same time attempting to speak to consumers' unique group identities via hyperlocalization. We explore several brand missteps as they attempt to balance brand authenticity and hyperlocalization, and suggest a strategy for a more nuanced approach.

Localization Strategy has been broadly geared toward identifying national cultural differences and accordingly adapting products, services, marketing communications, digital media, and other elements of the marketing mix to meet culture-specific needs and tastes (Singh & Pereira 2005). But in today's world of

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fragmented group identities, brands need a strategy that goes beyond localization and the practice of extreme adaptation by identifying and catering to microsegments worldwide. We call this strategy "Hyperlocalization," and it is based on the idea of hypersensitivity to locale-specific or microsegment-specific consumer needs and preferences (Singh & Keating 2018). This type of increasingly granular focus can be seen on the website of the Indian company Shaadi.com, which caters to caste-based cultural identities to identify matrimonial partners. Another Indian company—Ultrarichmatch.com—focuses on a demographic-based microsegment of the Indian millionaires to identify potential marriage partners (ibid). Thus, the distinction between localization and hyperlocalization is a manner of degree and specificity of the target segment.

Hyperlocalization is not without its risks. Marketing campaigns and ads project a brand image, and as brands cater to various diverse markets, they could run into the problem of maintaining a sense of *brand authenticity*, which is a multifaceted phenomenon that is studied by consumer psychologists. Put simply, "a company can be seen as authentic if there is consistency between espoused values, ideal identity and how it actually behaves" (Pattuglia, Mingione, & Cherubini 2015, 5). As a brand tweaks its message and image to cater to increasingly niche segments, it begins to run the risk of creating a disconnect between what the brand actually is and how it pitches itself to a wider audience. The brand increases the risk factor of being perceived as inauthentic.

This is increasingly risky because the concept of brand authenticity is extremely valued by millennials worldwide. In fact, this global consumer trend of concern toward brand authenticity has been growing for several years. The 2017 Edelman Trust Barometer showed that worldwide consumers' trust in business has fallen, as only 52% of global respondents from 18 countries trusted businesses (Edelman 2017, par. 13). In particular, researchers have found that amongst millennial customers "brands are closely watched to ensure they maintain their authenticity and continue to live up to their promise" (Geraci and Nagy (2004), 23). Another study noted that across the board "millennials require a high degree of coherency from brands" (Pattuglia & Mingione 2017, 44). Although brand authenticity is multifaceted, they found that "coherency between the brand's identity and the consumers' identity" was a dimension of great importance in relation to authenticity for millennials (ibid, 44).

Consumer sensitivity to brand authenticity, as well as cross-exposure to different hyperlocalized marketing efforts via the Internet and social media, may create the perfect storm for the backfiring of short-sighted hyperlocalization efforts. Consumers once focused solely on the *products* produced by a company. But in the era of increased pushes for Corporate Social Responsibility and social media, consumers are now increasingly cognizant and judgmental about corporate *behavior*. Public relations firm Fleishman Hillard has found that 66% of consumers surveyed in the United States "have stopped using the products and services of a company because the company's response to an issue does not support their personal views" (Fleishman Hillard 2018, 7). However, if and when a company explains why it has taken a particular position, 43% of consumers "are extremely or very likely to continue to support them, even if they disagree" (ibid, 25).

In essence, consumers are often aware of corporate stances on issues, and they make purchasing decisions based upon those views. But they give some degree of charity towards businesses which explain their position—at its core, the behavior of an entity that authentically holds and defends its stances—i.e., one which is seen by consumers as non-opportunistic, but rather committed to particular values. The only thing worse than having an opinion your customers disagree with is for the company not to defend its position, and thus appear insincere.

20.2 Walking the Razor's Edge

How can brands effectively tailor their image to different market segments, while maintaining core authenticity? How can they hyperlocalize, while at the same time navigating the risk of offending increasingly informed and principled consumers who are ever more aware of general corporate behavior and attitudes? How can brands authentically hold and defend positions, but still cater to disparate microsegments?

The answer is to move beyond understanding how consumers divide into certain microsegments—the mere identification and targeting of microsegments—and move towards a more nuanced understanding of *why* those microsegments exist. Some segments may exist as a matter of what we might call *taste* or *preference*. For instance, there is generally no inherent moral argument for a particular color's appeal. One might select red when marketing in China because it is considered auspicious and lucky in Chinese culture, but it is not utilized for moral reasons. These types of tastes or preferences are not rooted in moral or ethical beliefs, although they may be, and often are, influenced by culture. On the other hand, certain microsegments may stand apart by virtue of *values* that reflect ethical or moral concerns. Vegans, for instance, object to the unethical treatment of non-human animals—their beliefs are rooted in a variety of moral and ethical positions. Yet their beliefs are not a matter of mere preference for them, but of values. This differentiation between value and preference-based hyperlocalization is where brands run into risks. When a brand caters to taste, its marketing may be ineffective to other, nontargeted segments. When a brand caters to values, it is seen as tacitly endorsing those values. The brand is taking a stance at times.

This poses two problems for brands. They may offend some segments if they are seen to be embracing controversial values when they hyperlocalize, but more dangerously, they may even offend the microsegment they are targeting too. If a brand targets a microsegment with value-based hyperlocalization, but does not authentically embrace those values, it risks appearing exploitive and opportunistic to those consumers. Some products or brands cannot be marketed effectively to certain microsegments by virtue of an inherent belief held by that microsegment, unless the brand itself authentically embraces those underlying values.

This is entirely different than saying that a market has no use for the product, or that it is conceptually impossible to hyperlocalize to that segment. Rather, there is a deeper concern that the corporate or brand image may be viewed as inherently incompatible with the microsegment's deeply held values, or not sincerely holding

the beliefs that are a prerequisite for fitting into that subculture. Put more simply, the brand would need to misrepresent or mask its true values to sell to a segment. In several examples below, we will explore the ways in which brands attempt to localize, and hyperlocalize, in a manner that was seen as inconsistent with the brand's core values by consumers. The marketing efforts were viewed as either inauthentic attempts to band-wagon onto popular movements or, in some cases, brands were seen to turn their backs on their stated beliefs in order to sell products to more niche markets. The brands offended not only the groups they hyperlocalized to, by not *authentically* embracing the underlying values, but in some cases they also offended their wider market, because their attempt to hyperlocalize was seen as endorsing a particular segment's values.

20.3   Disastrous Examples

For instance, focus on PepsiCo's short-lived but highly controversial 2017 ad starring Kendall Jenner in the wake of the nationwide Black Lives Matter (BLM) protests in the United States. The ad showed a march growing into a multicultural cast, with Kendall Jenner finally joining its ranks. The ad contained some imagery of what many Americans were viewing on their nightly news as BLM protests, and the social issues surrounding them, gripped the United States. The ad culminated in Kendall Jenner approaching the police line and handing a can of Pepsi to a police officer, who drank the soda as the protestors celebrated—presumptively sending a heartwarming message about the protestors' and police officers' unity and shared humanity (RollBizTV 2017).

That, however, was not the impression that viewers were left with, nor that the Twitter response conveyed, and thus controversy spread like wildfire through social media. The daughter of Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. even went so far as to tweet "[i]f only Daddy would have known about the power of #Pepsi", alongside an iconic photo of the civil rights leader (King 2017). The controversial ad was released on a Tuesday, immediately attacked, defended that afternoon, and pulled the following day. Pepsico issued an apologetic press release noting "Pepsi was trying to project a global message of unity, peace and understanding. Clearly we missed the mark, and we apologize. We did not intend to make light of any serious issue. We are removing the content and halting any further rollout. We also apologize for putting Kendall Jenner in this position." (Pepsi 2017, par. 1).

Pepsico had attempted to hyperlocalize. They targeted the youth of America, perhaps even the ethnic minorities most central to the protests, through the vehicle of the BLM imagery. But in the very least they targeted left-leaning United States youth sympathetic to the BLM movement, which was itself politically controversial. The ad also starred Kendall Jenner, a white woman, as something of a last-minute protest leader, which in the midst of discussions about racism and privilege, was doubly offensive to many viewers. Pepsico was not necessarily hypocritical in regards to its brand message—conceptually, unity is desirable. But the brand's

marketing efforts did come across as inauthentic as it attempted to glom onto a popular political movement, by hyperlocalizing with evocative imagery, all to sell more sweetened beverages.

The microsegment targeted by the ad—urbanite, liberal, socially and politically aware youth in the United States—immediately rejected Pepsico's attempt to position itself as sharing the values of the movement: the ad was seen as an inauthentic appropriation, and obtusely disrespectful. According to a former organizer for Black Lives Matter, Elle Hearns, the ad was offensive because it "plays down the sacrifices people have historically taken in utilizing protests", and "[t]hat's just not the reality of our lives. That's not what it looks like to take bold action." (Victor 2017, par. 8). For many it seemed as if the brand valued merely making money off the sociopolitical crisis that gripped the nation.

Another example of a localized ad that had unintended backlash comes from the Swedish company Ikea. In 2017, Ikea ran an ad in China and was flooded with complaints on the popular Chinese social media platform Weibo (Bonos 2017). In the ad, a Chinese mother scolds her daughter: bring home a boyfriend, or stop calling me Mom. When the daughter shows up with a boyfriend, we see the family apartment receive an Ikea-style makeover. The rejection the mother threatened was centered around a particular habit in China of parents (and society as a whole) that sometimes pressures women in their late 20s to get married, or else risk becoming "leftover women", a derogatory term (Liu 2017). This concept of "leftover women" is so socially prevalent that it was codified with the word *shèngnǔ* officially by the Chinese Ministry of Education in 2007 (Koetse 2018).

One might assume that the hyperlocalized target in the ad would be Chinese parents, who upgrade their furnishings to show off for the new boyfriend. But in any event, the ad created a firestorm of debate—prompting a discussion on wider social issues related to gender, and its related expectations within Chinese society. Ikea quickly pulled the ad and issued a statement stating, in part that "[w]e believe all people—regardless of gender, age and status—deserve respect, and have the right to celebrate their unique life at home. At IKEA, equality is a fundamental part of our culture and values…." (Ikea 2017, par. 3).

Ikea has run into a similar problem in the past when it erased pictures of women in their Saudi Arabian marketing catalog, where women are less likely to be seen in advertising, or when they are, dressed in more conservative attire (Quinn 2012). In both instances, Ikea attempted to localize its advertising and brand image to cater to what it perceived to be unique cultural sensitivities of various locales, but at the expense of, by their own admission, violating Ikea's core culture and values. After withdrawing the ad their press release notes that "[t]his provides a good opportunity for IKEA to learn and do better in the future" (Ikea 2017, par. 4). While the brand may have suffered lasting damage in China due to the tactless ad, which touched upon a sensitive cultural topic for Chinese customers, the real risk came from the exposure of the hypocrisy of brands catering to cultural expectations that are incongruent with their primary audience's values.

In the West, liberal minded individuals and feminists would have strongly objected to Ikea's marketing behavior—one that is offensive to their core values—

and one imagines that only the lack of awareness of such ads in Western society explains why there was not more backlash. Unfortunately, sooner or later a brand will get caught in the cross-hairs, and a not-so-flattering hashtag is likely to go viral.

20.4 Digital Marketing—Compounding Risks

Digital Marketing makes the concept of hyperlocalization actionable. With social media, digital ads, and analytics (Alalwan, Rana, Dwivedi, & Algharabat 2017; Dwivedi, Kapoor, & Chen 2015; Kapoor et al. 2018; Shareef, Mukerji, Alryalat, Wright, & Dwivedi 2018; Shareef, Mukerji, Dwivedi, Rana, & Islam 2019), brands now have the means to specifically target marketing campaigns on a level of differentiation that did not previously exist. With the rise of mobile phone use for marketing (Shareef, Dwivedi, Kumar, & Kumar 2017) and purchasing, businesses can even hyperlocalize down to particular neighborhoods due to GPS and localization services. But these tools pose a danger—with social media, your hyperlocalized ads are increasingly targeted, but ironically more vulnerable. Brands themselves are better able to serve ads to specific microsegments, although one segment may inadvertently be exposed to another segment's ads via nontargeted secondary channels—e.g., customers sharing their ads or general outrage on social media. Brands are capable of hitting smaller targets, yet there is also a risk of greater visibility, as many companies' PR departments have come to find out in times of crises.

This is where the concept of brand authenticity comes into play in relation to hyperlocalization, and where companies run the risk of sabotaging good consumer sentiment by overreaching to the microsegments they have targeted. This is where the pitfalls lie.

20.5 Recommendations

Brands must expand their localization and hyperlocalization efforts to compete in increasingly competitive marketplaces. To do so effectively, they need to cater to particular cultural and subcultural values of segments and microsegments, but at the same time, they must maintain authenticity and not lose sight of their own brand values. To balance these goals effectively, businesses need to be brutally honest with themselves about the public perception of their brand values. They need to take a nuanced approach to understanding the *why* behind the *what* of the value-rooted microsegments that they are targeting. They must contrast the microsegment's values with their own brand values before they decide if they can effectively hyperlocalize to that target market. If there is a value-gap between the two, brands should tread carefully. They should not attempt to hyperlocalize to every microsegment just because they could conceptually masquerade as an authentic part of, or ally to, that segment. Instead, a critical eye should be cast towards any perception of incongruency between their values and the microsegment's values.

Brands must do their due-diligence and not tunnel-vision in on the potential gains. A failure to perform such an analysis, and an attempt to allow the brand to shapeshift into being anything to anyone, risks alienating not only the target microsegment for being phony (i.e., inauthentic) but also other segments for taking the "wrong" stance on controversial issues in lust for more market share.

20.6   Conclusion

Hyperlocalization that focuses on the highlighting of brand *values* is a risky gambit if consumers sense incongruency and insincerity between various marketing campaigns. Short-term sales may come at the expense of brand respect and general good will with consumers if there is any kind of perceived disconnect between how the brand presents itself and how it is perceived by smaller, more insular groups. The primary risk for brands engaging in hyperlocalization is greed. The fact that one can tailor their marketing to their brand image or push their product to a particular group or subculture may be counterproductive. A careful, honest analysis of a brand's values and an in-depth understanding of their target market's values are necessary to avoid the risks of appearing inauthentic.

Unfortunately, in an era in which brands are increasingly entrenched in digital marketing and social media, trends and memes are often developing at a breakneck speed. Marketers' impulses will be to shoot from the hip as their campaigns are potentially relevant and trend quickly. This is dangerous in the broader marketing sphere, where ads are often seen as tone deaf, but doubly risky when delving into increasingly narrow microsegments as one hyperlocalizes marketing efforts.

Companies increasingly operate in an environment where there is little room for missteps. Once something is online (e.g., a Tweet), it cannot be removed from the public sphere. Tweets can be erased from Twitter.com, but not from the Internet per se. The eponymous "The Streisand Effect" has repeatedly highlighted that attempts to censor or remove information from the public sphere often unintentionally draw even more attention to that information's existence—the aforementioned ads are still readily accessible after being "pulled," and the apologetic press releases result in yet another news-cycle of bad publicity. In the era of social media, that kind of outing of corporate hypocrisy will be the death of many brands in the years to come.

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Chapter 21
Localization Strategy for Business-to-Business Digital Marketing with a Focus on Industrial Metrology

Lucy Kirmond

21.1 Introduction

The strategy of a company's localization method is very dependent on the company's size and global presence. In this chapter I will discuss the strategy of the company I currently work at, and I will primarily focus on the localization strategy of its website, as a digital media outlet. In addition to this I will examine the centralized nature of the company's localization and marketing practices. I will also discuss the company's strategy, due to the nature of the engineering industry, in relation to other companies in both the engineering and other sectors. This chapter will focus on the centralized nature of the company's localization and marketing practices both alone and in relation to another company.

21.2 Localization for B2B

Due to the nature of an engineering company in general being business-to-business, rather than business-to-consumer, the level of self-expression in terms of media content and marketing (Bavister 2019), tends to be lower than that of a cosmetics company for example. Therefore, when it comes to finding a localization solution for forms of digital media utilized—such as the website of Renishaw PLC (Renishaw PLC website 2019), for example—it is better to adopt a centralized approach for the majority of content.

An article from Mis Quarterly states that with "globalization of businesses and the advent of the Internet, many firms have set up websites for each country/city in which they have a local presence, featuring the respective local language and

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contents, but typically with uniform website designs and features" (Sia et al. 2009). This is true for the Renishaw website, which is translated into 17 languages, to provide for the languages spoken by the largest overseas subsidiary offices. Each language variant of the website, however, has the same format, layout and content as the original English website. This could be put down, in part to the fact that the nature of the market industrial meteorology companies are based in. As they tend to be business-to-business (B2B) rather than business-to-consumer (B2C) there is less need for customization depending on region. Typically B2B marketing "takes place within the context of a formal organisation, whereas" (Bavister 2019) B2C "consumer purchasing behaviour is either purely individualistic or takes place in extremely small and informal group" (Bavister 2019). In addition, it could be argued that this could be due to a decision to adopt a marketing strategy with a low level of cultural customization—a more centralized approach.

21.3   Levels of Self-Expression

Self-expression is described as "the manipulation of goods, symbols and services to communicate consumer identities generated within the imagination" (Jensen Schau 2019). As the engineering industry is a niche area that doesn't particularly target the consumer on the level of 'imagination' like a cosmetics company would, for example, it has a lower level of self-expression. This can especially be said for industrial metrology, which is niche, even within the engineering industry. Metrology products can also be described as 'tradition-free' as they "require much less cross-cultural adaptation, since their perception and values are based on facts, performance and achievement; they are measurable and not very emotional" (Maroto Ortiz-Sotomayor 2019). Therefore, it can be argued that it is less important to make the company's website localization customized based on culture. In cases where a high level of self-expression is necessary for a company's marketing strategy, customizing content based on culture is key as these companies are based in the consumer sector selling products such as cosmetics, consumer electronics, and clothing. In this sector it is key to reach a customer on a cultural level as it tends to be aimed at the general public rather than a specific sector, for example manufacturing. This means that recognition of "the importance of culture in influencing consumer behaviors" (Sia et al. 2009) in order to reach a global consumer audience is imperative.

When creating a website, it is important to ensure that you understand your target audience—whether it's more globally minded or more locally minded. Fostering a good relationship with the consumer is imperative and it is argued that "online has proven to be the most efficient way to build this relationship" (Maroto Ortiz-Sotomayor 2019). This means that ensuring that all digital content is culturally consistent with the expectations of the end-user will foster these good relations.

It can be also argued, however, that such an approach should also be adopted by B2B industries. Despite the fact that they do not sell to the global consumer as a cosmetics company would (for example), they still need to ensure that their customers feel that the marketing collateral is aimed at their market, both culturally and in terms of the sector. This approach could impact positively on sales and customer satisfaction as they feel comfortable.

21.4   Website Localization Strategy

When localizing the website, a strategy of global standardization which is defined as "relatively standard brands, formulations, packaging, positioning and distribution in its global markets" (Goodluck & Wineaster 2016) was adopted as this was considered a better direction for industrial metrology products as they are based in a niche market, rather than a global consumer staple. The website was first created in English with the global branding guidelines used for the company—colours and layouts are not dependent on culture or locale, for example. The website was then translated based on traffic per locale and size of Renishaw's overseas offices. If the size of the office was small then only the high-priority core pages would be translated, whereas if the size of the office and traffic from the country was larger, then more of the peripheral pages would be translated. After the translation process was finished, the translations were checked to ensure quality control was high and consistent by native speakers from the subsidiaries who are highly knowledgeable in the field of industrial metrology. When localization was finished it was ensured that multi-lingual sites were as accessible as possible to users, with multi-lingual search engine optimization and country specific domains, or CCLTD, country code top-level domain. This means that if you visit the website from Italy and you have geo-location settings on, then the website would default to the Italian website, even if '.com' were typed in. It also meant that if you did type in '.it' you would also be directed to the Italian website.

This global strategy of localization can be seen across companies in the industrial products sector, with most decisions being made by HQ and the overseas subsidiaries following those decisions.

This means that the need to "appeal to […] local consumer culture" (Westjohn, Singh, & Magnusson 2012) is lower. However, there is a certain degree of localization in the form of local office marketing material. It was decided that the 'news' section of the website would be localized to each office in order to still maintain both global and local presence. It can be contended that, as the internet grows, and online consumerism is at its peak, the need for further localization is required, even if the company is based in a niche market and not necessarily in the global consumer market.

21.5   Market Comparison

The website of Dyson (Dyson homepage 2019) is a contrast to the to the Renishaw (Renishaw PLC website 2019) website; two companies in very different sectors, consumer electronics and industrial metrology, respectively. The Dyson site is much more centred on sales as well as products in comparison to Renishaw's website, which also focuses on products but not sales. In order to navigate to a different language variant of the Renishaw website, a drop down is available, which list languages rather than locales. In contrast to this, if you navigate to the languages page of the Dyson website, it is designated by country instead of language. This is a strategy that is perhaps not always adopted due to possible political and cultural implications of naming certain countries, such as Taiwan, which is not recognized as an independent nation by the People's Republic of China. However, it is important to note, that this strategy has likely been adopted as they are a consumer electricals brand who sell according to country, both online and in-store and therefore must adhere to specific country sales laws and rules. This technique can also be seen on the Apple (Apple homepage 2019) website, another consumer electricals brand.

When navigating to the US Dyson homepage, it is obviously different from the British homepage—for example there are no prices on the US homepage and a lot more videos, whereas the British homepage has more obvious pricing and static photographs. In contrast to this the Russian homepage is markedly different from the UK and US pages. This could be attributed to the US and UK being, a term defined by Edward Hall as, 'low context cultures' (Neese 2019) and therefore needing less customization of their websites. Some countries, such as Russia, are 'high context cultures' (Neese 2019) and therefore a strategy of more extensive cultural customization can be adopted on these websites, rather than those of lower context sites. This contrasts to the Renishaw website (Renishaw PLC website 2019) which adopts a global marketing policy which is created centrally and then rolled out to the overseas subsidiary offices to keep brand consistency.

21.6   Conclusion

Localization can be a very difficult and complicated undertaking, as there are a huge number of factors that must be taken into account. From the insights I gained from this commentary, it is clear that no one strategy is more effective than another—the global marketing and localization strategy of a company has to be developed and tailored to each situation. Even if in a situation in which a company's strategy requires modification based on culture, it is important to be reviewing what direction both one's competitors and those in other markets are taking, in order to stay current and ensure constant growth and innovation.

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Chapter 22
Understanding Neuromarketing Techniques and Their Use in Localization

Victoria Zahopoulos

22.1 Introduction

Consumers are constantly making decisions in their everyday lives, and are influenced by the things they see, the people they talk to, and how they interact with content. Companies aim to understand their end user in order to determine a way to engage with them, catch their attention, and convince them to adopt their brand. This is no easy task, taking into account the fact that companies are inherently global due to the nature of the internet. End users can now be almost anywhere in the world, and their geographic location may have a large influence on both their decision-making and their reactions to content. Additionally, traditional marketing techniques such as surveys, focus groups, and in-person interviews are not always the most useful pieces of data because they don't give us all the information that can be acquired. When we look at how people share their opinions, there is a general tendency for group think, a lack of full disclosure, and the limitation of only knowing conscious thoughts (unconscious thoughts are unable to be tapped into by simply asking questions). With all these factors, we then need to ask ourselves—is there a better way to understand what the consumer likes? What if we went straight to the source? The brain! Neuromarketing combines neuroscience and marketing to evaluate marketing strategies and the subjects' response to stimuli like a product, websites, and advertising in order to optimize the customer's likeliness to buy their product or service (Dooley 2014, Sebastian 2014). There are various techniques used within neuromarketing and more and more companies have used these systems to enhance their marketing campaigns and products.

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22.2   Neuromarketing Techniques

Neuromarketing is a relatively new field, and while there is a great deal more to explore, its current aim is to measure the emotional responses to stimuli and to better understand the subconscious mind that is making buying/purchasing decisions. There are currently four commonly used techniques; Eye Tracking, EEG/Functional MRI (fMRI), Galvanic Skin Response (GSR), and Face Emotion Analysis (FACE) (Frechete 2017). Eye-tracking is a software that tracks the test subject's glance to see what areas attract their attention the most (Eye tracking in neuromarketing research 2016). EEG consists of sensors that detect any electrical activity in the brain, while the fMRI is a brain mapping tool that "aims to determine the neurobiological correlation of behavior by locating the active parts of the brain" (Ruanguttamanun 2014). EEG is the more affordable and portable method, but FMRI is a more in-depth technique that can glean additional information (Farnsworth 2018). Galvanic Skin Response is a tool that is able to detect changes in the level of moisture on the skin, which can be an indicator of physical excitement (Orzan et al. 2012). Lastly, Face Emotion Analysis is a video-based analysis tool that captures and automatically analyzes the unfiltered emotional responses towards any type of content, making it a good way to assess the efficacy, likability, and potential of the content (Tian, Kanade, & Cohn 2005). All of these techniques vary in ease of use, mobility, and affordability, and these factors play a role in whether or not a company is able to purchase and use them.

While they all measure different things, the data that each tool generates can be used to understand how the customer interacts and responds to digital content. The tools aren't meant to tell the marketers how to design the ad or the content, but merely to uncover deficiencies by understanding if their content is eliciting the intended response. Since the majority of customers' buying/purchasing decisions are rooted in their emotional response to stimuli, there are six brain stimuli that marketers can use to connect with the customer and enhance their need to buy their product or service (Nasr 2014). These six stimuli are emotionality, ego, tangible facts, contrast, visual, and story-telling (Nasr 2014). While each tool has its own merit, it is important to dig deeper into the results to see how each of the six brain stimuli are affected in order to make adjustments to the content if necessary. Being able to identify the response to digital content will help companies deduce how their content affects the customer and the likelihood that they will want to purchase their product or service based on that content. This is a huge corporate advantage in tailoring content to draw in and stimulate the desired end user. When done successfully, the customer will likely be more willing to choose their product/service.

Yahoo and John Lewis & Co are prime examples of companies that have used these neuromarketing techniques to analyze their advertising efforts (Burkitt 2012). Yahoo used EEG to test an ad before airing it live to see if it was going to trigger the emotional effect, they were seeking to bring more people to their search engine (Renton et al. 2018). John Lewis & Co. used eye tracking to see what customers were focusing on while watching their ad (Renton et al. 2018). Knowing how an end

user is reacting and interacting with their ad is crucial to understanding the effectiveness of their advertising spend and contributes to the company's overall success. Luckily, John Lewis & Co.'s ad was well-made, and the results showed that the focus of the ad was clear throughout.

22.3   Development

There is so much more that can be explored in the fairly new field of neuromarketing. The tools and techniques will only become more efficient, affordable, and portable over time and new techniques will emerge. Market researchers are always looking for new and better ways to understand the consumer and trigger a desired emotional response to get them to connect with their product or service in order to increase product sales or use. Perhaps the most valuable function that these neuromarketing techniques serve is providing invaluable, concrete data that can be used in advance of a big launch (e.g., a new ad, website, product, etc.) to increase the chance that when it goes live, it will elicit the desired response from the viewers. For example, the Pepsi ad with Kendall Jenner that aired last year created so many unwanted emotional responses from viewers that Pepsi had to take it off the air (Chi 2017). This was a missed opportunity for Pepsi, who could have applied a neuromarketing technique, collected accurate data of emotional responses, and reconstructed their ad to avoid the bad press and wasted ad dollars. EEG/fMRI are two neuromarketing techniques that could have been used, as they see the areas of the brain that activate the most based on the content. This data would have determined the type of emotions the viewers were experiencing. There are surely many more scenarios like this that could have been avoided and can be avoided in the future. As posting commercials to YouTube becomes more commonplace, these neuromarketing techniques will be especially useful for a company looking to expand into other world markets as they engage with a global audience.

According to popular research, it seems that these techniques haven't been used or explored significantly in the global digital marketing and localization industry. I believe neuromarketing is a huge opportunity for this industry considering end users' needs can vary significantly for globally focused companies. In the localization process, these techniques can be incorporated within the testing process. The content can be tried in various geographical areas using neuromarketing strategies to ensure that the localized content is triggering the desired emotional response (and is adjusted accordingly if not). This is one of the many ways that a company can avoid offending people or not connecting with them using content that would otherwise be successful in a different market. Coca-Cola ran an ad in 2016 in which they presented a map of Russia covered in snow (Bowler 2018). While the messaging was meant to focus on the product, the map was missing an important city, Kaliningrad, which caused controversy in Ukraine and Russia due to a political issue that involved the region. If Coca-Cola had used a neuromarketing technique like eye tracking or EEG with international subjects, they might have been able to

catch that the emotional response was negative, or that they were focusing on an unintended aspect of the image, giving the creators the opportunity to adjust their ad before it aired.

Assessing the cultural values of a country is extremely important when localizing content. These values can affect how people in different regions look for, react to, and feel about the same piece of content. PayPal, using neuromarketing techniques, discovered that in the U.S., commercials that focused on speed and convenience triggered a higher brain response than those that focused on security and safety (Mahler 2018). The U.S. market has a weak uncertainty avoidance culture, but if the same tests were done in a country like India or China, where there is a high uncertainty avoidance culture, the results would likely have been different. Cultures with high uncertainty avoidance would most likely value security and safety over speed and convenience because they value structure and reducing risk. Neuromarketing techniques provide a huge value add in catching when a commercial that works well in the U.S might not do as well elsewhere, indicating that different strategies should be applied.

Over time, and with more exploration into the field of neuromarketing, the tools will increase in efficiency and decrease in price. We will be able to collect more data and information with greater ease and accessibility, making it more appealing and affordable for companies to utilize neuromarketing to maximize their success. The digital marketing and localization industry stand to benefit greatly from this emerging technology, learning to better understand global customers and develop global marketing strategies and techniques to reach them effectively.

22.4   Implications

In this technological age, digital content is considered global the moment it's posted, as it can be accessed worldwide by any of the 4 billion or so active internet users. Consumers often connect with one another online, sharing their opinions and personal experiences with the product. This connectivity increases the probability that an unsuccessful campaign/ad or negative publicity will have a damaging impact on the brand/company. It stands to reason that companies will want to utilize neuromarketing tools to collect all the relevant data to produce content that will emotionally connect with their consumers and have them wanting to use their product/service.

Learning about the data that neuromarketing techniques and tools can produce reveals the insights we stand to gain from them. By allowing us to tap into the brain and monitor brain activity, emotional response, and eye tracking based on images, websites, video, etc., we are able to extract value from the involuntary reactions people have. By combining traditional marketing methods, like focus groups and surveys, with this new type of marketing, we are able to validate traditional methods and determine even better ways to reach consumers. Neuromarketing allows companies and managers to base their marketing decisions on new tangible data rather

than guesswork. Companies that are looking to expand globally are able to reach and understand their customers with more accuracy by utilizing this kind of testing. They have the tools to determine whether or not standardization of localized content is plausible, or if localizing it completely would trigger a higher emotional response from their customers. There is no "buy button" that we can easily access in our consumers. Marketers can, however, select the right tools to enable them to get as close to that as possible, tapping into the end users' brain and emotions, and gaining a deeper understanding of how to engage them without geographical location as a barrier.

22.5   Conclusions

In conclusion, neuromarketing techniques are tools that can be used in conjunction with traditional marketing to improve the way companies understand their consumer. They will be able to delve deeper into their customers' conscious and unconscious emotional responses, leading to the creation of more successful campaigns. Being able to more accurately predict how a consumer will react to content based on data could save companies from costly and embarrassing scenarios like the aforementioned examples. Over time, these neuromarketing techniques/tools will become more affordable and accessible, leading to a greater corporate adoption rate. There may be some controversy as these methods become more commonplace, as consumers could view this as an invasion of privacy. While subjects sign consent forms when undergoing testing, we could see more policies and laws put in place in the future if neuromarketing gains popularity in use. Regardless of these potential limitations, these techniques could have a large impact in creating more successful campaigns and helping companies form a closer connection with their consumers.

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Chapter 23
Emotional Connection: The Importance of the Brand Voice in Social Media for Global Growth

Monica Rodriguez-Moran

23.1 Introduction

In the last 20 years, the world has become much more accessible. Anyone with an Internet connection and a browser can view images, news stories, articles, and social media posts from any Internet-connected location in the world. If you're a customer looking for a particular product, the Internet is your retailer. Likewise, if you're a company with a product or service to sell, the world is your customer base. The Internet has quickly turned the world into a global marketplace.

Social media empowers customers—and potential customers—to communicate directly with each other, and with the companies behind products and services. It also allows those companies to communicate directly with the customers they are trying to reach. The result is—ideally—a conversation, emotional connection, and relationship between brands and consumers that build trust and confidence in the brand.

With an increase in marketplace diversity comes an increase in communication diversity as well. A successful social media marketing strategy in the global marketplace must consider the culture of each audience it is trying to reach. The communication strategy that succeeds in one marketplace may fail in another, due solely to the brand's failure to consider the communication style and values of the target audience. Therefore, global branding strategies must localize content—that is, customize content for their intended audience—taking into consideration cultural communication styles, sensitivities, values, and nuances. The most effective social media communication balances these factors while staying true to the brand's voice, values, and mission.

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23.2   Building Emotional Connection Through Social Media

We build relationships with brands like we build relationships with friends. It takes many positive interactions over a period of time, and content delivered by social media is a powerful tool for this process (Businessesgrow 2018; Gabisch & Gwebu 2011). On social media, brands can interact frequently with the audience, and communications can be humanized to a point where emotional relationships—as well as brand loyalty and support—can be developed.

Brands should create valuable content that will increase connection and familiarity by focusing on quality of communication between the brand and the consumer (Turri, Smith, & Kemp 2013). In addition, brands must align the company's voice in social media, with an emphasis on consistency and transparency, to achieve authentic communication and avoid confusing the customer.

23.3   Brand Voice

Research suggests that relationships involving emotional connection are formed through identification and shared values (Evanschitzky, Iyer, Plassmann, Niessing, & Meffert 2006). Creating emotional connection is, therefore, an essential function of the brand voice. By establishing the right emotional connection, brands can expect specific emotional and behavioral responses. This is how the relationship begins.

But what exactly is brand voice? Brand voice is not just the writing style and creative approach to communication (Fast Company 2018). It is the core and foundation of the global brand experience, which nurtures the connection between brand and audience needed in each market, but carries the added degree of difficulty of being dependent on each local language.

23.4   Localizing Content

Branding plays an important role in establishing a brand's visibility and position in international markets (Douglas, Craig, & Nijssen 2001). When entering a new market or country, it is important to gain as much brand exposure as possible. Businesses need to make smart strategic choices when developing special brand strategies, and content marketing could be an important component of that strategy.

Content marketing—creating and sharing online materials to generate interest in products or services—is a great tool to communicate with a new market. Establishing a connection with the audience through content such as videos and blog posts makes the relationship easier (Killian & Manus 2015). However, it is essential to understand that the content needs to be localized.

According to Pym (2014) and the Globalization and Localization Association (2019), localization involves taking a product or content and making it linguistically and culturally appropriate to the target locale (country/region and language) where it will be used and sold. The goal of localization is to give a product or content the look and feel of having been created specifically for a target market, no matter their language, culture, or location.

One of the most critical parts of creating content is to know the audience and their culture, understand them, and listen to them. Listening will help the brand to understand what is important for people and to approach them with a more correct tone, as well as making it easier for the brand to create localized content (Özgen & Doymuş 2013).

23.5   Brand Consistency

The main goal of brand consistency—communicating the brand's message without straying or distracting from the brand's values, strategy, or mission—is to create brand awareness and favorable associations (Keller 2008). Whether the brand has a centralized team in charge of global reach from its headquarters or has teams in each country, it is essential to define brand consistency in terms of: the desired impact, such as emotional response, and outcomes, such as behavioral response (Interbrand 2019).

The brand strategy should be consistent at all times and across all countries. Consistency in communication is critical because it can increase transparency and credibility of the brand in the minds of consumers, and create new brand ambassadors who spread word-of-mouth feedback as well as recruiting others to become brand users (Erdem & Swait 1998; Thompson, Ringfleisch, & Arsel 2006). Once the brand consistency guidelines are defined, companies should allow some flexibility in social media to ensure an appropriate expression, bearing in mind that most marketing activities will be more successful when communicated in keeping with local conditions and circumstances.

23.6   Cultural Dimensions: Individualism vs. Collectivism and Masculinity vs. Femininity in the Hofstede Model of National Culture

Which factors play a role in defining the way we communicate over social media with different cultures? What kind of voice should a brand use when reaching different countries? To answer these questions, I'd like to refer to two of the six dimensions of culture from the model of Professor Geert Hofstede: individualism vs. collectivism, and masculinity vs. femininity.

The Hofstede model of national culture divides cultures into five dimensions:

(1) individualism/collectivism, (2) power distance, (3) masculinity/femininity, (4) uncertainty avoidance, and (5) long-/short-term orientation (Hofstede 2001; Hofstede & Hofstede 2005). Hofstede added a seventh dimension—indulgence/restraint—in 2007. These cultural dimensions give us a path to follow when communicating the brand's message via social media to reach different countries.

Individualism/collectivism can be defined as how people look at themselves and their family, versus people belonging to a group that looks after them (De Mooij & Hofstede 2010). Individualism is the extent to which people feel independent, as opposed to being interdependent members of a group. An individualistic culture places more importance on the concept of "I" rather than "we" (Culture Matters 2018). According to the 6-D Model of National Culture (Hofstede 2019), individual choices and decisions are expected in individualistic cultures.

In collectivistic cultures, people are "we"-conscious and put the group's well-being before that of the individual. Members of these cultures know that an individual's identity and place in society is based on the social system to which they belong.

The approach to communication in individualistic cultures needs to be fast and to the point, while in collectivistic cultures it is necessary to first build relationships and trust between brand and audience. Emotions are, for example, more subdued in collectivistic cultures (Kagitçibasi 1997). In individualistic cultures, communication is synonymous with information, whereas in collectivistic cultures, communication varies with roles and relationships (Singelis & Brown 1995).

The masculinity side of the cultural dimension represents a societal preference for achievement, heroism, assertiveness, and material rewards for success. A masculine society is more competitive: performance and achievement are important, and achievement must be demonstrated (De Mooij & Hofstede 2002; De Mooij 2010). The opposite—femininity—represents a societal preference for cooperation, modesty, caring for others, and quality of life. A feminine society is more consensus-oriented.

There are enormous differences in cultural dimensions between countries. For instance, as we can see in Fig. 23.1, the United States has a high score in individualism and masculinity, which means that the communication with this audience should emphasize the individual before the group and highlight assertiveness, achievement, or success. Americans tend to display and talk freely about their successes and achievements in life; therefore, a brand's communication may be informal, direct, and participative to a degree.

To reach a Brazilian audience—which scores high in collectivism and femininity—brands need to build trustworthy and long-lasting relationships. Brazilians like to feel a sense of "belonging" within a group; they place value on warm interpersonal links and will engage in deep conversations in order to get to know each other. The preferred communication style is context-rich and elaborate in fashion.
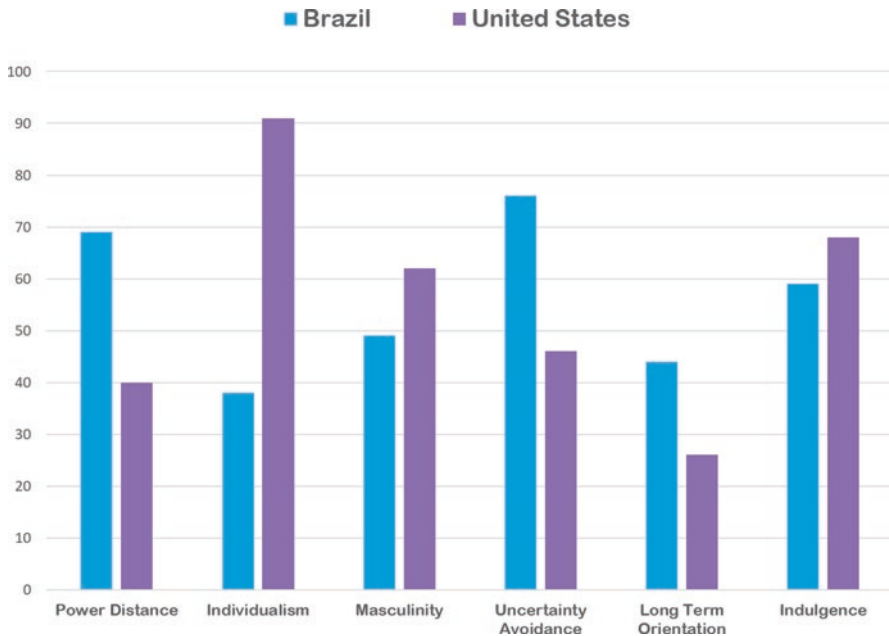
Fig. 23.1 A comparison of Brazil's and the United States' cultural dimensions as defined by the Hofstede model of national culture (Hofstede Insights 2019)

23.7 Perfect Formula: Localization + Cultural Dimensions + Brand Voice = Emotional Engagement

Brands have to create local strategies based on their global experiences and then modify and adapt them to appeal to local audiences. This should include communications, design, branding, and any other marketing mix variable (Kotler et al. 2009). Some brands use translation as a main tool to reach a new audience or market in other countries, but brands need to take into consideration that literal translation is not experienced in the same way by different audiences. A translated message may still retain the cultural style and values of the original language and, thus, may not resonate with the new target audience. Localization, on the other hand, can help reach the intended audience on an emotional level by communicating with them in their own linguistic and cultural style. Localization does this by blending translation with cultural and linguistic nuances. A mix between localization and the right voice could result in emotional content that conveys the same concept in the context of local preferences.

One example of localizing and reaching the audience on an emotional level is Mercola.com, a website that provides natural health content, optimal wellness products, and medical news. Last year, Mercola.com launched its website in ten different languages—Spanish, French, Portuguese, German, Italian, Russian, Polish, Chinese, Korean, and Japanese—in order to globalize their brand and reach international markets. Mercola.com uses content as a marketing tool, and social
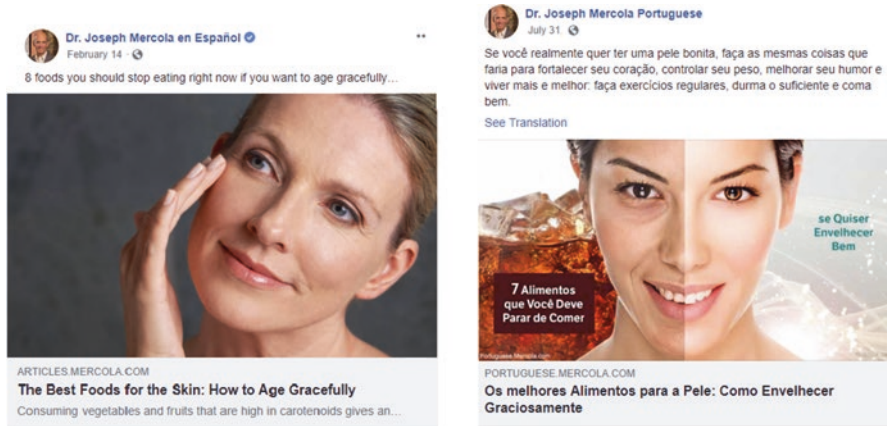
Fig. 23.2 Social media examples of localized content for American and Brazilian audiences

media as a channel to communicate and engage with its target audience. Although most of the content is created in English—its main market—it reaches new audiences via translation and localization.

In the images below (Fig. 23.2), we can see the same article written in English and translated and localized into Portuguese. In addition to the difference in the use of images, the way the brand addresses the audience is different. In Portuguese (right), the brand looks to emotionally engage with the Brazilian audience: for that reason, the post is written in a friendly, caring, and explanatory tone. Brazilians are friendly people and they trust their friends' recommendations; hence, the brand is looking to connect with the reader in that particular way. In contrast, the post in English (left) is simple, assertive, and to the point. The brand voice (style, personality) is the same but it varies in the tone (attitude) in keeping with the targeted culture. The result is a high engagement in both audiences; Americans know they can trust the clear and to-the-point voice of Mercola.com, and Brazilians trust the friendly and caring voice of the brand.

Along these same lines, the marketing firm LEWIS (Fig. 23.3) created a map with some culturally relevant linguistic tips for addressing international audiences via social media (The Global Social MEDIA Challenge 2019):

23.8   Measuring Effectiveness of Communication

When measuring the effectiveness of communication, both global consistency and local relevance should be considered. The brand needs to see the level at which it is succeeding in customizing the message, and assess the efficacy of the message by examining audience responses to the brand voice in the market. By looking at the audience responses, brands can evaluate the effectiveness of their content in that language and confirm whether they are executing on the voice and building the right relationships globally.

UNITED KINGDOM
UK audiences are extremely skeptical. Make sure you can back up any claims you make. UK audiences react well to content that is humorous and witty. But beware, there's a fine line between being witty and being offensive.

POLAND
Be informal but informative. Be careful of over-enthusiastic product-centric content as it could meet with skepticism.

NETHERLANDS
You think your company is great, but don't push this too hard in social media. Share knowledge and let other people judge your capabilities.

GERMANY
Germans are active in discussions. If you participate in these forums on behalf of a brand, be transparent about your role by including it in your profile or user name.

Fig. 23.3 Based on: What you should know about social media around the world, The Global Social MEDIA Challenge (LEWIS whitepaper)

23.9   Conclusion

The power of emotional connection in social media for impact in global markets depends on thinking more holistically about how that connection is created, managed, and measured. The brand voice needs to be defined not only in terms of creative style and the connection it aims to create, but locally as well, tailoring communication specifically for each target market. Only then can the brand achieve the right strategy for engaging with each new audience, build trust and loyalty, and evoke the desired emotional and behavioral response.

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Chapter 24
Attracting New Students, Satisfying Current Students, and Creating Fans of an Educational Institution

Anouk de Boer

Markteffect is a full-service market research company that specialises in five research fields: education, consumers, business-to-business, health care, and sports. Markteffect employs 45 research specialists and a flexible fieldwork team of 75 employees well balanced in terms of gender and race. Markteffect's mission is to help organisations be successful by providing strategic advice based on market research. The types of studies conducted include research on brand awareness, brand image, campaign effects, target research, customer journeys, macro-efficiency, client satisfaction, employee involvement, customer use and attitude, and many other kinds of research. Markteffect works with large international companies like Red Bull, Philips, Tom-tom, Umbro, Vodafone, Aldi, PSV, and ASML and with many healthcare organisations, schools, sports clubs, and more. This chapter focuses on the variety of studies Markteffect has conducted in the field of education.

Markteffect's education studies have focused on three research questions: What do potential students' orientation processes consist of? What do potential and current students think the 'ideal school' looks like? How can a school create fans and communicate with potential, current, and former students?

This chapter presents an overview of Markteffect's education studies' most recent and most useful findings. The results are presented from those related to potential students to those related to current students to those related to former students, beginning with the orientation process, including who advises pupils in their orientation process, what information sources are used, how these sources are evaluated, what role digital marketing plays, which phases in the orientation process can be distinguished, what kinds of orienteers there are, and why potential students sometimes cancel their applications. Then the ideal school is described, including the determinants of school choice of potential students (and country choices for international students) and the determi-

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nants of current students' satisfaction about a school. Next, the gap between potential students' expectations and current students' actual experiences is discussed, along with how the orientation process can help to decrease this gap. Finally, how schools can create fans is discussed, along with what determines whether a student can be classified as a fan, how fans behave and distinguish themselves from non-fans, and how schools can increase the number of their fans. The chapter also provides advice concerning how schools should communicate with their potential, current, and former students and what role digital marketing can play in this process.

24.1   Collecting Data Using Markteffect's Research Panel

Before we home in on the main results of our education-related studies, we provide insights into how Markteffect collects its data from large samples. Markteffect usually uses research panels, including a consumer panel whose respondents can receive incentives like prizes and vouchers) and a youth panel of pupils which was created with the help of education partners like study choice testers and deans of schools. Youth who fill in a questionnaire are rewarded in a way that is appropriate for their age (e.g. discounts on tickets to a theme park). Panel members can also choose to donate the monetary value of their rewards to a charitable organization.

Recruiting of youth panel members is a continuous process, as students and other young panel members get older and leave the target group. Markteffect recruits panel members in through social networking sites by placing ads on Facebook, stories on Instagram, and animated videos, ads, and vlogs about the panel on YouTube. Banners and ads on websites that are relevant to our target group are also used, as are ads about the Markteffect panel on the websites and social networking sites of Markteffect's partners. These partners also post information about the panel on their own websites, send out mailings to their clients to interest them in becoming panel members, or post recruiting texts on their social networking sites.

The high quality of panel members is ensured by screening the completed questionnaires potential members complete. Markteffect screens the questionnaires for 'speeders' (people who fill in the questionnaire too quickly) and 'straight-liners' (people who fill in the same answer for every question). Cross-checks are also conducted to determine consistency in returned questionnaires. Once a person has become a panel member, Markteffect works to maintain the member by asking him or her to fill in enough questionnaires to remain active and interested without making a burdensome number of requests. In addition to keeping the panel up-to-date and responsive, Markteffect seeks to ensure that the panel is representative of the target group under study, so the company may recruit certain kinds of new panel members by means of, for example, extra ads in certain regions or a by placing a YouTube ad before a video that is likely to be viewed by a certain target group. By creating a diverse panel, Markteffect can conduct research on almost any target group. This chapter focuses on the target groups of potential, current, and former college and university students.

24.2   What Do Potential Students' Orientation Processes Consist of?

In 2017 Markteffect published the second version of the 'National Study Choice Research', which addressed the question: What does secondary school students' choice process look like, what is important to them, and what are their wishes and needs? Approximately 1750 students—about 650 potential and 1100 current college and university students— filled in the online questionnaire.

24.2.1   Who Advises Pupils During Their Orientation Process?

The orientation process can be difficult for adolescents, so they often consult others. Most pre-university students (i.e., those in their last or last 2 years of secondary education) consult their parents for advice (mothers: 69%, fathers: 62%), friends (59%), and current students enrolled in their areas of interest (51%). More pre-university students than students from lower educational levels use these sources of advice, especially friends and current students, and the average pre-university student uses eight information sources. Asked what kind of role their parents play in their orientation, students indicated that their parents' role was mostly supportive (83%) and more rarely affecting (8%) or steering (7%). Only 5% of these students said that their parents played no role in the orientation process. Parents play a more supportive role for pre-university students (second-to-last year of pre-university education: 84%, last year: 92%) than they do for students at a lower educational level.

24.2.2   Quality of Information Sources Used During the Orientation Process

Potential students and current students at all educational levels evaluated the quality of the information sources they used, citing open days (including information evenings) and education fairs as providing the best information. Other valuable information sources include study/career counsellors, lecturers, mentors, and deans. Study-choice tests are least valued, and students are more positive about the lecturers' advice than they are about mentors' or deans' advice. Students are dissatisfied about *open days* in which they receive too little information, while they are happy with the open days when they receive a lot of information quickly and can ask questions. Students appreciate *education fairs* to a lesser degree because such fairs can be too broad and too likely to give them only the positive aspects of a field of study or a school. Students who do like the education fairs tend to be those who do not know what kind of education or field they want to pursue and hope to be inspired if the fair is broad and general, and not too specific. *Consulting counsellors, lecturers, mentors,*

or deans can be helpful if they know the student well, but sometimes their role is too limited (too general and to infrequent) to be helpful. Students who find *study choice tests* to be not valuable cited questions that are too general and results that sometimes do not fit or are weird, impersonal, or superficial. Secondary school students evaluated the support they receive from their schools in their decision-making process at an average of 6.4/10.0, with half of the students wishing for more information.

Potential students are looking for more modern and more playful open days. They want to carry out assignments and to interact with each other and with current students. Potential students with higher educational levels also want to be informed about studies in an *active and interactive way*, such as through gamification. According to ABOVO Media (a marketing bureau which advises organisations on the subject of marketing communication):

> *"The media consumption of the target group is mainly online, primarily via social media, music streaming and video streaming. Departments that are really looking for the best students within their study field often use **gamification**. This is a way to use a game element to bind potential students with certain competencies and interests. Schools can, for example, make an interactive recruitment video with questions that potential students need to answer before the video continues."* (Daan Vrijsen and Jessica Groot, strategists at ABOVO Media)

24.2.3 What Social Networking Sites Do Students Use During the Orientation Process?

Social networking sites also play a role in potential students' orientation process. Students tend to use WhatsApp, Facebook, Snapchat, and Instagram the most, although Instagram and Pinterest are especially popular among students at lower educational levels. Students also like Facebook and vlogs as a way to receive information when they are choosing a school or field of study, as half of the potential students showed interest in receiving information from school via these channels. Most potential students prefer to use their laptops when they search for information, followed by their mobile phones. Tablets and non-laptop computers are least preferred.

24.2.4 Changes in the Orientation Process Over Time

Students' orientation process has changed over time. As Edgar de Beule, director and owner of Markteffect B.V., who has been studying the educational system for 15 years, observed:

> *"When I had to choose my area of study years ago, I went to the library, as we, like many others, had no internet connection at home. The school websites mentioned things like where and when the open day took place, which courses were offered, and what the admission requirements were. Compared to twenty years ago, there are still the same critical touchpoints during potential students' orientation process of potential students, but everything around those touchpoints has changed because of the rise of the internet and*

social media. Compared to when I was a student, students are more informed even at the start of the process, whereas in my time, I mainly heard from others which schools were an option. With the rise of the internet, you would expect that the decision process would be much easier, but it became much harder, as there are many more areas of study to choose from and much more information is available. This abundance of choice and information is a problem; as Gardner and Erikson concluded, it is nearly impossible for a child of age fourteen or fifteen to make this choice. Therefore, schools must facilitate a process for potential students that will help them narrow down their choices. Such a process should not simply create as much content as possible but should focus on what is most relevant to helping students organize their thoughts and to providing a clear overview. They should use easy language and give examples of the employment options for students who complete a particular field of study so students can visualise their futures after graduation."

24.2.5   Adapting Digital Marketing to the Modern Target Group

A large part of the orientation process for today's students takes place online, so schools should try to make this online orientation as accessible and easy as possible. ABOVO Media is a marketing bureau that advises organisations on the subject of marketing communication and helps them adapt their marketing strategies to reach potential students who are looking for clear and easy-to-access online information:

*"First of all, search engine advertising (SEA) and search engine optimization (SEO) need to be optimal, as potential students use search engines as an orientation source during their orientation. The **registration procedure should also be simple**, and the website should be user-friendly. An educational institution can use **focused retargeting** and mailings to activate potential students, prevent a weakening of attention, and prevent them from postponing their registration, . Potential students want their needs to be met immediately, and when the process takes too long, they lose their focus. The target group also expects nearly **continuous accessibility** from educational institutions, even outside business hours. Chatbots can fulfil these needs and help schools distinguish themselves by offering live online conversations in which they can ask questions about the field of study or school. This is a low-threshold way of getting in contact with a school."* (Daan Vrijsen and Jessica Groot, strategists at ABOVO Media)

24.2.6   Phases of the Orientation Process

Every year Markteffect conducts the 'image monitor' among students at all educational levels in the Netherlands. The 2017–2018 edition was the eighth edition. The monitor measures educational institutions' awareness levels, their position relative to their competitors, and the institution's image in its focus areas. The monitor consists of a qualitative part and a quantitative part. First, students are questioned about the most important determinants of their school choice and, based on these discussion sessions, aspects of the school's general image (e.g. atmosphere, the approach lecturers take, job chances) are formulated. Next, students grade the school on these

aspects in the quantitative part of the study. These aspects are measured each year to monitor the development of the school and its competitors through the years. Each year more than 3000 pre-university students and more than 3000 college students (most of whom are in the last 2 years of school) fill in an online questionnaire so schools can learn how they can distinguish themselves from their competitors.

Markteffect distinguishes four phases in the orientation process based on the degree to which students have orientated on a field of study and a school. Potential students begin in the *starting phase*, where they are still unsure about which general field of study to pursue. In the *middle phase*, they determine the general field of study, but they still don't know which specific field to pursue. In the next phase, the *end phase*, students determine the specific field and enter the *decision phase*, where they choose in which school to study. Looking at the results of the image monitor over time, the moment at which potential students enter the starting phase is still the same as 3 years ago.

24.2.7 Timing of Campaigns

Information that is communicated to potential students differs depending on the phase the student is in, so schools must determine *how* (via which channels) and *when* to communicate with potential students. According to ABOVO Media, the timing of campaigns should be spread throughout all four phases:

> *What we often see is that most of the schools focus their campaigns at the end phase of the orientation process. They focus their campaigns around their open days, when departments want to get as many registrations for these days as possible. Open days for nearly all educational institutions in the Netherlands take place a few times a year—around four times—and media budgets concentrate their marketing around these periods, so the media pressure is relatively high during this period, and potential students receive a lot of ads at the same time. Educational institutions would benefit from reaching their target group before this busy period starts by, for example, offering a study-choice test during the starting and middle phases and continuing their communications between open days—communicating with the students regularly, posting on social media, working on internal and external PR, and always being reachable. In short, schools should be planting seeds the whole year to ensure that they can harvest at the right moment."* (Daan Vrijsen and Jessica Groot, strategists at ABOVO Media)

24.2.8 Types of Orienteers

The types of orienteers differ during potential students' orientation process (Fig. 24.1) based on which of the four orientation phases the student is in and the student's degree of motivation: high or low. Potential students who are highly motivated at school and who have no idea what they want to study (starting phase) are *discoverers*. Approximately 8% of potential university students are in this group. When these highly motivated students start to get a better idea of what they want (middle phase), they are *explorers* (5%), and when they know what they want (end phase/decision phase), they are *knowers* (7%). When potential students with low
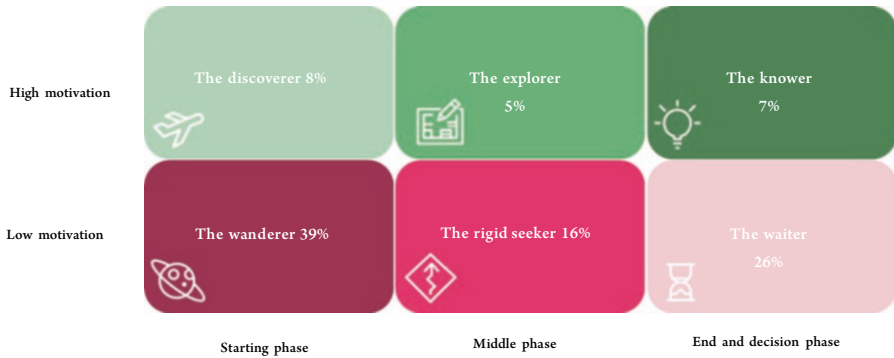
Fig. 24.1 Cluster analysis regarding degree of motivation and orientation phase for pre-university students

motivation are in the starting phase, they are *wanderers* (39%); when they are in the middle phase, they are *rigid seekers* (16%); and when they are in the end or decision phases, they are *waiters* (26%), as they know what they want to study but are still low on motivation. Potential college students are similarly distributed (as university students) among discoverers (8%), explorers (2%), knowers (6%), wanderers (46%), rigid seekers (10%), and waiters (30%).

24.2.9 Atmosphere as the Most Important Determinant of School Choice

All eight editions of the image monitor showed that potential students' main reason for choosing an educational institution was their 'feelings' about it, and the school's atmosphere was a key element in determining those feelings. Communicating atmosphere presents a challenge for marketing departments since it can be difficult to communicate the school's atmosphere through a computer screen. Lecturers also play an important role in school choice, and potential students tend to prefer those who are not too hierarchical and who behave more like colleagues than bosses. Both potential students and current students appreciate an atmosphere of cooperation, where lecturers and students work together to accomplish goals.

24.2.10 Self-Knowledge and Self-Development as a Prerequisite for Choosing a Field of Study

Sometimes potential students are too naive, unmotivated, or even demotivated to choose an area of study, or they are overwhelmed by the unlimited options from which they can choose. These students are often too young to know what they want

to study and/or are afraid to make the wrong decision. Jong & Je Wil Wat (translated from Dutch as "Young & You Want Something") is a Dutch organization that focuses on the trends and developments in the world of youth and how best to reach young people. According to Jong & Je Wil Wat, the lack of room for self-development makes the choice of an area of study at a very young age difficult:

> *"Potential students are often afraid to choose an area of study. The Dutch financing system for studies changed a few years ago such that, where students once received scholarships and reimbursement for public transport from the government (and which became a gift if the study was completed successfully and on time), now students must pay for their studies. This situation has increased potential students' fear of making the wrong choice of what to study, as switching to another area of study means they have to pay for an extra year of study. As a result, more young people have begun taking a year off to get to know themselves better by, for example, doing charity work, travelling, or gaining work experience. Such activities give them a better impression of what they really want. Choosing an area of study is nearly impossible at age fifteen or sixteen, when many students must make their choice. On top of this, our secondary school system does not really focus on helping students find out who they are and what their talents are; as the system primarily focuses on courses like geography and history, little room remains for self-development and increasing one's self-knowledge. To make the choice process a little easier and decrease the fear of making the wrong choice, schools should create more room for this kind of self-exploration during secondary school."* (Mauri Spooren, youth communication expert at Jong & Je Wil Wat)

24.2.11   Why Do Potential Students Sometimes Cancel Their Applications?

After moving through the starting, middle, end, and decision phases, students register at their schools of choice to purse their chosen fields of study. However, sometimes they abandon their registrations. In 2018, Markteffect conducted a study on such *unsubscribers*. Schools lose about 30% of their registrations every year when students cancel or fail to appear, so schools would benefit from knowing what factors played a role in such students' cancellation, whether they needed certain kinds of information that the school failed to communicate, and whether the school could have done something to prevent the cancellation. The cancellation study was conducted with a representative sample of 1750 unsubscribers from multiple colleges and university, who answered a telephone questionnaire.

24.2.12   Reasons for Cancelling

The main reasons for cancellation differed widely between institutions and even between faculties within these institutions. These reasons can be divided into two broad categories: reasons on which the institution has limited influence and reasons that the institution could have prevented. Most (85–90%) of the reasons that unsubscribers give for their cancellations fell into the first category. They chose another

institution that was geographically closer, chose a field of study that the institution didn't offer, they had financial obstacles or other personal circumstances, they unexpectedly failed to meet admission requirements because of failed exams, and so on.

While institutions could not have prevented most of these issues, 10–15% of the unsubscribers mentioned reasons for cancelling that the institutions could have influenced, sometimes easily. For instance, students sometimes chose to study at other schools because they had better reputations. Others were disappointed with the school's open day and/or trial lecture. Missing and/or contradictory communication also caused substantial numbers of cancellations. Some students did not receive confirmations of their enrolment or received their letters of acceptance only a couple of weeks before the start of study and enrolled elsewhere, even though they preferred the initial institutions in which they enrolled. Frequency of contact moments between the school of enrolment and the potential student was often inadequate, such as when potential students in popular studies like nursing must register in November but do not receive their first contact until April. It is important for schools to stay in contact with their subscribers.

24.2.13   How to Prevent Cancellations

There are several ways in which schools can decrease the chances of cancellation, such as by improving the school's reputation, providing regular and sufficient information, and offering more customized study programmes. To achieve these goals, schools can pursue several paths, including:

- Finding areas in which the school distinguishes itself from others (e.g. more room for international opportunities compared to competitors);
- Improving what distinguishes the school from others (e.g. enlarge the list of international companies where students can start an internship);
- Communicating these distinctions clearly during open days, education fairs, and other information sessions so students become aware that the school scores better in certain areas (e.g. "if you want to do an international internship during your study, you should enrol in this school");
- Improving areas in which other schools score better;
- Sending confirmations of acceptance immediately;
- Providing regular information, fixing the number of contact moments after application, and communicating these moments clearly during the application process;
- Communicating the latest date for receiving an acceptance letter;
- Sending all necessary information about the course of study (e.g. what is expected from students, what students need to buy before the start of studies, what the first weeks of school will look like, etc.); and
- Exploring the possibilities to offer customized and/or shortened curricula for students with certain qualifications.

   Digital marketing strategies can be used to communicate the school's distinctive aspects. Schools should have many contact moments with their future students, sending them emails or chat messages or using other digital channels. Unsubscribers often doubt whether they made the right choice or have applied at multiple schools, so by staying in contact with them after they apply, schools help the potential students feel more connected to the school, making it less likely that they will unsubscribe. For example, schools can send future students messages in preparation for the start of their studies or use a count-down method that prepares students for when their programme will start. In this way, students stay involved because there is no long 'silence period' between their application and the start of their studies.

24.3   What Do Potential Students Think is the 'Ideal School'?

Although a good atmosphere is the most important aspect of a school for potential students, it is not clear what constitutes a good atmosphere in the eyes of these students. Markteffect conducted an in-depth study (the 'Ideal School' study) among nearly 1100 potential university students and 1650 potential college students. This study had both quantitative results from questionnaires filled in online or face-to-face with a pollster and qualitative results from interviews with students, experts in the field (e.g. lecturer of the year, chairman of the national student organization), and representatives of schools that score well on the image monitor and distinguish themselves from their competitors. The main research question of this study addressed what was most important for potential students in choosing a school, what causes current students to be satisfied with the school, and how a school could ensure that potential students want to go there, that current students can graduate happily, and that fans of the institution will be created.

24.3.1   What Are the Most Important Determinants of School Choice?

The image monitor provides insight into the most important determinants in choosing a school. In the 'Ideal School' study these aspects were quantified again and were investigated in more detail. For potential university students, the most important determinants, from most to least important, appeared to be:

- A good atmosphere (a place where students feel at home);
- Enough challenge and motivation;
- A good fit between the course of study and the labour market;
- Good facilities (e.g. enough classrooms, a library, good study materials, and places to relax);
- Good collaboration between the university and companies that offer internships;

- An involved and personal approach by lecturers;
- A good reputation;
- Opportunities to study abroad; and
- Interesting extracurricular activities.

For potential college students, a college's most important aspects, from most to least important, are good lecturers, a good atmosphere, good job opportunities, clarity about where students stand (clear expectations), personal assistance from lecturers, an involved and personal approach by lecturers, good collaboration between the school and companies that offer internships, good facilities, a good reputation, interesting extracurricular activities, and opportunities to study abroad.

Hence, for students, lecturers are the most important determinant of school choice and satisfaction with the school. Lecturers' influence is both direct and indirect, as lecturers have an indirect influence on the school's atmosphere (i.e., by being enthusiastic and involved) but a direct influence on the quality of the courses (i.e., by providing good explanations, well-structured lessons, and help). An involved and personal approach is important for students; they want to be taken seriously and want lecturers to be genuinely interested in them and to know their names. The school's climate should be accepting and respectful, as students want to be treated equally and to be appreciated for who they are. In addition, other students influence the degree to which students feel 'at home' at school, and students value clarity about job opportunities. For college students, clarity about expectations is especially important.

Regarding the most important underlying determinants of the nine main aspects of school choice for potential university students, we, for example, asked what potential university students think are the most important determinants of a good atmosphere, what determines whether facilities are good, and what makes a good fit between the course of study and the labour market? Figure 24.2 shows the most important aspects of school choice with their most important underlying determinants.

24.3.2 How Can a University Create a 'Good Atmosphere'?

The most important determinant of school choice for university students is a good atmosphere. How a building looks (spaces, appearance, canteen, decoration) appeared to have less influence on atmosphere than the people, as it is the people who determine whether the university is a place where potential students can feel happy and safe. For a school's atmosphere to be considered good, potential students must feel respected and accepted. A school can stimulate a safe school climate by demonstrating that everyone is equal, by standing up to bullying and discrimination, and by ensuring that lecturers are approachable, helpful, enthusiastic, and cheerful. To have a good atmosphere, a school should encourage students to be motivated and helpful and to engage in constructive teamwork. Less important are enough and study areas where students can spend some time on their own or in group work, a pleasing appearance, a cosy canteen, and good decoration. Hence, during open
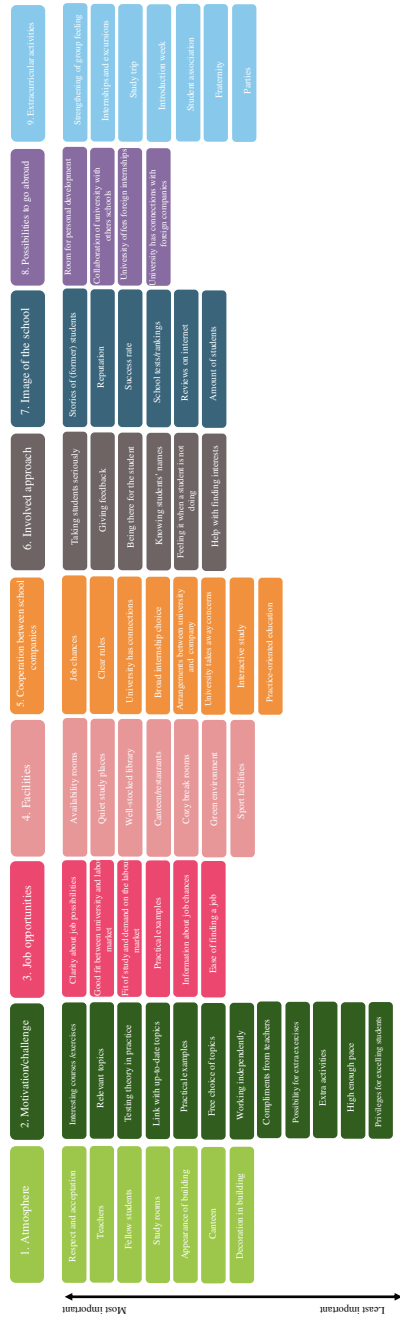
Fig. 24.2 The most important aspects of school choice for university students and their underlying determinants

days, the school should show that respect and equivalence, and enthusiastic and helpful lecturers are important parts of the school. It would be helpful if the spokesperson during open days has these characteristics as well.

24.3.3 What Can a University Do to Create a Motivating and Challenging Study Environment?

To create motivation and challenge, the school must ensure high-quality content of the courses. To challenge a student, courses and exercises should be interesting, up-to-date, and practical to motivate students and help them prepare for their fields of work. Students also appreciate practical examples and the opportunity to test theory in practice through such activities as internships, company visits, and lab work. Less important are the freedom to choose their own topics, the ability to work autonomously on exercises, compliments from lecturers, the opportunity to perform extra exercises and take extra courses, extra study-related activities, a sufficiently fast pace, and privileges for students who excel.

24.3.4 How Can a University Improve the Fit Between its Courses of Study and the Labour Market?

Potential students want insight into their job opportunities after completing their education. To create a good fit and help potential students make the right choice and avoid insecurity, doubt, and regret, the school must make possible directions on the labour market clear. Universities can also adapt their courses of study to the demands of the labour market. Schools should give students information about job opportunities during open days so they know that it will be possible to find a job without too much difficulty. Former and current students can also be involved in the orientation process by talking about the companies where they work, for example, at open days or by placing quotes on the school website.

24.3.5 What Do Potential Students Consider Good Facilities'?

Students consider sufficient study-related facilities like enough study rooms, power points, computers, Wi-Fi availability, and quiet places to study and secondary facilities like a canteen/restaurant, a well-stocked library, a green environment, and sports rooms to be good facilities, although secondary facilities are lower-priority than study-related facilities. Universities must ensure that the basics are there for students to do individual work or group work with fellow students.

24.3.6   How Can a University Collaborate Well with Companies that Offer Internships and Future Jobs?

Potential students want to see good collaboration among themselves, their university, and companies where they can intern during their studies or work after graduation. The rules must be clear for both the students and the companies, or students may be afraid that miscommunication and ambiguity will be to their disadvantage. Students also want their schools to have many connections with companies, so they have a wide choice of internships. Somewhat less important are clear agreements between the university and the companies, the university's help in finding a suitable internship, and the availability of interactive studies with education that is focused on problem-solving and is practice-oriented.

24.3.7   How Can Lecturers Create an Involved and Personal Approach?

Potential students want to feel that they matter and to be taken seriously. These signs of respect can help to give them confidence and motivation. Potential students want to feel that there are no stupid questions and that the lecturer will help every student through personal feedback, knowing who they are, and sensing when a student is not doing or feeling well. Potential students want their lecturers to help them identify what they are interested in and good at. Open days should convey that the school takes potential students seriously by portraying a professional attitude, treating students equally, emphasizing the importance the university attaches to lecturers' constructive feedback, and communicating where students can go when they have problems.

24.3.8   What is Most Important for a University's Reputation?

Students see a university's reputation as being tied to subjective experiences and the stories of current and former students rather than to its objective results from tests or rankings. A good reputation is created by word of mouth, so potential students expect stories from current and former students that are realistic, critical, and honest, but negative stories about discrimination, fraud, and other such incidents scare potential students off. A university's good reputation helps its students to be confident during job interviews. Since the pass rate, rankings, reviews on the internet, and the number of students are relatively less important than the stories of current and former students and the school's reputation, universities should include alumni and current students in open days, as potential students really value their opinions and experiences. Universities should also focus on creating fans among their current students to increase positive word-of-mouth. Although pass rates and good rankings in independent tests are less valuable, schools should still communicate them.

24.3.9   What Do Students Want from Opportunities Abroad?

Potential students cite possibilities for personal development (e.g. discovering cultures, improvements to their resumes, mastering a foreign language) as their primary goals in taking courses or internships abroad. These opportunities give them space to get to know themselves and to develop, so universities should foster partnerships with foreign universities and foreign companies so it can offer foreign internships and course work and guide students in choosing the right such opportunities.

24.3.10   What Extracurricular Activities Do Potential Students Value?

Potential students value internships, excursions, and activities that foster team spirit, especially those that centre on the core of their studies, as activities that are not directly study-related are of secondary importance. The central goal of extracurricular activities for students is team-building and creating friendships, and they prefer to engage in internships, excursions, study trips, introduction weeks, and study associations over fraternities and parties. Hence, universities should emphasize that the school values team spirit generated through study-related activities.

24.3.11   How Can Social Media Be Used to Attract More Students?

Jong & Je Wil Wat contends that, if used correctly, communication between schools and potential students through social media can be effective in attracting potential students:

> *"Most students are active on Snapchat and Instagram. It is difficult for schools to use Snapchat, as students use it to have contact with their friends but rarely to follow organizations. However, Instagram can be a useful channel for schools to use in their communication with potential students. However, rule number one is that a school's social media profile should be an active account, as if the account isn't updated regularly, students see the information as outdated and useless. Schools that use their Instagram accounts regularly can give potential students an almost real-time look 'behind the scenes' of the school using, for example, Instagram Stories or Instagram tv. The videos can be made by current students, who are best at understanding the world of potential students. A good example of this is the 'takeovers' some Dutch schools organized, where student teams took over their schools' social media accounts and showed potential students what their regular day looked like. Via Instagram Stories they showed what classes were like, what they do on a typical day, what they learn, where they have lunch, and the atmosphere in the school. The schools gave the students the freedom to think about what they wanted to show to potential students, providing them only with general themes. Current students understand the perceptions and experiences of potential students and know what will grab their attention. In addition, information from current and former students appeals to potential students, as they perceive such information*

as providing a realistic and honest impression, rather than the marketing chatter that is sometimes typical in open days. The 'take overs' also went live on Instagram, when potential students could ask the students who made the videos questions through live chat or a direct message. Instagram is clearly an effective channel through which to present an educational institution in a visual manner and to diminish the distance between the school and the worlds of potential students. Schools can also post these videos on their school websites.

When schools communicate with potential students, they must keep in mind that these students need a sense of the school's structure and an overview. They have many options and need a clear overview of all the possible studies, guidance on how to orient themselves in their search, and clarity about whether the school's offerings suit them. Not every school is good for every student, so the fit between the student and the course of study is important to long-term success for both the school and the student. Students want to know whether the school's course of study suits them as people and whether it matches with their interests and skills. They want to know what kind of person is suited for the school and the course of study and what interests they should have.

Potential students want a lot of information, but schools must be careful not to overload them with detail, forcing them to 'drink from a firehose'. Therefore, schools should use phasing to provide what is important information during each phase of the orientation process. In the starting phase, students want to know generally whether the school's course of study suits them and fits with their interests. If students are interested in the course of study, they should be able to click for more information about the content of the study. Then, only if the student is still interested, they should be presented with information about contact moments and expenses. Drop-down menus and visuals, rather than too much text, can help a potential student see the information he or she is most interested in. A visual with an overview of the school year, a video of a current student talking about his or her experiences at the school, and so on can help potential students decide to seek more specific information about the school or to move on." (Mauri Spooren, youth communication expert at Jong & Je Wil Wat)

24.3.12 Social Networking Sites' Statistics

Instagram and Snapchat are both popular with potential students, but so are other social networking sites. The social networking sites potential students in the 15–19 age group use, in order from most to least used, are:

1. WhatsApp (97%);
2. YouTube (86%);
3. Instagram (73%);
4. Snapchat (72%);
5. Facebook (72%);
6. Twitter (23%);
7. Pinterest (19%);
8. LinkedIn (12%);

The percentages above represent the amount of youth that use a social networking site. However, how frequent do they use these sites? Daily use is by far highest for WhatsApp (nearly 90%), followed by YouTube (86%), Instagram (73%), and Snapchat (72%). Especially among this young age group, daily Facebook use

decreased from 68% in 2016 to 43% in 2018 (retrieved from: www.marketingfacts.nl).

24.3.13 What Are the Most Important Determinants of School Choice for International Students?

This study focuses on the orientation process in the Netherlands, where a significant portion of students are international, so in 2016 Markteffect and its founding partners undertook a quantitative research project that focused on students who go abroad for their studies. Countries of origin that were included were Brazil, Bulgaria, Latvia, Mexico, Poland, Spain, and Turkey. Around 2100 respondents—a minimum of 300 per country—filled in the online questionnaire to determine the kind of information international students want during their orientation process, from what sources they want it, their main reasons for studying abroad, and the most important determinants of their final choice of country.

Most of the students in the countries we studied first choose an area of study and then the country and the university. Only a few students first choose a university. Most students make their final decisions about their study abroad a year before they leave and want information about the area of study itself, college or university expenses, living expenses, and the quality of the educational institution's department in their chosen areas of study and the institution itself. The lecturers/mentors, social networking sites, and current students are often mentioned as preferred sources of information sources. Current students are seen as especially trustworthy and valuable sources.

Students mentioned the quality of education in the Netherlands compared to the quality of education in their own countries as the most common reason for considering studying abroad. Other reasons that were often mentioned were better career chances with a degree from a foreign university, wanting to travel, having an adventure, learning about another culture, wanting to be independent, gaining practical experience, and a better quality of life. The most important determinants of the choice for a specific country for international students were the chances of finding work after graduating, the content and quality of the education in their areas of study, international acknowledgement of the diploma, affordable places to live, other living expenses, and the availability of studies in English. Most students also valued personal attention from the university.

24.4 What Do Current Students See as the 'Ideal School'?

Current students ranked the nine factors (atmosphere, challenge and motivation, fit between the area of study and the labour market, facilities, collaboration between the university and companies that offer internships, an involved and personal approach, reputation, opportunities to study abroad, and extracurricular activities)

in terms of their current universities. The factors that the students scored high in importance and high in satisfaction are those that schools should *use*; those that score high in importance but low in satisfaction are those that schools should *address*; those that score low in importance and high in satisfaction are those that schools should *retain*; and those that score low in importance and low in satisfaction are those that schools should give *low priority*.

The results of the study indicate that current students value nearly the same factors that potential students value. The factors that university students score high in both importance and satisfaction were atmosphere, motivation and challenge, facilities, and the university's connection with the labour market, so schools should *use* them to keep students happy. One factor that current students rate as important for their satisfaction about school but with which they are not satisfied is their schools' connection with the labour market. So, schools should *address* this factor by clarifying their job possibilities and directions, giving practical examples of job opportunities during lectures, and providing opportunities to test theory in practice. Other factors that current university students see as important but with which they are not satisfied (and hence need to be *addressed*) related to the atmosphere are enough and separate study rooms (with good facilities such as enough power points, good Wi-Fi, and so on). Regarding the reputation of the school, the aspect that needs to be *addressed* is the study success rate. To enhance satisfaction about extracurricular activities, the number of excursions and internship possibilities need to be *addressed* by enhancing the number of activities, as well as enhancing the attention that is paid at the strengthening of the team feeling and opportunities for students to make friends.

Our research shows that current college students are satisfied with most of what they find important for a school, including the atmosphere, lecturers, job possibilities, lecturers' assistance and approach, and the facilities. However, they are not satisfied with the degree of clarity about the school's expectations, although they find this factor important. They want to know where they stand, so schools need *to address* this by providing overviews of exam materials, planning of the courses, and descriptions of exercises that are clear and well structured. College students' satisfaction with lecturers could increase if lessons are more structured and if extra explanation and help is offered. Other factors that should be *addressed* to increase current students' satisfaction with their schools are clarity about job possibilities, personal assistance by lecturers to address weaknesses, rules and agreements between students and internship companies, and results on tests/rankings.

24.4.1 How Can Digital Marketing Be Used to Make Lessons More Interesting?

Sometimes course content is still similar to the content of years ago, such as content about philosophers' theories. However, schools should be aware that, despite the similarity of content, much has changed in how the content should be conveyed to

students. Every lesson should have a digital aspect, as social networking sites and digital communication can help schools increase their students' satisfaction with lecturers, their lessons, and their approachability. Lecturers must appeal to their students' modern worlds. Jong & Je Wil Wat explains the trends they observe in students' media-related behaviour:

> *Youth from Generation Z are often online, which is normal for them, so they are visually oriented. They receive thousands of messages per day via social media and ads, so they want visual and fast communication, as their attention span is shorter than that of young people years ago. Schools must adapt to these changes. Classes are often conducted in a traditional way, with lecturers discussing what is also described in the textbook. We often hear from students that their lectures are too theoretical and that lecturers do little more than discuss what is in the textbook. Students want to know why they are learning something, what is in it for them, and what they can do with it. The link with the world of the youth is often missing. A good example of how lecturers can appeal to the world of their students is a chemical lesson, where students need to investigate the chemicals that are in the cosmetic products the students use. Lecturers can also use their students' mobile phones during class, rather than asking students to put them away. Mobile phones play a big role in the lives of students; they cannot be ignored, so they should be seen as a tool, rather than as an annoyance. Students in this era can search for information online at any time, so lecturers can use students' phones to teach them which sources are reliable, how they can use them, and where they should search for information so students can critically evaluate information sources and organize and evaluate the information they receive all day. Of course, phones can distract students, so their use in lectures must be monitored, although students should be given the responsibility to make their own decisions about when to put their phone away. Preferably, rules regarding phone usage during class should be uniform across lecturers in order to avoid confusion.*

> *In addition to the internet, social networking sites can be used to make school more interesting and appealing. An example of this is Facebook groups, where students could talk with their lecturers about their courses. Lecturers could use these pages to practical things like uploading the subject matter and course syllabi or for inspiration, sharing interesting articles or videos related to the course. Students can also ask questions about the course on these pages, where questions and answers are shared with the whole class and fellow students, not just the lecturer, can answer one another's questions. The questions are not restricted by the time of day, so there can be communication. However, as Facebook is becoming less popular among young people, schools should investigate other platforms that can fulfil this need for continuous communication with classmates, such as Slack and WhatsApp groups. WhatsApp groups can reflect the atmosphere in the classroom, allowing lecturers to make improvements, provide students with social guidelines about their behaviour toward one another. WhatsApp can also be used individually if a lecturer knows that a student is not doing well personally or in class, as the student can respond to questions and concerns via an online message, rather than live in the classroom.* (Mauri Spooren, youth communication expert, Jong & Je Wil Wat)

24.5 The Gap Between Expectations and Experiences

Current students were asked to evaluate whether their experience regarding the schools they attend was better, the same, or worse than the expectations they formed during their orientation process. The students reported that most of their current

experiences reflect or exceed their expectations. For example, more than half of the university students think that the atmosphere they experience as a student is better than the expectations they formed about the atmosphere during their orientation process. However, this outcome is not necessarily ideal, as it means that, during their orientation process, they were under the impression that the atmosphere was worse than it turned out to be. Universities should create an impression of the school during open days, information evenings, and trial lectures that is realistic to minimize the gap between expectations and experiences. The aspects of the schools that are most often equal to expectations are the collaborations between universities and companies that offer internships, the schools' reputations, and opportunities to go abroad for study. Aspects that did not match up to expectations are the schools' atmospheres, lecturers' involvement with students, facilities, extracurricular activities, and the motivation and challenge offered.

Specifically for college students, it is not clear where they stand, which is worse than expectations for one out of three students. To decrease this gap, schools should provide a clear overview of the exam material, create clarity about homework and exams, and ensure that there are structured descriptions of the assignments.

24.5.1 Decreasing the Gap by Optimizing Orientation Sources

Potential students were asked what they think would give them the most realistic impression of a school during orientation. In order of frequency, their favourite ways to be oriented were:

- Student-for-a-day (taking part in a normal study day alongside a current student);
- Open days (days organized by the school to inform potential students about their school and the studies they offer);
- Searching for information on the internet (e.g. videos, reviews, school websites);
- Trial lectures (lectures organized for potential students to give them an impression of what lectures will be like);
- Consulting the experiences of current students;
- Class orientation (a briefing for the whole class at potential students' own schools or going to a university for orientation with the whole class);
- Study markets (markets with stands where schools and departments present what they offer); and
- Study-choice tests.

Digital marketing strategies can also play a role in minimizing the gap between expectations and experiences by providing a realistic image of the school in a way that will appeal to today's students. For example, a school can provide an image of a regular school day by organizing student-for-a-day moments, but also by giving their current students the opportunity to make vlogs about a regular school day. Instead of bringing potential students into contact with current students, a modern variant can use chatbots on the school's website or potential students can read about

a school's negative and positive elements. Social networking sites could also be easily used to provide a realistic image of the atmosphere at a school.

24.5.2 Schools' Current Use of Social Networking Sites

Social networking sites can provide potential students with a realistic and complete image of a school. For example, potential students can read about or view videos about the experiences of current or former students. To determine the role schools should try to play in the life of (potential) students—best friend, dean, information officer, or something else—on social networking sites, Markteffect reviewed the social networking profiles of the largest educational institutions in the Netherlands. These schools are active on multiple social networking sites, including Twitter, Facebook, Instagram, LinkedIn, and YouTube. Some schools also use Snapchat to announce events or to give potential students a view into the lives of current students. They use Instagram primarily to provide an impression of the atmosphere at the school (e.g. the interior, the activities). However, the first thing that stands out is that universities focus heavily on foreign students on these sites to bind international students to the school. Colleges and universities also often search for direct contact with (future) students by eliciting interaction—for example, posting something on a social networking site and asking students to give their opinions about it. These educational institutions use a lot of videos on their pages (e.g. videos of events, open days, promotions, study trips, festivals, and introduction weeks), and try to illustrate their efforts in the realm of social responsibility. For example, they challenge future students to eat a healthful diet and its importance in durability. Other forms of interaction on these institutions' social networking sites include information about the history of the university, funny videos of students having fun, news articles about the university, advertisements for school-branded products, promotions of university and city events, information about the city, photos showing the atmosphere at the school, research results regarding the evaluation of a school or department, and information to help students with their choice of field. While communication between schools and students was once quite formal, today it is more informal, so schools try to be up-to-date and fun while also being helpful on these sites.

24.6   How Can an Educational Institution Create Fans?

In 2016 Markteffect conducted a study to determine how students can become and stay long-term fans of their alma maters, as fans want to stay in touch with their educational institutions and to talk about it to others (positive word of mouth). By creating fans, educational institutions may be able to decrease their marketing communication expenses. Approximately 2600 college or university students and more than 500 alumni (who graduated between 2006 and 2015) took part in this study.

24.6.1 Classification of Fans

Who can be classified as a 'fan' of an educational institution? A distinction can be made between passive and active fans of an educational institution such that passive fans would make the same choice regarding their course of study and school again, while active fans in addition like to remain in touch with their educational institutions and are interested in part-time study when it is offered by those institutions. This study classified students as fans when they reported that they promote their course of study/school and when they scored in the top 25% on the 'fandom' scale. University students (24%) and alumni (also 24%) are more often fans of their universities and courses of study than college students are, as 19% of the current college students and 10% of the college alumni could be classified as fans. In addition, more female students than male students were classified as fans.

24.6.2 Behaviour of Fans

The behaviour of non-fans differs from that of fans, as around three out of four fans want to stay in touch with their educational institutions after graduating, especially with their fellow students, their departments, and certain lecturers. Among non-fans, this behaviour is demonstrated by only about one in four students. Fans prefer social networking sites to stay in contact with their educational systems, as nearly half of the fans want to stay in touch in this way, especially through Facebook and LinkedIn.

   The desire of alumni to have contact with their previous educational institutions is much lower than that of current students, as only three in ten alumni want to retain contact. This loss of fandom occurs primarily because the 'radio silence' between the school and its alumni last too long, so the need for connection with the school has been lost. Therefore, schools should work to involve their alumni shortly after they graduate.

24.6.3 Influencing Fans

As Fig. 24.3 shows, four main themes play a role in developing fans among current students. First, their *general satisfaction with their course of study* determines 40–50% of the fandom score. Sub-aspects of this theme include safety, course content, how well a school is organized, tutoring, information provision, and lecturers, all of which influence students' general satisfaction. Schools are advised to focus on these areas to help create fans. Second, the *gap between expectations and reality* determines 10–15% of the fandom score. Four gaps have particularly strong effects: lecturers' openness to answering questions, the degree to which the course content matches the student's personal interests, clarity of communications between lecturers and students, and clarity of communications between the school and students. When schools do not live up to expectations in these areas, fan scores fall. Third,
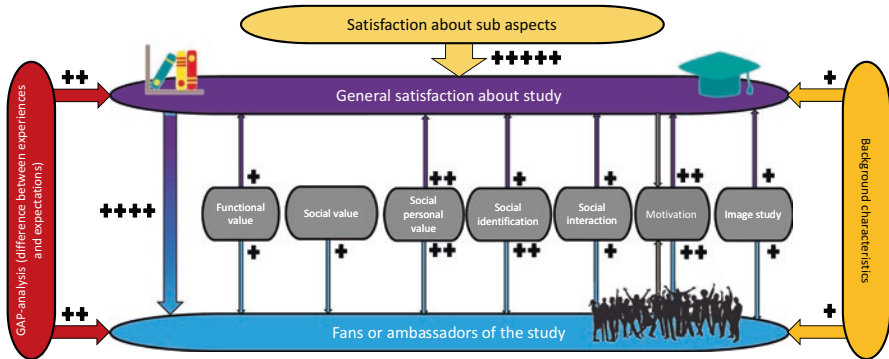
Fig. 24.3 Conceptual model of fandom of current students

students' *background characteristics* determine about 4% of the fandom score. Students' educational level, living area, study year, and the number of students in a class all influence this part of the fan score. Finally, *other themes* (based on scientific desk research) are the functional value of students' education as it relates to their CVs and future income, and the social value of their education as it relates to how students have developed by working in groups, participating in extracurricular activities, and connecting with other cultures, which is facilitated by the space the school provides for personal development (e.g. personal growth, critical thinking, problem-solving abilities). Another theme that affects fandom is social identification, which refers to how students identify socially with their courses of study in terms of how they react to criticism about their fields, whether they feel they are part of the field, and the value they attach to what others think about their fields. The degree to which students are motivated to put energy into their fields also influences their fandom, as does the school's image, as students value how their peers and potential employers view their schools.

24.6.4 How to Increase Fandom

Social personal value, social identification, and motivation appear to have the strongest influence on the creation of fans and ambassadors. These elements are related primarily to students' personal growth, so educational institutions can increase the number of fans and the degree of fandom by focusing on:

- The personal relationship between the school and its students by engaging lecturers to reach out to potential fans and alumni;
- Encouraging students' critical thinking;
- Appealing to and stimulating students' problem-solving ability;
- Ensuring that students feel a part of the educational institution and identify with their courses of study;
- Ensuring that students set personal goals so they are motivated;

- Actively supporting initiatives that can lead to students' self-development (e.g. student associations);
- Offering incentives for students who make extra effort in extracurricular activities (e.g. a year of board);
- Facilitating initiatives that strengthen the relationship between the educational institution and students (e.g. experience as a student assistant);
- Stimulating group-based education, where students can learn to anticipate the circumstances they will experience when they work in their fields; and
- Giving students a chance to play a role in their study programmes (e.g. by establishing a mini-company).

According to both current students and alumni, the most important prerequisite to becoming a fan/ambassador is satisfaction with their educational institution, particularly lecturers, communications, support, quality of classes, timetables, and involvement. When students are satisfied about their schools and feel good about them, they will talk positively about them, thereby becoming ambassadors. Students and alumni also value the opportunity to create a strong connection with their schools, their departments, and fellow students during their years of study, made possible by, for example, projects in which the whole school participates, specific study-related activities, and extracurricular activities. Giving students personal attention and involving them in the organisation also increases the chances of fandom. After students graduate, schools should stay in touch with the alumni, preferably by means of personal contact between lecturers and former students through activities for alumni like return-to-school days, networking events, reunions, or courses offered that are related to their fields of study (part-time education). Remaining in contact with alumni can be accomplished via social networking sites or e-mail, but alumni should be addressed as personally as possible, so they feel that the interest in them is sincere.

Markteffect's 2018 ideal school study showed that 20% of current university students could be classified as fans. Fans graded the determinants of school choice and satisfaction, especially the school's atmosphere and reputation, higher than non-fans did. When satisfaction with the school's atmosphere, motivation and challenge, facilities, and reputation increases, students are more likely to be fans. Of the college students 18% is a fan; colleges should work to increase their satisfaction with the schools' atmosphere, lecturers, personal approach and assistance in order to create more fans.

24.7   Conclusion and Next Steps

The education studies Markteffect has conducted provide useful insights into how schools can attract potential students, make current students happier, and create fans. That the studies used different research methods and were based on large samples adds strength to these findings. A limitation is that all studies were conducted in the Netherlands. Therefore, the studies need to be replicated in other countries with different educational systems and cultures.

24.7.1 How Can Educational Institutions Attract Potential Students?

Potential students often consult others in their direct environment (e.g. parents, friends, other students) for advice regarding their choice of study. Open days and education fairs can also help them to create an impression of a course of study and a school. Advice, open days, and education fairs are especially beneficial in the starting phase of an orientation process, when students still need to determine their fields of study and schools. Further in the process, being 'a student-for-a-day', attending trial lectures, and consulting the experiences of current students are popular tools. Most potential students believe that current students can provide them with the most realistic impression of a school, so current and former students should be included in the school's open days. Social networking sites can also help students form a complete impression of a school and its atmosphere. Potential students find vlogs, blogs, and chats with current students on the school's website to provide especially helpful and trustworthy information. Such information sources that provide a sound impression of the real situation in a school can help minimize the gap between potential students' expectations and what they actually experience when they enrol. Potential students find it difficult to form a sound impression regarding such aspects of a school as its atmosphere, the attitude of lecturers, and the school's expectations of its students. Accurate and thorough information before the student chooses a school and an area of study can help them to develop realistic expectations and avoid disappointment and dissatisfaction. Once a potential student applies, the school should keep him or her interested throughout the application process, as 30% of initial registrations result in deregistration or failure to appear. Sometimes schools have no influence over the reasons for these deregistrations, but schools can prevent some of them by giving a good impression during open days and providing sufficient and clear information (e.g. no contradictory emails, a clear acceptance letter). Schools should ensure that they provide sufficient contact moments between the initial registration, acceptance, and the start of studies to minimise the number of unsubscribers.

24.7.2 How Can Educational Institutions Satisfy Current Students?

A good atmosphere and good lecturers have the most positive influence on current students' satisfaction with their schools. Students want an atmosphere in which they feel safe and at home. Lecturers also have a significant direct and indirect influence on current students' satisfaction, as well as on the quality of the courses. Students appreciate lecturers' using a personal and involved approach and being helpful, respectful, and enthusiastic. Students' satisfaction also increases when their schools provide motivation and challenge, good facilities, and a strong connection between the course of study and the labour market. This last aspect needs schools' attention,

as current students see it as important but want more clarity about their job possibilities and career directions. The level of this dissatisfaction can be reduced by integrating practical examples into lessons and by giving students the opportunity to test theory in practice using, for example, internships and company visits. Specifically for colleges, these schools should increase their current students' satisfaction by making the school's expectations clearer. They want to know where they stand, so their satisfaction with the school's expectations will improve if colleges provide clear overviews of exam material and course planning and if exercises are described in a structured way. To keep track of current students' satisfaction, digital means can be used to gather continuous feedback from students about what is going well and what can be improved. Schools can use questionnaires to measure satisfaction and evaluation systems like a rate-your-day app to track when students are relatively happy or relatively unhappy so schools can implement corrective measures.

24.7.3   How Can Educational Institutions Create Fans?

Fans are current and former students who would make the same choice regarding their courses of study and schools, who are interested in part-time studies at the same school, who recommend their study and school to others, and who like to be in touch with their (former) educational institutions. Fans can create positive word-of-mouth for the school, thereby attracting potential students. To create fans, schools should develop strong connections between students and the school, their departments, and fellow students during their years of study by, for example, organising projects in which the whole school participates, planning study-related activities or extracurricular activities, involving them in the organisation, and giving students personal attention so they do not feel like numbers. Students who are fans during their studies can also be fans after they graduate if the school stays in touch with them, preferably by means of personal contact between lecturers and former students or personal messages on social networking sites like Facebook and LinkedIn. Schools are also advised to organise activities for alumni, such as return-to-school days, networking events, and reunions and by offering courses that relate to their former students' work lives. Successful alumni can also be asked to give lectures to potential students and current students to help them form good impressions of their future job possibilities. Whether current students or alumni, fans can help reduce the gap between students' expectations and experiences and improve the school's reputation.

24.7.4   Advice for the Future: Do's and Don'ts

Based on the experiences of potential and current college and university students, schools and lecturers are advised as follows:

- DO be clear about job possibilities and the time required to search for a suitable job;
- DO offer enough challenge and motivation by offering interesting, relevant, and up-to-date courses and exercises and the opportunity to gain experience in the work field;
- DO create fans of the school, which will result in positive word-of-mouth;
- DO organize open days and 'student-for-a-day' events where students can get an impression of a normal school day;
- DO ask former students about the most important ways the school could have improved their satisfaction;
- DO lower the threshold for studying abroad by making students aware of the school's connections with foreign universities or companies;
- DO greet students, show that the school knows who they are, and take them seriously;
- DO be involved and sincere by showing interest in students and listening to them;
- DO emphasize that all students are equal;
- DO offer help for students who have weaknesses and inform them that the school is there for them if they have school or private problems;
- DO be enthusiastic and helpful;
- For college students, DO provide students with clarity, overviews of course plans and exam material, and descriptions of assignments and the schedule;
- DO provide sufficient (quiet) study rooms;
- DON'T accept discrimination or bullying or favour of some students over others;
- DON'T lose sight of alumni;
- DON'T allow unspoken expectations and unclear rules and agreements with companies that offer internships;
- DON'T provide lessons and open days with little interaction, little variation, and too few practical examples;
- DON'T fail to be open to feedback;
- DON'T laugh at students' questions or react with impatience or annoyance;
- DON'T make students feel that they are just numbers;
- DON'T respond too slowly to emailed questions.

By applying this advice, schools can attract more potential students, make current students happier, and create fans. Social networking sites can help schools with this advice by helping them communicate to potential students what the school has to offer using stories and videos to ensure that potential students form a realistic image of the school. Communication via these channels appeals to how students live their lives. For example, schools should investigate how they can use a rating site (e.g. Trustpilot, TripAdvisor) to help students make decisions when multiple options are available. Such a rating system for schools is currently missing. If current students could rate their schools and/or lecturers, it would be easier for potential students to find the information they want most: evaluations of schools by current and former students. Such evaluations will also provide opportunities for improvement so schools can increase their students' satisfaction. Schools should work to make such a review platform possible, as it would help them attract potential students with realistic expectations and give schools clear direction for increasing current students' satisfaction.