

MARKETING MANAGEMENT JOURNAL

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Market Orientation and Country Markets: A Search for its Globalness and Role in Competitive Advantage of Firms

Samit Chakravorti

Can Social Media Ads Facilitate Retail Therapy? An Investigation of Psychological Outcomes of Ad Engagement in College Females

Alissa Russell and James Rogers

Root, Root, Root for the Home Team: The Persuasive Ability of Salesperson Perceived Team Identification in the Buyer-Seller Dyadic Exchange

Cameron Duncan Nicol, Robert Allen King and Darin White

Editorial: Thoughts on Marketing Management Journal

The Current Issue:

In the present issue, there are three regular submission manuscripts. These articles highlight the wide scope of topics that fall within the realm of Marketing Management. I want to highlight several key takeaways I gleaned from each of these articles. The first article, “Market Orientation and Country Markets: A Search for its Globalness and Role in Competitive Advantage of Firms” by Chakravorti, examines the role of market orientation in global markets. The author provides a historical analysis of 1) globalness of market orientation, 2) globalness of marketing orientation-performance relationships, and 3) market orientation in relation to competitive advantages. The study then develops a framework for global marketing. Overall, this study provides a strong summary of the literature, followed by directions for researchers to advance this topic through the examination of the provided framework.

The second article is titled, “Root, Root, Root for the Home Team: The Persuasive Ability of Salesperson Perceived Team Identification in the Buyer-Seller Dyadic Exchange,” and is written by Nicol, King, and White. This study examines the influence of perceived salesperson team loyalty congruence on the outcomes of customer trust, customer satisfaction, customer gratitude, and purchase intention. In addition, customer team identification is examined as a moderating variable. This study is interesting, given the impact that team identification can have on the sales process.

The third article, “Can Social Media Ads Facilitate Retail Therapy? An Investigation of Psychological Outcomes of Ad Engagement in College Females,” was written by Russell and Rogers. The study examines the relationship between engagement with social media ads and self-regulation on depression, fear of missing out, and anxiety. As the body of social media research is growing, this study builds additional research to this base of knowledge while also focusing specifically on female respondents.

Special Recognition Awards:

The Journal has two annual awards. The first award is “The Reviewer of the Year Award.” The Editor of the Journal selects this award. I am happy to announce Pavan Chennamaneni as the Reviewer of the Year. He is a Professor of Marketing at the University of Wisconsin-Whitewater. Thank you for your excellent service to the Journal!

The second award is the “MMJ Outstanding Article of the Year.” The Journal’s Editorial Review Board voted on this award. The ten manuscripts for consideration were published in 2018 (Volume 28) under my Editorship. Voting for this award occurred this year between November 3rd and November 30th. The results were close, with nine of the ten manuscripts receiving at least one vote. The manuscript titled, “PLS-SEM: The Holy Grail for Advanced Analysis,” by Lucy Matthews (Middle Tennessee State University), Joe Hair (The University of South Alabama), and Ryan Matthews (RLM Enterprises, LLC) is the Outstanding Article of the Year. Congratulations!

New Member of the Editorial Review Board:

I am proud to announce a new member of the Editorial Review Board:

Cindy Rippe – University of North Georgia

As submissions continue to increase in number and quality, I will continue to add new members to the Editorial Review Board. As can be seen, new Editorial Review Board members have strong records of research accomplishment and are able to review multiple topics and methods. At the conclusion of this volume, the term for several members of the Editorial Review Board will conclude. I want to thank these scholars for the contributions they have made to the Journal over their tenure as members of the Editorial Review Board.

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MANUSCRIPT AND SUBMISSION GUIDELINES

MARKETING MANAGEMENT JOURNAL

January 2019

Scope and Mission

The mission of the *Marketing Management Journal* (MMJ) is to provide a forum for the sharing of the academic, theoretical, and practical research that may impact the development of the marketing management discipline. Manuscripts that focus upon empirical research, theory, methodology, and review of a broad range of marketing topics are strongly encouraged. Submissions are encouraged from both academic and practitioner communities.

Submission Guidelines

Manuscripts that do not conform to submission guidelines will not be distributed for review. Authors should submit manuscripts via email to mmj@mmaglobal.org. Each submission should consist of two files:

1. A file containing the cover page listing the manuscript title, each author's name, institution affiliation, mailing address, telephone number, and email address. If there are multiple authors, the editor will consider the author originating the manuscript submission the contact author unless otherwise noted.
2. A file containing the manuscript title, an abstract of no more than 150 words, keywords, and manuscript. Author identification or affiliation should not appear anywhere in this file.

Manuscripts should be submitted using 12-point Times Roman font and should not exceed 30 typewritten pages inclusive of body, tables and figures, and references. Margins must be one inch. Preparation of the manuscript should follow style guidelines in the most recent *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 6th edition. Tables and figures used in the manuscript should be included on a separate page and placed at the end of the manuscript. Authors should insert a location note within the body of the manuscript to identify appropriate placement. Tables and figures should be constructed in table mode of Microsoft Word.

The MMJ editorial board interprets the submission of a manuscript as a commitment to publish in MMJ. Editorial policy prohibits publication of a manuscript that has already been published in whole or in substantial part by another journal. Each manuscript is first assessed by the editor to determine its potential for successful completion of the review process. A manuscript that goes beyond the initial review goes through a double-blind review conducted by members of MMJ's review board. Feedback from reviewers and the editor team's evaluation are used to make a decision on whether a manuscript will be accepted for publication in MMJ.

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MARKET ORIENTATION AND COUNTRY MARKETS: A SEARCH FOR ITS GLOBALNESS AND ROLE IN COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE OF FIRMS

SAMIT CHAKRAVORTI, Western Illinois University

This paper is a historical analysis of the nature and role of market orientation in global markets. The two-fold goals are to understand first, if market orientation is global in terms of its development, nature, and desired strength, and second if its impact on organizational performance is consistent across countries. Articles on market orientation between 1995 and 2018 were qualitatively analyzed. Analysis shows that market orientation is global to the extent that there are global antecedents of market orientation, and on average, market orientation positively impacts organizational performance across countries. At the same time country environmental and organizational factors moderate the development and nature of market orientation in each country, the development of strategic dynamic capabilities generated from market orientation and, through the latter, its impact on different kinds of performances. Both similarities and differences exist across countries, environmentally similar and different and within-country for different performance variables. The analysis could not bring out set patterns, making generalization difficult and unwise. Findings also indicate that for global competitiveness, market orientation will likely need to be complemented by one or more other strategic orientations. Degree of relative importance of strategic orientations for competitive advantage will vary based on country environments and organizational factors.

INTRODUCTION

Market Orientation (MO) helps achieve competitive advantage through understanding market conditions, and adapting to those (Kirca, Jayachandran, and Bearden, 2005; Slater and Narver, 1995). In this age of globalization, companies operating globally would thus be interested in knowing if the nature of market orientation and its beneficial impact on performance remains consistent across countries. Past meta-analyses (Cano, Carrillat, and Jaramillo, 2004; Ellis, 2006; Grinstein, 2008; Kirca et al., 2005) on market orientation have confirmed the positive impact of market orientation on global markets. These meta-analyses, however, did not provide a complete picture of the global nature and role of market orientation that includes an exploration of its antecedents, performance impacts, moderating and mediating influences and its relative importance vis-à-vis other strategic orientations. The nature of the research method (meta-analysis) also restricted the breadth of articles covered in these papers. Given the rapid change in the world of global business

and competition over the last decade, this complete picture is needed to holistically understand the development and role of market orientations on a global scale. A global nature and role of market orientation depend upon which environmental factors moderate the generation of MO and its impact on performance and to what extent. A current growing percentage of studies are indicating that market orientation's impact is more complex than thought before. It is thus imperative for organizations, and particularly their marketing and management functions, to get a better grasp of the global role MO and its relative importance vis-à-vis other strategic orientations.

This paper provides a holistic picture of the global nature of market orientation. It is a comprehensive evaluation of the role of market orientation in organizational performance across countries. It determines the possible global nature of market orientation. It explores if the nature and strength of market orientation and its impact on performance stay the same across different markets, and investigates factors responsible for any difference. It also brings into the discussion the varying importance of market orientation vis-à-vis other strategic orientations across country markets.

This evaluation is performed through a historical analysis of published studies on market orientation in different markets. The paper culminates in a global framework for market orientation. The paper follows the following sequence. Theoretical background information on market orientation, research propositions, research method, historical analysis, framework, conclusion and implications.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Market orientation (MO), stated simply, is the implementation of the marketing concept. The marketing concept is a market-driven and logical thought process that places the customer at the heart of all company operations. Its implementation leads to greater organizational commitment, higher customer satisfaction, and stronger firm performance (Kohli and Jaworski, 1990; Narver and Slater, 1990).

Narver and Slater (1990) consider market orientation as a culture where company norms and attitudes create a belief that customers are always at the center of company operations. Understanding, analyzing, and satisfying current and evolving customer needs are of prime importance. The authors argue that MO culture can be achieved by developing and aligning the three interrelated forces of customer orientation, competitor orientation and inter-functional coordination.

Kohli and Jaworski (1990), on the other hand, adopt a process and behavior-based view of market orientation which includes the three elements of information acquisition, dissemination and responsiveness. Market intelligence is acquired and analyzed to create knowledge, disseminated throughout the organization to develop strategies for competing.

Together, the two views discuss the complementary market-oriented organizational forces (culture and behavior), that help achieve customer satisfaction (Dalgic, 1998). An organizational culture characterized by a strong motivation by employees to follow competitor moves, customer needs, and market trends, is likely to facilitate generation, dissemination and

response to information (Jaworski and Kohli, 1993). MO culture should lead to MO behavior.

The consensus today is that market orientation has both an intangible facet, based on culture, values and norms, and a more tangible one, based on behavior. These behaviors ultimately drive business success (Carr and Lopez, 2007; Homburg and Pflesser, 2000; Cadogan, 2003; Harris, 1998; Jaworski and Kohli, 1996). Market-orientated organizations depend on knowledge derived from customer and competitor analysis, which is shared across the organization, to deliver superior customer experience (Day, 1994; Narver and Slater, 1990). This makes market orientation a capability of the firm that is critical for long term performance (Day, 1994; Deshpande and Farley, 1998; Slater and Narver, 1995).

Customer needs and wants can be obvious and well expressed by the consumer but also latent, something that the consumer is not yet aware (Narver, Slater, and MacLachlan, 2004). Firms need to consider both for innovation and long term customer satisfaction and organizational growth. Thus, the nature of market orientation, which is a foundation for innovation, has been refined to create two complimentary types: responsive market orientation and proactive market orientation (Narver, Slater, and MacLachlan, 2004). Responsive market orientation is driven by the market and attempts to satisfy consumers' expressed needs and wants. Proactive market orientation is market driving in that it attempts to change the market's structure and consumer behavior by proactively understanding latent needs and satisfying the same (Jaworski, Kohli, and Sahay, 2000; Narver, Slater, and MacLachlan, 2004). Multiple studies done on the Profit Impact of Marketing Strategy (PIMS) database have consistently shown that product quality and marketing expenditures (actionable expressions of market orientation) positively impact performance of organizations (Buzzell and Chusil, 1985; Buzzell and Wiersema, 1981).

In today's hypercompetitive and diverse international markets, it is becoming obvious that application of intangible resources, such as knowledge and information-derived from human resources (as against tangible resources)

to develop business and marketing capabilities surrounding consumer usage experience and competitors' moves, provides the most value-in-use and creates a foundation for the most cash flow and competitive advantage (Lusch, Vargo, and Malter, 2006). The service dominant logic of marketing stresses the importance of developing intangible competencies and capabilities to effectively satisfy the varying consumer and market demands in international markets (Lusch, Vargo, and Malter, 2006). Capabilities to absorb market information, competencies to analyze market needs, and capabilities of collaborating with value chain partners and consumers should become the hallmark characteristics of a market-oriented organization.

Phillip Kotler (1986) draws a broad capability approach to marketing, which is particularly relevant to international markets. Calling it "megamarketing," he stresses that organizations need to develop a broad range of capabilities to successfully enter and operate in markets that provide challenges on multiple fronts. To target these challenges organizations must not only use information to proactively engage in driving the customer market, but also collaborate with partners to meet the needs of the market to the point of using political power and coercion, if needed.

The above discussion indicates that market orientation is born off the culture of the organization. A market-oriented organizational culture should result in market-oriented behaviors which are a set of complementary capabilities that can effectively respond to and drive the demands of the market and customers, resulting in a positive impact on both financial and non-financial performance. The kind of capabilities needed will likely be both similar and different across international markets, depending on how similar and different the realities and demands are.

RESEARCH PROPOSITIONS

Globalness of Market Orientation and Its Impact on Performance

Globalness is the degree to which a phenomenon or construct is more or less globally applicable, recognized and

standardized (Dimofte, Johansson, and Ronkainen, 2008; Sichtmann and Diamantopoulos, 2013). In regards to market orientation, it relates to the globalness of its antecedents, the process of its development, its nature and strength, its impact on firm performance and its importance for competitive advantage.

Contingency theory states that the process of internationalization of firms and eventual success in foreign markets depends on various contextual factors. These factors can be both internal to the organization and external in the environment (Cadogan and Cui, 2004; Atuahene-Gima, Slater, and Olsen, 2005; Jones, 1999; Roberts, 1999). An organization's operational leadership perspectives, and its abilities to both critically absorb and process market information (market-driven) to discover latent market needs and steer the structure and the behavior of the market in a certain direction (market driving) are the two factors that impact the type of market orientation the firm will develop (Jaworski, Kohli, and Sahay, 2000; Jaworski, Narver, Slater and Maclachlan, 2004; Narver and Slater, 1990).

National cultural mores tend to influence leadership perspectives, type of decision making and organizational cultures (Huang and Dastmalchian, 2006). For companies operating in foreign markets, unfamiliar environments make it more difficult to read markets and effectively collect and process market information. Information could be of low quality, incomplete, be available in a form which is difficult to process and may take longer to collect (Cadogan, et al., 2002; Ellis, 2007). The above difficulties should negatively impact both market driving and market-driven capabilities. Developing one or both these abilities to the optimum level will also take time in a foreign market. Additionally, the optimum level of efficacy will depend upon the levels of market-driven and market driving capabilities competitors in that market have. Thus, across markets, differences in country environments, and in the number and strength of competitors in each market should impact development of the extent and kind of market orientation, and dynamic capabilities.

Literature has shown that market orientation's impact on performance is not universally positive, with some studies showing no effect and some with negative effect (Deshpande, Farley, and Webster, 2000; Harris, 2001). Research argues this is because market orientation as a resource has only potential benefits to offer and the actual impact on performance occurs only when market-oriented knowledge is translated into dynamic capabilities and deployed in the form of implementable strategies (Ketchen, Hult, and Slater, 2007; Murray, Gao, and Kotabe, 2011). Degree of innovativeness (Han, Kim, and Srivastava, 1998) and product development capabilities (Peng and Lin, 2017) have been shown to mediate impacts of market orientation and other strategic orientations on performance. This transformation of MO knowledge into MO capabilities and its deployment can be impacted by environmental realities, such as national culture, communication systems, regulations, transportation infrastructure, degree of competition and types of relationships to name a few (Tsai, Chou, and Kuo, 2008). An analysis of the PIMS database with a particular objective of understanding marketing strategies' impact on global expansion showed that marketing and technological capabilities are of prime importance for both pioneering market entry and profitability. These capabilities facilitate comprehension of the competitive demands in different markets and development of adaptive strategies to cater to the same (Chang, 1996)

The above discussion indicates that contexts in international markets should impact generation of MO, development of market-oriented capabilities and deployment of these resources. This, in turn, should change the degree of impact on performance.

Globalness of Market Orientation's Impact on Competitive Advantage

Market orientation is a multifaceted concept. MO behavior – a concerted action of collecting, disseminating, analyzing and responding to market information – should create a shared memory within the organization. Over time this shared memory leads to organizational learning, which when reinforced develops into dynamic capabilities (Day 1994, Narver and Slater,

1995). The culture of MO – the orientation towards customers, competitors and a strong coordination across functions – should support development of these capabilities, by creating an atmosphere of collaborative innovation and entrepreneurship, thereby facilitating improvements in organizational systems and processes. These should make it easier to identify and satisfy current, latent and future needs of customers (Kumar, Jones, Venkatesan, and Leone, 2011). Development of market-oriented processes of collaboration and knowledge management are usually complex and diverse, given the unique culture of an organization and the realities it faces. Thus, these processes and the resulting market-oriented learning and capabilities should evolve organically for organizations operating in different country markets and may need to be adapted even for any particular organization as it expands and grows its presence in any particular country market. Market orientation can thus be considered to be a valuable, imperfectly inimitable and socially complex resource, with components which are highly interdependent. Research has shown MO to provide a rare, valuable and inimitable knowledge base (Menguc and Auh, 2006; Morgan, Vorhies, and Mason, 2009) and to affect a firm's innovativeness, helping meet customers' evolving needs and wants, and leading to higher perception of quality and customer loyalty (Han et al., 1998; Slater and Narver, 1994). These in turn affect financial performance through increased competitive advantage in the areas of repeat purchases, less negative word of mouth, and higher prices and/or lower costs (Henard and Syzanski, 2001; Slater and Narver, 1994). This is supported by the Resource Based View (RBV) of the firm, which sees market-oriented activities as a business resource and capability, helping firms achieve competitive advantage, and strong performance (Dimitratos and Plakoyanaki, 2003; Hult and Ketchen, 2001; Hunt and Morgan, 1995; Narver and Slater, 1990).

As argued above, foreign market environments will likely impact development of MO by moderating impacts of antecedents, such as leadership and activities of information collection and processing. This may result both in different types (natures) of MO (responsive-market driven or proactive-market driving) with

varying levels (strengths) in different countries. Impact of a changed MO will result in changed dynamic capabilities. Change in MO and capabilities in different markets should differently impact performance and competitive advantage in these markets. Thus in different markets, given the performance objectives of the organization and the moderating influence of environments, it may be feasible and desirable to develop MO only of a certain nature and to a certain level. Depending on this nature and level of MO (and associated capabilities) in a foreign market and the market realities, MO may need the help of other strategic orientations (international, learning, entrepreneurial and technology) and related capabilities to achieve and sustain competitive advantage. The differences in the level of learning needed in new markets, the system of technology in use, the degree of market dynamism, the extent of competition and the types of consumer needs in markets, may push MO to collaborate and interact with other strategic firm orientations to gain an advantage (Barrett and Weinstein, 1998). This synergy with other strategic orientations should make the combined strategic orientations and related capabilities even more difficult to imitate and hence rare. MO is important for competitive advantage in all markets, but its relative role and importance will likely change with changing market realities and demands.

Based on the above discussion, the following research propositions are being made. The propositions, in sum, state that contextual factors existing in different country markets will change the qualitative nature of MO, its levels and its impact on performance. It will also change the role MO plays in achieving competitive advantage. These impacts should lessen the degree of globalness of MO.

- P₁: Market orientation is not global: Even though the antecedents of market orientation may remain global, the nature (type) and extent (level) of market orientation developed in different markets is moderated by contextual factors
- P₂: Market orientation's impact on performance is not global, it is moderated by contextual factors

- P₃: The importance and role of market orientation in competitive advantage is not global, it is moderated by contextual factors

RESEARCH METHOD

The international exploration of market orientation takes place through a historical analysis of the contents of academic articles on market orientation. The articles were published between 1995 and 2018 and investigate market orientation in different country markets. Findings are amalgamated and then interpreted. An exploratory research method will help find answers to the research propositions through a holistic comparison across countries, of the development and impact of market orientation on performance and the contextual factors that moderate the same.

Historical analysis is a process of gathering, examining and summarizing the records of the past (Golder and Tellis, 1993). The records of the past (articles) chosen for this analysis are all publicly available sources of information. The advantage of historical analysis is that it captures multiple narratives from experts as the topic of discussion and analysis progresses overtime. So it can be seen as prospective, rather than retrospective (Golder and Tellis, 1993). Researchers have often urged for the use of the historical analysis in marketing (Nevett, 1991).

Historical analysis also helps in theory development (Shah and Corley, 2006). Historical analysis helps unearth the "why" and "how" of phenomenon that is evolving. With globalization, the business environments and consumers in different countries are changing. For companies going international, these changes affect what it takes to be market-oriented, satisfy customers, and have a competitive edge. This makes the phenomenon of development of market orientation and its impact on performance evolving. This evolving nature of a phenomenon not only needs theory testing, but also theory development. Historical analysis of a comprehensive set of articles, develops a holistic knowledge, and unearths intricate and nuanced workings of a phenomenon.

Articles were searched and selected on ABI Inform and Business Source Elite using a combination of keywords, such as the following, paired with market orientation: international business, national culture, economic environment, market forces, organizational culture, international marketing, exporting, international markets, organizational performance, and other closely related terms, as well as terms that reflect different facets of a construct, such as customer loyalty and profits for performance. These two databases are the biggest and most utilized databases for business academics. The choice of the search words were based on findings and frameworks of previous reviews on market orientation (Cano et al., 2004; Ellis, 2006; Grinstein, 2008; Kirca et al., 2005). The search resulted in a total of 96 usable articles from a wide range of journals, dates and countries. The articles collectively cover issues of market orientation between 1995 and 2018, in over 35 countries across all continents. Some articles limit themselves to one country, and some compare multiple countries. Some countries, such as China, Taiwan, EU and the US, are investigated more frequently than others. The firms and industries covered are equally diverse, including small and large, global and national, private and state owned companies, in banking, insurance, museums, and a wide variety of manufacturing and service industries. The employees interviewed were mostly middle to higher managers and CEOs, in some cases.

The historical analysis follows the same pattern as the development of the research questions. It first answers if market orientation across the world is global in nature. This includes a discussion of the antecedents of market orientation and mediating and moderating impacts in its development. This is followed by an answer to the question if the impact of market orientation on performance is global. This also includes a discussion of mediating and moderating factors that impact market orientation - performance relationships. Finally, the section on historical analysis explores the question of the impact and role of market orientation in global competitiveness of firms. Table 1 in Appendix provides a snapshot of findings from articles selected for the historical analysis. The findings are categorized under three broad categories, reflecting the three

research questions and further sub-categorized to reflect the discussion below.

HISTORICAL ANALYSIS

Globalness of Market Orientation

About thirty percent of the articles discussed development of market orientation in different countries and impacts of specific antecedents. This set of articles, however, establishes that many of the antecedents of market orientation are common across culturally and economically diverse nations and across different industries. Only about fifteen percent of articles investigated contextual moderators of antecedent-market orientation relationships. This could be seen as a surprisingly small number, given the general understanding that environments in different countries matter. These articles do show that despite the large consistency in antecedents and their impacts on MO, contextual factors impact the levels of these antecedents, their relative importance, and interaction across countries, in turn, affecting MO's nature and strength.

The primary antecedents of MO that are common across countries are leadership, organizational culture, organizational structure, and organizational processes, policies and procedures. Top management's outlook and behavior, and the procedures and policies they lay down, set the tone and direction for an organization. Senior management's perception of environmental forces, their degree of risk taking, experience with marketing, level of education, people-oriented, and particularly their emphasis on market orientation, influence the organization to generate MO (Brettel et al., 2008; Horng and Chen, 1998; Pulendran et al., 1996; Ranjbarian, Kaboli, and Rojuee, 2012; Selnes, Jaworski, and Kohli, 1996; Shoham and Rose, 2001; Winston and Dadzie, 2002; Wolfgang, 1996).

Structures, processes, policies and procedures form a firm's backbone and a certain desirable combination when aligned, facilitate market-oriented culture and behaviors. Across countries that are different in culture, economy, political structure and market characteristics, degree of centralization or decentralization and formalization in structure facilitate the

**TABLE 1:
Findings from Historical Analysis of Articles**

Research Hypothesis	Framework Components	Research Findings	Authors (year)	Countries
Globalness of Market Orientation	Antecedents of MO	TOP MANAGEMENT OUTLOOK & BEHAVIOR		
		Emphasis on MO by top management	Ranjbarian et al. (2012); Winston & Dadzie (2002); Pulendran et al. (2000); Horng & Cheng (1998); Selnes et al. (1996)	Iran; Kenya & Nigeria; Australia; Taiwan; US & Scandanavia
		Risk taking by top management	Ranjbarian et al. (2012); Shoham & Rose (2001)	Iran; Israel
		Perception of environmental changes by management	Ranjbarian et al. (2012)	Iran
		Education of top management	Horng & Cheng (1998)	Taiwan
		Marketing experience of top management	Horng & Cheng (1998)	Taiwan
		People orientation of top management	Horng & Cheng (1998)	Taiwan
		Marketing executive in top management	Wolfgang (1996)	Germany
		Participatory and considerate leadership	Brettel et al. (2008)	Germany, Thailand & Indonesia
		ORGANIZATIONAL PROCESSES, POLICIES & PROCEDURES		
		Market-based reward system	Ranjbarian et al. (2012); Cadogan et al. (2001); Shoham & Rose (2001); Pulendran et al. (2000); Selnes et al. (1996)	Iran; New Zealand, & Finland; Israel; Australia; US & Scandinavia
		Market-oriented staffing	Brettel et al. (2008)	Germany, Thailand and Indonesia
		Training to develop management capabilities	Cadogan et al. (2001); Horng & Cheng (1998)	New Zealand, & Finland; Taiwan
		Intensity and Contents of Planning	Brettel et al. (2008)	Germany, Thailand & Indonesia
		Quality, speed, capacity and formality of intelligence tasks	Nakata (2002)	23 Countries
		Inter-departmental coordination	Ranjbarian et al. (2012)	Iran
		Internationalization	Cadogan et al. (2009)	Finland
		Dependence on foreign markets	Ellis (2007); Cadogan et al. (2002)	Taiwan; US

TABLE 1:
Continued

Research Hypothesis	Framework Components	Research Findings	Authors (year)	Countries
		International cooperation	Gluic and Mihanovic (2016)	Croatia
		Export coordination (capabilities)	Cadogan et al. (2006); Cadogan et al. (2002); Cadogan et al. (2001)	Hong Kong; US; New Zealand, & Finland
		Responsibility of employees for MO	Homburg & Pflesser (2000)	Germany
		Strategic alliance	Shin et al. (2012)	US & Korea
		ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE		
		Centralization/Decentralization (depends on national culture)	Ranjbarian et al. (2012); Brettel et al. (2008); Ca- dogan et al. (2006); Selnes et al. (1996)	Iran; Germany, Thailand and Indo- nesia; Hong Kong; US & Scandinavia
		Formalization	Cadogan et al. (2006); Li et al. (2006)	Hong Kong; China
		Private ownership	Winston & Dadzie (2002)	Kenya, Nigeria
		ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE		
		Artifacts of MO (stories, rituals and language)	Homburg & Pflesser (2000)	Germany
		Market-oriented attitude	Kuster & Vila (2011)	Spain
		Commitment	Chang and Fang (2015); Cadogan et al. (2001)	Taiwan; New Zealand, & Finland
		Trust (Social Trust)	Chang and Fang (2015); Huang & Dastmalchain (2006)	Taiwan; China, Hong Kong, Taiwan and US
		Power	Chang and Fang (2015)	Taiwan
		Job satisfaction of employees	Huang & Dastmalchain (2006)	China, Taiwan, Hong Kong & US
		Openness of internal communication	Homburg & Pflesser (2000)	Germany
		Interdepartmental connectedness	Shoham & Rose (2001); Pulendran et al. (2000); Selnes et al. (1996)	Israel; Australia; US & Scandinavia
		Cooperation among marketing, produc- tion and R&D	Wolfgang (1996)	Germany
		Influence of marketing department	Verhoef et al. (2011); Wolfgang (1996)	Netherlands, US, UK, Germany, Sweden, Israel, Australia; Germany

TABLE 1:
Continued

Research Hypothesis	Framework Components	Research Findings	Authors (year)	Countries	
	Factors Mediating Impact of Antecedent on	Cautiousness in decision making and operations	Huang & Dastmalchain (2006)	China, Hong Kong, Taiwan and US	
		Learning orientation	Bremen & Dalgic (2000)	Netherlands	
		Export experience	Cadogan et al. (2006); Cadogan et al. (2002); Cadogan et al. (2001)	Hong Kong; US; New Zealand & Finland	
		EXTERNAL Distance to foreign markets Diversity in foreign markets National Culture (Hofstede's dimensions)	Ellis (2007) Ellis (2007) Deshpande & Farley (1999)	Taiwan Taiwan India & Japan	
		Culture: Changes the nature of MO developed. US utilizes shared intelligence more than Korea Korea shares more intelligence than US	Shin et al. (2012)	US, Korea	
	Factors Moderating Impact of Antecedent on MO	ECONOMY			
		Decreasing demand for electricity; technological development; high amortization: Strengthens	Fedosova & Volkova (2018)	Russia	
		Political Economy	Selnes et al. (1996)	US & Scandinavia	
		Govt Interference: Weakens impact of formalization	Li et al. (2006)	China	
		Less Govt Control: Strengthens	Deng and Dart (1999)	China	
		Privatization: Strengthens	Deng and Dart (1999)	China	
		Degree of government equity stake in firms: Weakens	Zhou (2018)	China	
		Regulatory Turbulence: Strengthens impact of formalization (Finland); Weakens impact of centralization	Cadogan et al. (2001)	New Zealand & Finland	
		Environmental Turbulence: Strengthens impact of Centralization and Export Coordination Weakens impact of formalization	Cadogan et al. (2006)	Hong Kong	
		Environmental Uncertainty: Strengthens	Golden et al. (1995)	Russia	
		CULTURE			
		National Culture	Nakata (2002)	25 countries	
		National Culture	Selnes et al. (1996)	US & Scandinavia	
		Uncertainty Avoidance: Strengthens impact of Intensity of Planning	Brettel et al. (2008)	Germany, Thailand and Indonesia	
		Individualism: Strengthens impact of market-based staffing Strengthens impact of social trust Strengthens	Huang & Dastmalchain (2006)	China, Taiwan, Hong Kong and US	

TABLE 1:
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Research Hypothesis	Framework Components	Research Findings	Authors (year)	Countries
Globalness of Market Orientation-Performance Relationships		Collectivism: Strengthens	Huff and Kelley (2005)	China, Hong Kong, Japan, South Korea, Malaysia, Taiwan and US
		Power distance: Strengthens impact of participatory and considerate leadership	Brettel et al. (2008)	Germany, Thailand and Indonesia
		History and Tradition	Hong (2018)	China and Australia
		Socio-political history	Nakata (2002)	25 countries
		MARKET Market Competitive Pressures: Strengthens impact of formalization Competition Strengthened Export Market Dynamism: Weakens impact of formalization	Li et al. (2006) Nakata (2002) Cadogan et al. (2001)	China 25 Countries New Zealand and Finland
		ORGANIZATION Culture of Change: Strengthens impact of job satisfaction	Huang & Dastmalchian (2006)	China, Taiwan, Hong Kong and US
		Location (coastal): Strengthens Size (small and medium): Strengthens	Selnes et al. (1996) Selnes et al. (1996)	US & Scandinavia
	Impact of MO on Performance*	FINANCIAL AND MIXED		
	*Impacts shown are all positive unless otherwise noted	<i>Export Sales, Growth and Profits</i>	Cadogan, Diamantopoulos, & Sigauw (2002); Rose and Shoham (2002); Feder (2015); Pelayo-Maciel et al. (2018); Lenglar et al. (2013); Cadogan et al. (2012); Cadogan et al. (2009); Chang & Fang (2015); Cadogan & Cui (2004); Cadogan et al. (2003); Cadogan et al. (2002)	US, UK, Netherlands, New Zealand; Romania Germany & Thailand; Switzerland & China; Mexico; Brazil; Finland; Finland; Taiwan; China; Hong Kong; Finland; US; Israel
		<i>Export Success</i> U- shaped for firms with diverse portfolio Inverted U-shaped for firms with focused portfolios	Sorensen and Madsen (2012)	Denmark
		<i>Export Performance</i>	Alotaibi and Zang (2018); Fuchs (2012); Racela et al. (2007); Diamantopoulos et al. (2000)	Saudi Arabia; Germany; Thailand; US, UK, Netherlands, New Zealand;
		<i>Sales, Profitability, Growth, Market Share</i>	Peng & Lin (2017); Gruber-Muecke and Hofer (2015); Salavou (2002); Javalgi et al. (2011); Kumar et al. (2011); Kwon (2010); Brettel et al. (2009); Deshpande & Farley (2007); Liu et al. (2006); Deshpande & Farley (2004); Sin et al. (2003); Grewal & Tansuhaj (2001); Deshpande & Farley (2000); Appiah-Adu, (1999); Gray et al. (1998); Ngai & Ellis (1998); Golden et al. (1995)	Taiwan; Austria; Greece; India; US; Korean subsidiary in India and China; Germany & Thailand; Brazil; China; Japan, US, France, UK, Germany, India, Hong Kong, Vietnam, China, Thailand; China & Hong Kong; Thailand; India & Japan; Ghana; New Zealand; Hong Kong; Russia (1995)

TABLE 1:
Continued

Research Hypothesis	Framework Components	Research Findings	Authors (year)	Countries
		<i>Financial Performance</i>	Feder (2015); Brettel et al. (2009); Gebauer & Zedtwitz (2007); Hooley et al. (2000); Ranjbarian et al. (2012); Llonch et al. (2011); Ellis (2007); Subramanian & Gopalakrishna (2002); Shoham & Rose (2001)	Romania; Germany & Thailand; Switzerland & China; Hungary, Poland & Slovenia; Iran; Cuba; Taiwan; India; Israel
		<i>Market Performance</i>	Homburg & Pflessor (2000); Hooley et al. (2000); Verhoef et al. (2011)	Germany; Hungary, Poland & Slovenia; Netherlands, UK, Germany, US, Sweden, Israel, Australia
		<i>Overall Business Performance</i>	Pulendran et al. (2000); Horng & Chen (1998); Pitt et al. (1996); Knight & Dalgic (2000)	Australia; Taiwan; UK & Malta; US
		<i>International Performance</i> (profitability, sales growth and ROI vis a vis goals)	Kwon (2011)	Korean subsidiary in India
		<i>Foreign subsidiary performance</i> [sales (vol, growth & profitability) market share & success of market entry; Success in Controlling Expenses]	Liu et al. (2006)	China
		<i>Corporate Success</i> (profitability, competitiveness, customer satisfaction, continuance of the firm)	Wolfgang (1996)	Germany
		NON-FINANCIAL		
		Non- financial Performance	Ranjbarian et al. (2012)	Iran
		Non- financial Performance	Llonch et al. (2011)	Cuba
		Non- financial Performance	Subramanian & Gopalakrishna (2002)	India
		Non- financial Performance	Shoham & Rose (2001)	Israel
		COMPETITION AND MARKET		
		Competitive Position	Monferrer & Ripolles (2012)	Spain & Belgium
		Market Effectiveness	Brettel et al. (2012)	Austria, Germany, Switzerland, Thailand & US
		Competitiveness	Akimova (2000)	Ukraine
		Success in Market Entry	Kwon (2010)	Korean subsidiary in India and China
		Rate of Market Entry	Cadogan, Diamantopoulos, & Sigauw (2002)	US

TABLE 1:
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Research Hypothesis	Framework Components	Research Findings	Authors (year)	Countries
		MARKETING AND SALES		
		Marketing-Sales Effectiveness	Brettel et al. (2009)	Germany & Thailand
		Marketing Strategy	Hooley et al. (2000)	Hungary & Poland & Slovenia
		Brand Awareness	Gray et al. (1998)	New Zealand
		PRODUCT RELATED		
		Product Evaluations	Song et al (2018)	25 countries
		New Product Performance	Najafi-Tavani et al. (2016)	Sweden
		New Product Performance: U-shaped of responsive MO Inverted U-shaped of proactive MO	Atuahene-Gima et al. (2005)	US
		New Product Performance: Inverted U Shaped	Tsai et al. (2008)	Taiwan
		Product Innovation	Boso et al. (2013)	Ghana
		New Product Success (in hi tech)	Wu (2011)	Taiwan
		New Product Success	Liu et al. (2006)	China
		New Product Development	Murray et al. (2011)	China
		Innovation: Organizational & Technological Innovation Innovativeness Innovation Innovation Competencies	Camarero & Garrido Kim et al. (2011) Kuster & Villa (2011) Li & Lin (2008)	UK, France, Spain & Italy India Spain Taiwan
		ORGANIZATIONAL		
		Entrepreneurship	Liu et al. (2003)	China
		Technology initiatives	Urbano et al. (2018)	23 countries
		Business Model Change	Fedosa & Volkova (2018)	Russia
		Marketing Program Dynamism	Liu et al. (2003)	China
		Environmental Sustainability	Ardito & Dangelico (2018)	Global
		Information Access	Tse et al. (2003)	China & Hong Kong
		Loan Access	Tse et al. (2003)	China & Hong Kong
		Access to Local Resources	Tse et al. (2003)	China & Hong Kong

TABLE 1:
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Research Hypothesis	Framework Components	Research Findings	Authors (year)	Countries
		RELATIONSHIPS		
		Inter firm Relationships	Gluic & Mihanovic (2016)	Croatia
		Relationship value	Cass & Ngo (2012)	Australia
		Co-creation value	Ju et al. (2012)	China
		Performance value	Racela et al. (2007)	Thailand
		Distribution Opportunism (negative effect)	Racela et al. (2007)	Thailand
		Cooperation between Exporters	Racela et al. (2007)	Thailand
		Dependence (negative effect)	Racela et al. (2007)	Thailand
		Relationship Distance (negative effect)	Racela et al. (2007)	Thailand
		CUSTOMER RELATED		
		Customer's Capability to make Payments	Alteren and Tudoran (2016)	Norway
		Level of Customer Complaints	Alteren and Tudoran (2016)	Norway
		Customer Satisfaction Positive for customer orientation and inter-functional coordination Negative for competitor orientation	Shin (2012)	South Korea
		Customer Retention	Tse et al. (2003)	China & Hong Kong
		Customer Satisfaction, Customer Loyalty	Gray et al. (1998)	New Zealand
		ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND EMPLOYEE		
		Employee Growth	Gruber-Muecke and Hofer (2015)	Austria
		Role Ambiguity (negative effect)	Powpaka (2005)	Thailand
		Organizational Commitment	Powpaka (2005)	Thailand
		Employee Motivation	Tse et al. (2003)	China & Hong Kong
		Employee Productivity	Appiah-Adu (1999)	Ghana
		Employees' Organizational Commitment	Horng & Chen (1998)	Taiwan
		Organizational Esprit de Corp	Horng & Chen (1998)	Taiwan

TABLE 1:
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Research Hypothesis	Framework Components	Research Findings	Authors (year)	Countries	
	Mediators of MO-Performance Relationships	Export Strategy (export performance)	Alotaibi & Zhang (2017)	Saudi Arabia	
		Export Sales (export profit) Export Sales Growth (export profits)	Lengler et al. (2013) Cadogan et al. (2003)	Brazil Hong Kong	
		Marketing Capabilities (financial performance) Marketing Capabilities (performance, co-creation & relationship values) Marketing Capabilities (new product development) Marketing Competence (international performance) Product and Communication Capabilities (customer satisfaction and financial performance)	Peng & Lin (2017) Cass & Ngo (2012) Murray et al. (2011) Knight & Dalgic (2000) Shin (2012)	Taiwan Australia China US South Korea	
		Marketing Strategy (new product success)	Wu (2011)	Taiwan	
		Competitive Marketing Mix (overall business performance)	Llauch et al. (2011)	Cuba	
		Marketing Execution (new product performance)	Calantone et al. (2011)	US & China	
		Product Development Capabilities (financial performance) Product Innovation Capabilities ((performance & co-creation values)	Peng & Lin (2017) Cass & Ngo (2012)	Taiwan Australia	
		Level of Product Attributes (Product Quality and Customer Service) (financial performance)	Golden et al. (1995)	Russia	
		Timing of launching new product	Calantone et al. (2011)	US & China	
		Communication (customer complaints)	Alteren and Tudoran (2016)	Norway	
		Technological Capability for CRM (innovation)	Kim et al. (2011)	India	
		Customer information management (innovation)	Kim et al. (2011)	India	
		Cooperation between Exporters (export performance)	Racela et al. (2007)	Thailand	
		Dependence on export partners (export performance)	Racela et al. (2007)	Thailand	
		Relationship Distance from export partners (export performance)	Racela et al. (2007)	Thailand	
		Moderators of MO-Performance Relationships	ENVIRONMENT		
			<i>National Culture:</i>		
	Hofstede's cultural dimensions: strengthens impact on product evaluations		Song et al (2018)	25 countries	
	Hofstede's cultural dimensions: Strengthens impact on economic performance. Stronger effect for India		Ellis (2007)	India & Japan	

TABLE 1:
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Research Hypothesis	Framework Components	Research Findings	Authors (year)	Countries
		Uncertainty Avoidance and Collectivism: Strengthens impact on overall business performance	Brettel et al. (2009)	Germany & Thailand
		Uncertainty Avoidance, Collectivism & Power Distance: Weakens impact on financial performance	Gebauer & Zedtwitz (2007)	Switzerland & China
		Weakens impact on technology initiatives	Urbano et al. (2018)	23 countries
		Strengthens the impact on financial performance	Deshpande & Farley (2004)	10 countries
		Cultural Distance	Knight & Dalgic (2000)	US
		Technological Distance	Knight & Dalgic (2000)	US
		Economy Strengthens impact on financial performance (stronger for industrializing economies) Strengthens impact on business performance	Deshpande & Farley (2004) Sin et al. (2003)	Ten countries China & Hong Kong
		Property Rights: Strengthens impact on technology initiatives	Urbano et al. (2018)	23 countries
		Government Programs: Strengthens impact on technology initiatives	“	
		Support for Science and Tech: Weakens impact on technology initiatives	“	
		Environmental Complexity Strengthens impact on profit performance (services) Weakens impact on profit performance (products) Weakens impact on efficiency	Cadogan et al. (2002)	Finland
		MARKET		
		Market Dynamism Strengthens impact on product innovation Strengthens impact on export sales Strengthens Inverted U impact on export sales	Boso et al. (2013) Cadogan et al. (2012) Cadogan et al. (2009)	Ghana Finland Finland
		Market Turbulence		
		Strengthens impact on sales	Javalgi et al. (2012)	India
		Weakens impact on new product development	Murray et al. (2011)	China
		Strengthens impact on business performance	Pulendran et al. (2000)	Australia
		Weakens impact on ROI, sales growth and new product success	Greenley (1995)	UK
		Market Dynamism: Strengthens impact on market performance	Homburg & Pflesser (2000)	Germany
		Demand Uncertainty: Weakens impact on financial performance	Grewal & Tansuhaj (2001)	Thailand

TABLE 1:
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Research Hypothesis	Framework Components	Research Findings	Authors (year)	Countries
		Competitive Intensity		
		Strengthens impact on export sales	Cadogan et al. (2012)	Finland
		Strengthens impact on product development	Murray et al. (2011)	China
		Strengthens impact on financial performance	Kumar et al. (2011)	US
		Weakens impact (of proactive MO) on new product performance	Tsai et al. (2008)	Taiwan
		U-shaped impact on export sales efficiency	Cadogan et al. (2003)	Hong Kong
		Strengthens impact on financial performance	Grewal & Tansuhaj (2001)	Thailand
		Competitor Hostility: Weakens impact on financial performance	Harris (2001)	UK
		Technological Turbulence		
		Strengthens impact on financial performance	Kumar et al. (2011)	US
		Strengthens impact (of responsive MO) on new product performance	Tsai et al. (2008)	Taiwan
		Weakens impact (of proactive MO) on new product performance	Harris (2001)	UK
		Weakens impact on financial performance	Rose & Shoham (2002)	Israel
		High Technology Change: Weakens impact on ROI, sales growth and new product success	Greenley (1995)	UK
		Technological Uncertainty: Weakens impact on financial performance	Grewal & Tansuhaj (2001)	Thailand
		Technology Intensity: Inverted U Shaped impact on export sales efficiency	Cadogan et al. (2003)	Hong Kong
		Low Customer Power Weakens impact on ROI, sales growth and new product success	Greenley (1995)	UK
		ORGANIZATIONAL		
		Innovation Strengthens impact (of proactive MO) on radical product innovation	Brettel et al (2012)	Austria, Germany, Switzerland, Thailand and US
		Weakens impact (of responsive MO) on radical innovation	Brettel et al (2012)	
		Weakens impact of (of proactive MO) on incremental innovation	Brettel et al (2012)	
		Product Innovation: Strengthens impact on profitability	Salavou (2002)	Greece
		Absorptive Capacity: Strengthens impact on new product performance	Najafi-Tavani et al. (2016)	Sweden

TABLE 1:
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Research Hypothesis	Framework Components	Research Findings	Authors (year)	Countries
		Organizational Culture: Competitive and entrepreneurial: Strengthens impact on financial performance	Deshpande & Farley (2007)	Brazil
		Open and externally oriented: Strengthens impact on financial performance	Deshpande & Farley (2004)	10 countries
		Integration with Parent MNC: Weakens impact on business performance	Qu & Zhang (2015)	UK
		Local Responsiveness: Strengthens impact on business performance	Qu & Zhang (2015)	UK
		Degree of Internationalization: Strengthens impact on financial performance	Chang & Fang (2015)	Taiwan
		Market Opportunity Appraisal: Weakens the impact (of responsive MO) on incremental innovation	Li and Lin (2008)	Taiwan
		Coordination Mechanism: Strengthens impact on new product development	Murray et al. (2011)	China
		Network Relationships: Strengthens impact on financial performance	Kwon (2010)	Korean subsidiaries in India and China
		Leadership: Weakens impact on new product development	Murray et al. (2011)	China
		Early Adoption: Strengthens impact on financial performance	Kumar et al. (2011)	US
		Technology Advantages: Strengthens impact on financial performance	Kwon (2010)	Korean subsidiaries in India and China
		Marketing Power: Weakens impact (of responsive MO) on new product performance Strengthens impact (of proactive MO) on new product performance	Atuahene-Gima et al (2005)	US
			Atuahene-Gima et al (2005)	US
		Strategic Mission Rigidity: Weakens impact (of proactive MO) on radical innovation	Li and Lin (2008)	Taiwan
		Strategic Consensus: Strengthens impact (of responsive MO) on incremental innovation Strengthens impact (of responsive MO) on new product performance Weakens impact (of proactive MO) on new product performance	Li and Lin (2008)	Taiwan
Atuahene-Gima et al (2005)	US			
Atuahene-Gima et al (2005)	US			
MO and Competitive Advantages	MO and other Strategic Orientations	EO & MO		
		Positive impact on export sales and profits	Pelayo-Maciél et al. (2018)	Mexico
		Positive impact on Profits, Market Share & Employee Growth	Gruber-Muecke & Hofer (2015)	Austria
		Marketing Strategy mediates impact of EO on performance	Falahat et al. (2018)	Malaysia

TABLE 1:
Continued

Research Hypothesis	Framework Components	Research Findings	Authors (year)	Countries
		EO: positively moderates impact of scale barrier on growth MO: positively moderates impact of customer barrier on growth	Pehrsson & Pehrsson (2015)	Swedish firms in the US
		Jointly MO and EO have stronger impact on financial performance and growth	Gruber-Muecke & Hofer (2015)	Austria
		Significant correlation between MO and EO; Joint positive impact on competitive position, profits & market share	Monferrer et al. (2012)	Spain & Belgium
		Positive impact on new product development	Frishammar & Horte (2007)	Sweden
		Has a stronger joint (vs individual) impact on: new product performance, timing of market entry, product quality, marketing synergy, proficiency of market launch, & management support for innovation	Atuahene-Gima & Ko (2001)	Australia
		Positive correlation between EO and MO; Positive additive impact of EO & MO on performance	Barrett & Weinstein (1998)	US
		MO, EO & IO		
		Optimal MO behavior increases with increasing internationalization diversity strategy (expression of IO)	Cadogan et al. (2009)	Finland
		Internationally active firms (an expression of IO) showed a higher level of MO compared to less active or non-active firms	Gluic & Mihanovic (2016)	Croatia
		Degree of Internationalization (an expression of IO) strengthens the positive impact of MO on export performance	Chang & Fang (2015)	Taiwan
		Non-linear moderating impact of market portfolio diversity on MO-performance but linear positive impact on IO-performance; MO & IO jointly impacts export performance only for firms with focused market portfolio	Sorensen & Madison (2012)	Denmark
		MO and IO both positively impact sales in foreign markets more so in turbulent ones	Javalgi, Todd & Granot (2011)	India

TABLE 1:
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Research Hypothesis	Framework Components	Research Findings	Authors (year)	Countries
		MO, IO, international innovativeness (an expression of EO), international marketing skills identified as dimensions of international business competence (IBC); IBC engenders superior international performance EO and IO complement each other to counter high risk and uncertainty in international markets	Knight & Kim (2009)	US
		MO & LO: MO & LO together positively influence global dynamic capabilities and support its development to impact performance MO and LO positively reinforce each other to impact performance	Peng & Lin (2017)	Taiwan
		MO, EO, & LO: Positive impact on performance: MO & LO combination more impactful on more matured firms and EO & LO combination more impactful on younger firms	Feder (2015)	Romania
		MO positively impacts tech innovations but inhibits market innovations and firm performance EO positively impacts both tech and market-based innovations and firm performance LO mediates MO/ EO – tech-based innovation relationship but not MO/EO – market-based innovation relationship	Zhou et al. (2005)	China

development of market orientation (Brettel, Engelen, Heinemann, and Vadhanasindhu, 2008; Cadogan, Salminen, and Puumalainen, 2001; Ranjbarian et al., 2012; Selnes et al., 1996) with some differences across countries. Private ownership was also shown in Nigeria and Kenya to have an impact on generation of MO (Winston and Dadzie, 2002). Freedom from governmental control and support allows and pushes organizations to create strategies to achieve market and financial viability. This finding could also feasibly be seen in other developing countries where a substantial percentage of organizations are controlled by governments.

The above mentioned senior leadership characteristics and organizational structural aspects should facilitate the implementation of processes, policies and procedures that are conducive to generation of a market-oriented culture and behavior. Historical analysis shows that processes and procedures surrounding planning and analysis are important, as well as

policies of market-based staffing and rewarding, training for developing management capabilities, coordination across departments, and making market orientation a responsibility of all employees (Brettel et al., 2008; Cadogan et al., 2001; Horng and Cheng 1998; Nakata, 2002; Pulendran et al., 2000; Ranjbarian et al., 2012; Selnes et al., 1996; Shoham and Rose 2001). Additionally, dependence on foreign markets and processes, policies and procedures developed to engage in and adequately coordinate the process of internationalization, cooperate with export partners and develop strategic alliances in foreign markets also impact market orientation of organizations (Cadogan et al., 2009; Cadogan et al., 2002; Cadogan et al., 2001; Ellis 2007; Gluic and Mihanovic 2016; Shin et al., 2012).

Top management's emphasis on market orientation, their creation of market-oriented conducive organizational processes, policies and structure may facilitate development of market orientation, but will not be able to

sustain that unless a market-oriented culture also takes root. Culture works with processes and structure to affect lasting change. Across countries basic aspects of a market-oriented culture includes a market-oriented attitude, organization-wide commitment to market orientation and trust (Cadogan et al., 2001; Chang and Fang, 2011; Huang and Dastmalchian, 2006; Kuster and Vila, 2011). These can be reinforced by sharing organization-wide artifacts or symbols of MO - rituals, language and success stories surrounding market-orientedness of the organization (Homburg and Pflesser, 2000). Over time, satisfaction with one's job, an openness in inter-department communication and interaction, and feeling of connectedness across departments reinforces the culture of market orientation, especially if these efforts are being led by the marketing department (Homburg and Pflesser 2000 ;Huang and Dastmalchian, 2006; Pulendran et al., 2000; Selnes et al., 1996; Shoham and Rose 2001; Verhoef et al., 2011; Wolfgang 1996). Additionally, as orientation towards learning about international markets and experience with operating in those permeate the culture of organizations, market orientation is further strengthened (Cadogan et al., 2006; Cadogan et al., 2002; Cadogan et al., 2001).

The above-mentioned leadership, organizational structures, processes, culture and behavior that positively impact MO can be consciously generated in organizations operating in different markets. However, a study done in both US and Korea indicates that across diverse countries the path to stronger market orientation may also lie at least partly in national culture. Development of market orientation is crucially dependent on gathering, analyzing and sharing of market information and national culture impacts these processes. Shin et al., (2012) found that national cultural aspects of information management mediates the impact of organizational antecedents on market orientation. They showed that the nature and level of market orientations developed in US vs Korea vary because US firms tend to share less but utilize more information that is shared with partners, compared to Korean firms who tend to share information more readily but utilize the same less. Given the lack of replication studies done in other countries one

has to be cautious in generalizing this finding. What is more widely established across countries is the moderating influences of environmental factors, including national culture.

Moderating impacts of environmental (contextual) factors on antecedent-MO relationships. Economy, culture and market factors, selectively moderate some antecedents - market orientation relationships creating differences in the degrees of impact of antecedents across countries. This challenges international businesses to do a thorough analysis of country environments. Of the small set of articles that investigated the impact of moderators, most of the impacts found were those of economic and cultural factors.

Multiple economic factors moderate the impact of antecedents on market orientation. Across countries, overall political economy, general environmental turbulence and more specific aspects of the political economy such as regulations, infrastructure, technology, privatization and governmental control and interference in organizations moderated impacts on MO (Cadogan et al., 2001; Cadogan et al., 2006; Deng and Dart, 1999; Fedosova and Volkova, 2018; Li et al., 2006; Golden, 1995; Selnes et al., 1996; Zhou, 2018). Whereas turbulence in the environment has both positive and negative moderating effects, particularly on impacts of organizational structure, government interference in organizations has a clear and consistent negative impact. For example, in China where government has considerable official control of for-profit organizations through majority and minority stakes it has been found that organizations with a majority government equity compared to those with a minority government equity, tend to develop and rely less on internal resources, such as market orientation for market success (Zhou, 2018).

Multiple aspects of national culture moderate the development of MO in different ways. Geert Hofstede's cultural dimensions of uncertainty avoidance, individualism/collectivism, masculinity, and power distance, impact different antecedents of MO. In a broad based study of operations of 22 subsidiaries of a global organization it was found that higher

uncertainty avoidance and higher power distance dampen the adoption of market orientation (Nakata, 2002). In these cultures instead of initiating market-oriented actions workers wait for higher-ups to tell them what to do. More specific impacts are also revealed in the historical analysis. The positive effect of intensity of planning on MO is made stronger in cultures that are high in uncertainty avoidance, through higher intensity of planning. Higher individualism and masculinity positively affect market-based staffing (Brettel et al., 2008). Highly individualistic and masculine cultures which are characterized by a strong drive for risk taking for success make the positive impact of market-based staffing and rewards on MO stronger (Li, Griffin, Yue, and Zhao, 2013). In these cultures, market-based staffing and rewards act as a higher source of motivation to engage in market-oriented behaviors. The degree to which a culture is individualistic or collectivist also impacts MO through their markedly different relationship with societal trust and distrust (Huang and Dastmalchian, 2006). Societal trust can be defined as the extent to which organizational members have a trust orientation towards others in the same society (Fukuyama, 1995). Managers from individualistic societies have a higher propensity to trust in social or business setting, have a higher level of external (out-group) trust, and consequently, have stronger customer orientation than managers from collectivist societies (Huang and Dastmalchian, 2006; Huff and Kelley, 2005). The reason lies in a dichotomy in social trust in collectivist societies. “In-group” social trust and “out-group” social distrust are much stronger in Chinese culture (as broadly representative of collectivist societies) than in the US (broadly representative of individualistic societies) (House, Javidan, Hanges, and Dorfman, 2002; House et al., 1999). Customers will tend to fall in the “out-group” category, making it more difficult in collectivist cultures to motivate employees to work towards understanding customers and building relationships with them. Power distance affects MO through leadership. The positive effect of participatory and considerate leadership on market orientation is found to be stronger in higher power distance countries (Brettel et al., 2008). Cultures characterized by higher power distance accept large power differentials, expect leaders to be

benevolent, and tend to look up to them for advice and direction. Such leadership behaviors can thus more easily mold and motivate employees in higher power distance countries to be more market-oriented. Recent research comparing China and Australia on the global marketization and internationalization trends in higher education found that national culture makes a major impact on the extent to which higher education is market-oriented (Hong, 2018). Cultural tradition dictates more government control of education institutions in China, resulting in slower adoption of market orientation in China compared to Australia.

The effects of market factors are positive across a large number of countries, but more pronounced in fast-growing developing countries, where markets tend to be more volatile, compared to those in developed countries (Nakata, 2002). Across these developing countries, higher competitive pressures, higher market turbulence, and general market uncertainty, seem to favor generation of stronger market orientation (Li, Sun, and Liu, 2006). In markets characterized by strong competition and turbulence, uncertainties increase the cost and chance of failure, and make it harder to recover from failures (Li et al., 2006). There is thus a stronger urgency to be more market-oriented in these environments, pushing companies to develop more effective leadership, culture, processes and governance (Fedosova and Volkova, 2018; Golden, Doney, Johnson, and Smith, 1995; Li et al., 2006).

Environmental moderators sometimes interact to jointly affect development of MO. Market turbulence interacts with culture to shape the impacts of centralization and formalization on MO. In highly developed western economies, centralization and formalization have negative effects on MO, irrespective of environmental turbulence. In developed economies not located in the west, however, these have a positive impact at lower to medium levels of turbulence and start having a negative effect only at high levels when decentralization starts having a positive effect. The positive effects of centralization at low levels of turbulence is likely a reflection of higher collectivism and the positive effects of decentralization at high levels of turbulence could be because of higher

acceptance of uncertainty avoidance. However, quite distinct from the previous example, in developed semi-western, but to a large extent culturally eastern economies, such as Singapore, centralization actually has a positive effect at high environmental turbulence. The reason could lie in a combined impact of higher trust during times of turbulence, in dictates and strategies coming from top leadership (a reflection of high collectivism, high scores for power distance or high uncertainty avoidance) (Cadogan, Cui, Morgan, and Story, 2006; Cadogan, Salminen, and Puumalainen, 2001). From these findings among just developed countries it can be conjectured that when compared with developing eastern economies, the two-way moderating effect of market turbulence and culture may become a three-way moderating effect of market turbulence, culture and economy.

Even though almost all of the moderating factors lie in the external environment of a country, an important moderator lies within the organization. Across multiple countries, the culture of change within an organization, as expressed in the orientation of readily accepting and adopting change, strengthens the development of market orientation through enhancement of employee job satisfaction (Huang and Dastmalchain, 2006)

The above discussion indicates that proposition 1 is valid. Market orientation is not global. Its development in different country market will likely vary because of the impact of different environmental and contextual factors existing in each market. Though the antecedents that give rise to market orientation is consistent across countries, the nature of these antecedents (e.g. leadership characteristics), how they interact with the contextual factors and how the contextual factors interact with each other will likely vary for different markets. These differences will determine the relative importance of antecedents, the levels at which these are most effective and the nature of MO in any specific country.

Globalness of MO's Impact on Performance

There is a much greater interest in investigating the performance impacts of MO across countries. A vast majority of the articles

investigated the impact of market orientation on organizational performance, fifty percent of which also explored factors that moderate market orientation-performance relationships.

Types of performance matter and, hence, it is important to highlight the kinds of performance measures used in the studies. Articles together used a wide range of measures that spanned financial, non-financial, and market-based. Financial measures such as sales, growth, market share, and profits were most commonly tested. Non-financial measures were categorized under the following: competition and market, marketing and sales, product-related, innovation, organizational, relationships, customer-related and organizational and employee-related. Most of these measures are indirect perceptual measures.

This historical analysis shows market orientation has an overall positive impact on general competitiveness of firms (Akimova, 2000), as well as a near universal positive effect on different performance measures, with some degrees of difference across countries (Appiah-Adu, 1999; Ardito and Dangelico, 2018; Boso, Cadogan, and Story, 2013; Brettel, Oswald, and Flatten, 2012; Cadogan, Sundqvist, Puumalainen, and Salminen, 2012; Camarero and Garido, 2012; Chang and Fang, 2015; Deshpande and Farley, 1999, 2007; Diamantopoulos, Siguaw, and Cadogan, 2000; Ellis, 2006; Fuchs, 2012; Gluic and Mihanovic, 2016; Gray, Matear, Boshoff, and Matheson, 1998; Gruber-Muecke and Hofer, 2015; Kirca et al., 2005; Kuster and Vila, 2011; Hooley et al., 2000; Kwon, 2010; Lenglar, Sousa, and Marques, 2013; Llonch, Rialp, and Rialp, 2011; Li and Lin, 2008; Liu, Luo, and Shi, 2003; Monferrer, Ripolles, and Blesa, 2012; Ngai and Ellis, 1998; Pehrsson and Pehrsson, 2015; Pelayo-Maciel, Velazquez-Aguilar, and Ortiz-Barrera, 2018; Pitt, Caruana, and Berthon, 1996; Salavou, 2002; Subramanian and Gopalakrishna, 2001; Tse, Sin, Yao, Lee, and Chow, 2003; Wolfgang, 1996). These findings reinforce the robust, and broad beneficial impact of market orientation on organizational performance. Fuchs (2012), states "It seems that capability to market orientation is "universal" for SMEs to every successful occurrence in their international

markets” (pg. 20). In a longitudinal study of market orientation, Kumar et al., (2011) found that market orientation has a positive effect on firm performance, in both the short and long terms. Firms that adopt market orientation earlier enjoy more benefit in sales and profit performance. The extra lift in sales and profit is due to a carryover effect of market orientation over the years of implementation. Moreover, the authors argue that market orientation focuses more on customer retention than customer acquisition, so the benefit of market orientation should be more pronounced for profit, than for sales (Kumar et al., 2011).

The story of the relationship between market orientation and organizational performance, however, goes beyond the above discussed straightforward positive impacts. Market orientation’s impact on performance do vary across countries, sometimes with no impact and sometimes showing quadratic impacts (Alotaibi and Zang, 2018; Atuahene-Gima et al., 2005; Cadogan and Cui, 2004; Cadogan et al., 2003; Deshpande et al., 2000; Tsai et al., 2008). The quadratic effects found across countries, quite different from each other hint either at the limits of the beneficial impact of MO or minimum threshold of MO necessary for the positive impact to happen. For now, these effects have been found only in a handful of countries and for a couple of financial and product-related measures. However, given that the impacts have been found in countries as diverse from each other as US, China and Saudi Arabia, it may become a common reality across other countries. The reasons for these inconsistent and non-linear impacts lie in both the capability pathways from MO to higher performance and the moderating impacts of contextual factors on MO-performance relationships. First, different types and strengths of MO developed in different countries would, arguably, give rise to different marketing and other strategic capabilities and be more or less effective in achieving positive performance results in particular areas, such as sales vs. customer loyalty. Second, even if the marketing and strategic capabilities are finely tuned to the type of performance objective to be achieved in a particular country market, business environments in that country will likely moderate these capabilities-performance relationships by making some of these

capabilities more or less effective. These two realities put pressure on organizations to adapt, and better the adaptation in form of developing relevant actionable capabilities, more potent the impact of MO on performance (Qu and Zhang, 2015). The discussion below, therefore, includes the impacts of both the organizational strategic capabilities and actions that mediate and moderate MO-performance relationships and the country level environments that moderate the same. It is important to look at both to understand the chain reaction of market orientation-capabilities (actions)-performance.

Mediating Effects of Capabilities on MO-Performance Relationships. Both the service dominant logic of marketing and the “megamarketing” concept of marketing stress the importance of intangible knowledge-based capabilities for organizational success and growth (Kotler, 1986; Lusch, Vargo, and Malter, 2006). The historical analysis finds evidence of this. Across international markets capabilities in marketing strategy, product development and launch, consumer communication, customer information management, technology, cooperation with channel partners, and exporting have been shown to mediate the impact of market orientation and organizational performance (Alotaibi and Zhang, 2017; Alteren and Tudoran, 2016; Cadogan et al., 2003; Calantone et al., 2011; Cass and Ngo, 2012; Golden et al., 1995; Kim et al., 2011; Knight and Dalgic, 2000; Llauch et al., 2011; Lengler et al., 2013; Murray et al., 2011; Peng and Lin, 2017; Racela et al., 2007; Shin, 2012; Wu, 2011). It is worth noting that these capabilities were targeted to achieve particular performance objectives. The capabilities also work together in multiple and connected pathways to influence performance. A higher degree of innovation, coupled with increased adoption of technologies, help improve marketing mixes by facilitating acquisition, analysis, and sharing of information. An effective marketing mix helps develop strong customer relationships, which further strengthens the impact of MO on performance. Market Orientation through reduction of opportunistic behavior, strengthens cooperation with a firm’s overseas partners. This, in turn, reduces relationship distance (Ju, Murray, Kotabe, and Gao, 2011). A closer relationship distance helps to bridge the cultural

gaps, and facilitates better information sharing and collaborative strategies, creating a win-win situation for the partnership (Alteren and Tudoran, 2016; Racela et al., 2007). Capabilities arising from a responsive MO and proactive MO are different and are targeted towards different realities in the market. This raises the possibility of different impacts on performance. Where responsive MO tends to have a U-shaped impact on new product performance, proactive MO has an inverted U-shaped impact (Atuahene-Gima et al., 2005). Different impacts of MO also happens at the component level of MO culture, which combines to arrive at the overall impact of MO. Depending on market realities, customer orientation, competitor orientation or inter-functional coordination may play a more important role, resulting in the likelihood of different impact of overall MO on performance (Powpaka, 2005; Redding, 1990).

The same market reality and capabilities argument can also be applied to explain different impacts of MO on different performance measures in any one country. For example, given the environmental demands, MO's overall role in affecting customer service (which needs a strong customer orientation) could be quite different from its role in affecting sales (which needs a strong competitor orientation).

Moderating impacts of environmental (contextual) factors on MO-performance relationships. Environmental factors investigated in the articles ranged from overall environmental factors including cultural, and economic, market-based factors and organizational factors. There are differences in environments across countries and these are reflected in customer needs and distribution structures, availability of substitutes, market structure and host government demands (Venaik, Midgley, and Devinney, 2004).

More than one-third of the articles found country environments moderating the impact of MO on performance. These effects, however, are not consistent across countries. Depending on the nature and strength of the country environmental factors and the type of performance variables being investigated, these effects are positive, neutral, negative or

quadratic. There are differences and similarities between and within economically and/or culturally similar and dissimilar countries, as well as differences within one country for different performance variables. It is, thus, only possible to draw broad generalizations across countries.

In general, in the US, Western Europe, and Asia, despite obvious differences in environments, national culture, economy and actions by governments positively moderate MO-performance relationships with some exceptions (Deshpande, Farley, and Bowman, 2004). The strength of these moderations, however, vary based on the differences in environments that exist between countries, as well as the unique interaction of aspects of culture, and economy within one country with MO, and associated marketing strategies (Brettel, Engelen, and Heinemann, 2009; Ellis, 2006; Gebauer and Zedwitz, 2007; Pitt et al., 1996; Sin, Tse, Yau, Chow, and Lee, 2003). This leads, in some cases, to no differences between countries that vary culturally and economically (Pitt et al., 1996). Research across 25 countries on the impact of Hofstede's cultural dimensions found that even though product evaluations and acceptance are stronger for culturally congruent products, cultural aspects interact with marketing strategy to moderate its impacts in the following ways: product evaluations are more positive for countries characterized by high collectivism, femininity and uncertainty avoidance; delay in product launches had a more negative effect for countries with short-term orientations and advertising spending had a more positive effect for countries with higher power distance (Song, Moon, Haipen, and Houston, 2018). In another research on 23 countries, the overall positive impact of market orientation on performance was simultaneously facilitated and retarded in different degrees by a combination of aspects of the regulatory and cultural environments (Urbano et al., 2018). Choice of particular performance variables adds another layer of complexity. In the previous research on 23 countries, culture has a negative moderating impact on technology initiatives (Urbano et al., 2018). In western developed economies, market orientation has a stronger effect on financial performance compared to eastern less developed economies (Gebauer and Zedwitz, 2007). This

difference has also been seen between Hong Kong and China, these two countries being culturally similar but economically different (Sin et al., 2003). Compared to western developed cultures, longer term orientation of eastern cultures (both more and less developed), their higher uncertainty avoidance scores, the “saving face” aspects of higher collectivism and higher power distance, create different dynamics in the relationships between companies and customers, leading to a weaker impact of MO on financial outcomes. When countries are culturally more similar, economic differences still create a difference in MO’s impact. A different research on the impact of culture and economy on 10 countries, however, found that economy but not culture of industrializing countries have a stronger positive moderating effect on market orientation’s relationship with financial performance (Deshpande and Farley, 2004). Besides national culture and economy, research across 23 countries found that different types of government programs also strengthen the impact of marketing orientation, particularly on technology initiatives (Urbano et al., 2018).

The effect of market-based factors on MO-performance relationships has been studied more widely. Across countries the most common moderators are market turbulence and dynamism, technology turbulence, and competitive intensity. Managing market volatility in countries with changing environments is tricky. This is especially true in developing and less developed countries which have shown considerable dynamism and volatility since the late 1990s. All three market factors show positive, negative, quadratic or no moderating effects in different countries and on different performance variables. These effects are neither consistent among countries at the same level of economic development, nor among those that are culturally closer. Effects are sometimes similar in countries which are different economically and/or culturally (Boso et al., 2013; Breman and Dalgic, 2000; Cadogan, Diamantopoulos, and Siguaw, 2002; Cadogan, Cui, and Li, 2003; Cadogan et al., 2009; Greenley, 1995; Grewal and Tansuhaj, 2001; Harris, 2001; Homburg and Plessner, 2000; Javalgi, Todd, and Granot, 2011; Murray et al., 2011; Pulendran, Speed, and Widing, 2000; Rose and Shoham, 2002; Tsai et al.,

2008; Verhoef et al., 2011). With time, sometimes, the impacts change for the same country-performance variable (Cadogan et al., 2009; 2012). Unique combination of market forces existing within a country also show different impacts on product performance measure when different types of MOs are used. Technology turbulence and competitive intensity strengthen responsive MO’s impact on new product performance, but weaken that of proactive MO’s (Tsai, Chow, and Kuo, 2008). It seems that the impact of market forces tends to dominate over the impacts of economic and cultural characteristics, so moderating effects could be similar for economically and culturally different countries, but that face the same level of market forces.

Besides quadratic impacts of MO on performance, research conducted in different countries is also showing quadratic moderating effects of environmental forces on relationships between MO and multiple performance variables (Cadogan et al., 2009; Cadogan et al., 2003). Together these effects indicate the complexity of the role MO plays in organizational performance across countries. In Finland, market dynamism has a positive moderating effect on an already inverted-U relationship between MO and sales at low levels of MO, and a negative moderating effect at very high levels of MO (Cadogan et al., 2009). Market dynamism steepens the quadratic relationship between MO and sales. Under high market dynamism, too high a level of MO will end up being suboptimal, and managers may need to adjust the level of MO downward.

Competitive intensity in Hong Kong has a U-shaped effect on MO-sales efficiency relationship, but technology intensity has an inverted U-shaped effect on MO-sales efficiency. This indicates that as competitive intensity increases, more market-oriented actions start become less beneficial till a certain point beyond which at very competitive intensity it once again becomes beneficial. From the efficiency perspective, returns accruing from high levels of MO under low levels of competition are not as great as when competitive intensity is high, because of the additional cost associated with being market-oriented (Cadogan et al., 2003). However, the demand for market orientation under low and

high technology intensity is just the opposite. In situation of very high technology intensity, market orientation is not as beneficial. High technology intensity signals the need for innovation, and concentrating too much on existing consumer needs may not pay off.

Where quadratic relationships occur both for direct impact of MO on performance and moderating impacts of environments on these relationships, these effects (U-shaped or Inverted U-shaped) are both similar and different across culturally and economically different countries. MO-performance relationship may remain linear in some countries, but change in others. Quadratic relationships can also be different in one country for two separate performance variables. MO has a U-shaped relationship with sales but an inverted U-shaped relationship with profits (Cadogan et al., 2009; Cadogan and Cui, 2004).

Research on the quadratic impacts of environments is still evolving, making it difficult at this stage to draw clear patterns. However, given that it has happened across diverse countries, it can be argued that it is possible in any country, given a specific combination of environments. As environments change in one country, the nature of impacts on performance may change. MO's multi-faceted nature, the complex interactions of multiple moderators with MO and each other, and the broad range of performances being tested, together make it logical to state that research will increasingly find quadratic relationships across countries irrespective of culture and economy.

In general, it seems that combinations of market forces allow the benefits of MO to start accruing only after a certain time period and level of MO, before which it has a negative effect on performance. This may be because of a steeper learning curve for a firm having a broad portfolio in the market, and the added costs that goes into developing and maintaining MO for that breadth of portfolio (Sorensen and Madsen, 2012). On the other hand, a less volatile market and low competitive intensity may make MO beyond a certain level harmful to organizational success. MO may return benefits up to a point, beyond which the resources that go into developing and sustaining

a high MO provide diminishing returns (Tsai et al., 2008). Each country-performance variable pair thus needs to be considered separately. The lack of clear demarcation of similarities and differences in these quadratic moderating effects, along with economic, cultural and market lines for different performance variables, makes it difficult to generalize across countries, or group countries into specific effect categories. These research studies indicate that simply aiming to continuously increase levels of MO may not be beneficial to companies. For a certain set of environmental forces in a country there would be multiple optimum levels of MO for different performance variables.

Besides economic, cultural and market forces, a small set of articles showed that organizational factors also moderate market orientation's impact on performance across multiple country markets. These can be grouped under organizational processes, policies, procedures and culture. The capacity to absorb and process market information, the extent to which organizations have built up technology advantage, innovation, marketing power, the degree to which they have engaged in internationalization, new market appraisal, local responsiveness, relationships building and coordination of the same in foreign markets, the presence of strong leadership and an organizational culture characterized by strategic flexibility and consensus, openness, competitiveness and entrepreneurship, all positively moderate overall business, financial and innovation-related performance (Atuahene-Gima et al., 2005; Brettel et al., 2012; Chang and Fang, 2015; Deshpande and Farley, 2007; Deshpande and Farley, 2004; Kwon, 2010; Li and Lin, 2008; Murray et al., 2011; Najafi-Tavani et al., 2016; Salavou, 2002). In the particular case of performance related to product innovation or new product success (this being critical for organizational growth) the kind of MO (proactive or responsive) interacts with some of the organizational factors to make a difference in performance. Given that proactive MO is market driving and responsive MO market-driven, the former positively impacts radical innovation and the latter incremental innovation. Across multiple countries high innovativeness, an established system of market appraisal, and strong marketing power, strengthen the impact of

proactive MO on radical innovation and new product success, but dampen the impact of responsive MO on incremental innovation. However, narrowly defined organizational mission implemented with strategic consensus strengthens the impact of responsive MO on incremental innovation and new product performance, but weakens the impact of proactive MO on radical innovation and product performance (Atuahene-Gima et al., 2005; Brettel et al., 2012; Li and Lin 2008). Depending on extent of innovation needed in the market, different organizational characteristics facilitate or deter the impact of proactive versus responsive MO on success of radical and incremental new products.

This historical analysis shows that even though overall MO does have a positive impact on a broad range of performance variables in a significant number of markets, its beneficial impact is not truly global. The extent and, in some cases, the direction of impact changes. This is because of interactions among the type of market orientation generated, the types of capabilities developed which mediate the relationship between MO and performance, the kinds of performance objectives to be achieved and country and organizational level factors that moderate both the generation of MO and its impact on performance. These react with each other differently in different markets, giving rise in cases to linear, non-linear or no impacts on different performance variables. Given particular environmental presence MO's impact on performance ranges from negative to positive. This is also true for different performance measures within one country. This makes it difficult to generalize the straightforward beneficial impact of MO across countries. The analysis thus finds support for proposition 2.

Globalness of MO's Role in Competitive Advantage

MO is only one of several strategic orientations that contribute to competitive advantage. Frequently, these orientations complement each other in achieving it (Barrett and Weinstein, 1998). Institutional theory states that institutions, such as national culture, market forces and economic environment, dictate the interaction and implementation of strategic

orientations (Bruton, Ahlstrom, and Li, 2010). This historical analysis has shown an inconsistent impact of MO on performance across markets, and this is largely due to both an indirect moderating impacts of environments on development of MO, and related dynamic capabilities and a direct moderating impact on performance. This has called into question the universal benefit of MO irrespective of its level. In multiple markets, MO has been shown to be beneficial only up to or beyond certain levels. This indicates that in a country MO may not be the only or the primary strategic orientation contributing to competitive advantage and that a complementary combination of strategic orientations are likely at play and most beneficial for achieving competitive advantage (Hoang, 2011; Sundqvist, Kyalahheiko, Kuivalainen, and Cadogan, 2012; Sorensen and Madsen, 2012). MO should always be beneficial for developing and sustaining competitive advantage, but it takes on different degrees of importance in different markets. It is thus critical to briefly consider the impacts of other strategic orientations before a true assessment can be made of the role of MO.

MO and other strategic orientations. Entrepreneurial orientation (EO) is used to measure the degree of entrepreneurial behavior of firms in strategy-making and typically encompasses the dimensions of innovativeness, pro-activeness, and risk-taking (Miller, 1983). Most studies on entrepreneurial orientation have found a positive impact on performance, but with varying strengths depending on contexts (Martin and Javalgi, 2016; Nunez-Pomar et al., 2016; Pehrsson and Pehrsson, 2015; Wales, Gupta, and Moussa, 2013). A recent meta-analysis on entrepreneurial orientation's impact on performance found that EO more strongly impacts performance in developing (as against developed) countries that are characterized by low uncertainty avoidance, low power distance, high in-group collectivism, and high political stability (Saeed, Yousafzai, and Engelen, 2014). Research suggests there is a significant correlation between entrepreneurial orientation and market orientation, they have complementary impacts on performance and the degree of synergy between EO and MO determines organizational performance, with the maximum benefit coming when EO and MO are simultaneously

optimized (Atuahene-Gima and Ko, 2001; Barrett and Weinstein, 1998; Falahat, Knight, and Alon, 2018; Frishammar and Horte, 2007; Gruber-Muecke and Hofer, 2015; Monferrer et al., 2012; Pelayo-Maciel, Velazquez-Aguilar, and Ortiz-Barrera, 2018; Pehrsson and Pehrsson, 2015; Slater and Narver, 1995; Zhou, Yim, and Tse, 2005). This combination varies, given the environment. Todorovic and Ma (2008) conceptually argue that in high individualistic countries, a balanced and equal importance of EO-MO is more beneficial, whereas in low income collectivist countries EO is more beneficial than MO (Todorovic and Ma, 2008). This is because low income collectivist countries have more resource scarcity, and entrepreneurial firms will expend more effort to address this resource shortfall and will have fewer resources to devote to market-based efforts. Environment also determines the effectiveness of the kind of entrepreneurial behavior being utilized. In relatively stable markets, a market-driven Kirznerian form of entrepreneurial behavior has a positive impact on performance, whereas in more dynamic markets, a more market-driving Schumpeterian form of entrepreneurial behavior is particularly positive for firm performance (Sundqvist et al., 2012).

Scholars define international orientation (IO) either as the process of increasing operations in international markets (Fletcher, 2001; Holmlund, Kock, and Vanyushyn, 2007) or as the degree of sales income or operations that firms obtain in international markets (Elango and Patnaik, 2007). The findings on the impact of international orientation and firm performance have been mixed with positive impacts on some performance measures in some countries, and negative in others (Bakunda, 2004; Behiyan, Mohamad, and Omar, 2015; Buckley, Clegg, and Wang, 2002; Chitoo and Ray, 2007; Zhou, Brown, Dev, and Agarwal, 2007). The mixed findings indicate the impact of environmental factors which put limitations on the extent to which IO is beneficial and create a context where a combination of different strategic orientations is more beneficial. IO in complement with EO helps counter the high risk and uncertainty in international markets (Knight and Kim, 2009). IO and MO support each other in turbulent ones in learning about customer needs and learning

from partners (Chang and Fang, 2015; Gluic and Mihanovic, 2016; Ireland, Hitt, and Vaidyanath, 2002; Javalgi et al., 2011; Sorensen and Madsen, 2012). International orientation facilitates the process of internationalization and makes firms more active internationally. These positively impact market-oriented activities and strengthens MO's impact on performance.

To be beneficial MO, EO and IO must aid in absorption, processing, dissemination and response to market information (Day, 1994; Morgan et al., 2009; Ngo and Cass, 2012). A learning orientation (LO) supports that. Learning orientation is a firm's inclination toward committing to a shared vision and being open-minded (Sinkula et al., 1997), which facilitates development of capability to use knowledge to predict and respond to changes in the environment (Calantone, Bendetto, and Song, 2011). Learning orientation has been shown to positively impact organizational performance (Herath and Karunaratne, 2017). Learning capabilities can be both adaptive (market-driven) to correct behavior in order to adapt to changes in the environment, and generative (market driving) to create paradigm shifts by continuously questioning and exploring routines and processes (Sinkula et al., 1997). Learning orientation should thus support MO, EO and IO to work better together. Depending on context specificity, LO has been shown to combine separately with MO and EO to positively impact performance across country markets (Bremser and Dalgic, 2000; Feder, 2015; Peng and Lin, 2017), and absorptive capacity of organizations (a learning capability) has been shown to complement EO, MO and marketing capabilities' impact on new product performance (Engelen, Kube, Schmidt, and Flatten, 2014; Najafi-Tavani, Sharifi, and Najafi-Tavani, 2016)

As firms increase their levels of internationalization, it is expected that they will need to get a better grasp of the impacts of environmental factors, in order to allocate resources appropriately to strengthen their strategic position. With increasing success in

international markets, levels of both international and learning orientation should increase. Given the contextual factors in play in different markets and the performance objectives, optimal combination of levels of entrepreneurial orientation and market orientation then needs to be developed to maximize competitive advantage (Cadogan et al., 2009). Increasing levels of EO and MO also bring in added costs. Thus, as environments keep on changing in terms of technology, market, and competition, market orientation or entrepreneurial orientation may take turns in playing a primary or secondary albeit positive roles. A point thus maybe reached, when a certain combination of levels of market orientation and other forms of strategic orientations will need to be sustained for competitive advantage.

The above discussion ensuing from the historical analysis of articles supports proposition 3 that states that the role and importance of market orientation to competitive advantage is not global but is contingent on existing contextual factors.

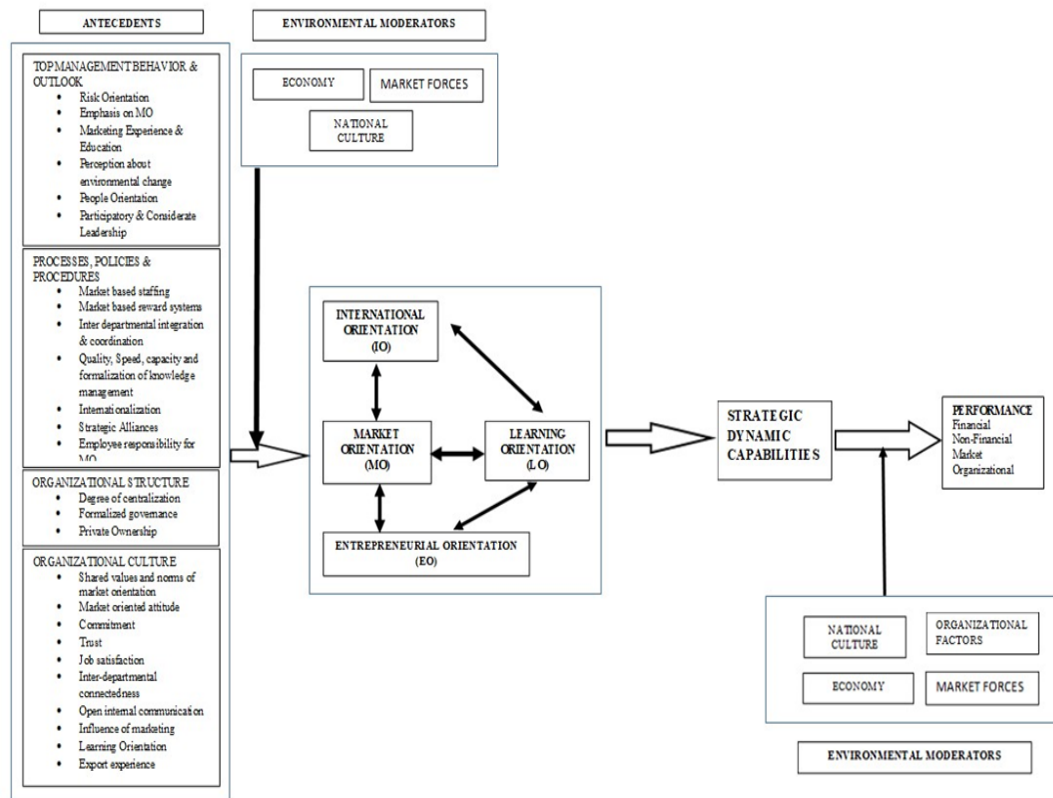
GLOBAL FRAMEWORK OF MARKET ORIENTATION

The above discussion and analysis finds MO to be critical for organizational success across the world. Across countries, cultures, and markets, strong market orientation positively affects a whole range of performances. In fact, this positive effect carries on in the long-term to positively impact competitive advantage. The earlier a firm adopts market-oriented behavior, the more beneficial will be its effect on performance. The historical analysis shows that most of the factors that facilitate the development of a strong market orientation originate within the organization, and are global in nature. The analysis, however, also finds that the nature and relative importance of these factors are contingent on environmental factors, such as national culture, economy and market forces. These, individually and in combination, moderate the impacts of antecedents to impact the type and level of MO and the strategic dynamic capabilities that result from MO. It is through these capabilities that market orientation impacts performance. Both the service dominant logic and the

“megamarketing” concept of marketing stress the importance of developing knowledge-based capabilities for market success. This becomes particularly critical for international markets, where both environmental and organizational factors moderate the performance impact of MO-derived strategic capabilities. The combination of organizational antecedents necessary to develop proactive vs. responsive MO is different and results in different strategic capabilities that are suited to achieve different performance objectives. Given the market realities, one type of MO could be more important than the other. The country level and the organizational level factors thus muddle the role MO plays in different markets across the world by determining the level and nature of MO, dynamic capabilities developed and moderating MO’s impact on performance. So, even though MO is generated from a global set of antecedents and is beneficial for firm performance across the world, the caveats and contingencies mentioned above need to be considered holistically for each market. All this indicates the need for an optimum level of MO for each market complemented by other strategic orientations, so that organizational capabilities developed are aligned with the environment and the performance objectives. This level of MO and complementary combination of strategic orientations will likely change with changing contexts. More or less similarities will exist among countries but this should not blind decision makers to the considerable differences that will exist too in many cases. The organic development of MO, and its impact on performance in each country allows partial generalizations, at best. Each country’s contextual realities thus must be considered as firms globalize. Market orientation can thus be considered global. Being global means being partly global and local, at the same time (oxford dictionary.com).

A global framework of market orientation thus is global in its structure, but local in its processes and implementation. The author thus proposes the following globally applicable, but locally implementable, model of market orientation. The source of market orientation in organizations remains global, but the country-specific contextual factors determine what level of market orientation is feasible, what complementary combination of strategic

**FIGURE 1:
Global Marketing Framework**



orientations are needed for development of relevant dynamic capabilities for a positive impact on performance and achieving competitive advantage. Contextual factors should therefore be considered when developing processes to generate and implement MO. The framework is supported by the service dominant logic and the megamarketing concept of marketing, as well as by the contingency perspective and Resource Based View (RBV) of the firm. Both the service dominant logic and the megamarketing concept that stress the importance of developing knowledge-based dynamic capabilities for success, particularly in international markets, support the framework. As per both contingency perspective and RBV, contextual impacts make development of MO, in combination with other strategic orientations in each country, organic and hence at least partially inimitable. According to RBV, scarce

resources that are not easily imitable help develop competitive advantages. Therefore, marketing orientation by itself and in combination with other strategic orientation can be a source of competitive advantage for firms across markets. Below is a pictorial representation of the global framework of market orientation.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The paper has implications for both practice and academia. Unlike previous reviews and meta-analyses on market orientation, this review comprehensively and holistically describes and analyzes market orientation across countries, its antecedents, impact on performance, and its relative role in the competitive advantage of firms. This is the first review and analysis of market orientation that devotes the entire discussion to understanding

and answering questions on the globalness of market orientation, and for the first time develops a globally applicable framework of market orientation. The framework highlights the antecedents to developing market orientation in international markets, the paths to impact of market orientation on company performance, the environmental forces that moderate these relationships and the interrelationships among market orientation and other strategic orientations. The last review on market orientation was done over a decade ago and, given how the global business world has changed in that time, a comprehensive one that particularly concentrates on the global issues of market orientation development and impact is needed.

This historical analysis, while reinforcing the widely held marketing notion that competitive advantage can be achieved when companies are able to implement the marketing concept more efficiently and effectively than competitors through strategic capabilities, also underscores the reality that contextual factors in a country affect the development of market orientation, strategic capabilities and its impact on business success. Market orientation is beneficial in the long-term, but with a diminishing return to the company's bottom line. Companies in different stages of internationalization facing different environments, may need to complement market orientation with other strategic orientations. This knowledge will help leaders consciously plan the development and alignment of structures, processes and culture, to support knowledge generation, dissemination, learning and innovation required for the combination of strategic orientations and capabilities that are most suitable. This suggestion is supported by the systematic planning model of internationalization (Root, 1987; Miller, 1993; Yip et al., 2000), which contends that planning based on thorough and efficient market information collection and analyses would enhance a firm's international performance. Market orientation is both a source of competitive advantage and a given cost of competing. It is crucial for companies operating in dynamic international markets to balance both.

This paper implies that there are different pathways to a strong market orientation.

Special attention may need to be given to development of one antecedent over another for an overall stronger market orientation and capabilities. For example, leaders in higher power distance countries should practice a more hands-on and mentor-like leadership style, to motivate employees to be market-oriented because these cultures accept large power differentials, expect leaders to be benevolent, and tend to look up to them for advice and direction. What especially needs to be recognized is the complex nature of the impact of moderators on market orientation, making it very difficult to generalize the optimum level of market orientation for a country beyond which market orientation is not more beneficial and, in some cases, even adverse in its effect on performance. International business managers should thus consider each country market separately when developing market orientation, and evaluating its impact on performance. Similarities across countries should only be seen as a broad guideline, not as an exact prescription for replication of strategies and processes.

For researchers in international marketing and international management, this paper should serve as an updated and holistic foundation for future empirical and conceptual research on market orientation across countries. The global framework should act as a guide for research comparing countries on relative importance of antecedents for development of market orientation, on relative impacts of different kinds of performance measures, and on the best-suited combination of strategic orientations.

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ROOT, ROOT, ROOT FOR THE HOME TEAM: THE PERSUASIVE ABILITY OF SALESPERSON PERCEIVED TEAM IDENTIFICATION IN THE BUYER-SELLER DYADIC EXCHANGE

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This manuscript investigates the previously under-researched impact of establishing similarity in team identification in the personal selling environment. This investigation into the influence of team identification on trust, satisfaction, gratitude, and purchase intentions in a personal selling context contributes to the literature on sales tactics and introduces the use of team identification to the personal selling literature. The results indicate that buyer purchase intentions, gratitude, trust, and satisfaction are affected by salesperson signaling of team identification. Furthermore, the level at which an individual identifies with their teams strengthens purchase intentions and satisfaction in the exchange. These results have important implications for sales managers, suggesting that using team identification as a sales tactic is likely to increase buyer perceptions of the sales representative resulting in increased purchase intentions.

INTRODUCTION

It has been well established that fans of a team establish a psychological connection to their team (Dietz-Uhler and Lanter 2008). These sports fans who identify strongly with their team tend to experience more extreme feelings than those who identify weakly with their team (Dietz-Uhler and Lanter 2008). Accordingly, the evident importance of these strong relationships between fans and their favorite teams and athletes has also begun to spur research in the field of marketing. For example, research by Gwinner and Swanson (2003) investigates the relationship between fan identification and the attitude towards the sponsor. Their findings indicate that the greater the individuals' connection to their team, the higher their opinions of the sponsoring company. Despite these findings, literature has yet to investigate other areas of a firm's strategic marketing initiatives which may also benefit from this connection. One such area, personal selling, relies deeply on building relationships as a basis of influence (Evans et al. 2012).

Surprisingly, minimal studies in the sales literature have investigated similarities in mutual interests or hobbies, and there exists no current study in the sales literature which looks at one of the most universal and beloved interests in today's society: sports. Accordingly, this paper looks to fill this gap in the literature by investigating how congruent identification with a sports team can help to build and strengthen relations in the buyer-seller dyadic exchange. More specifically, we discuss below how a salesperson's use of team identification as an indicator of similarity or in-group membership is likely to influence customer gratitude, trust in the salesperson, satisfaction with the relationship between the rep and their customer, and finally, the customer's intention to purchase.

This research aims to investigate a key component of building relationships, similarity, in terms of their attitude towards a topic very near and dear to many people's heart: their favorite sports team. More specifically, the purpose of this research is to investigate how fan-identification by the salesperson influences the consumer decision-making process. The arguments that follow provide evidence that the (in)congruence of team identification attributed to the salesperson may have an impact on buyer perceptions of the salesperson, and in-turn,

impact their feelings about the interaction and increase the ability for the sales representative to persuade the buyer to make a purchase. Using social identity theory and previous research from sports psychology and personal selling, this paper develops the idea that presenting a congruent fan identification with a buyer is likely to facilitate more positive outcomes in the buyer-seller dyadic relationship. This paper looks to investigate the following research questions:

1. Can signaling congruent team identification be useful in the sales-customer dyadic exchange?
2. Does how strongly an individual identifies with their team influence the relationship between congruent identification and customer perceptions of the sales exchange?

By answering these questions, this research makes several theoretical contributions to the literature. First, we answer a call for more specific understanding of the sales behaviors which occur within sales interactions (Evans et al. 2012). The findings of this study show that similarity in attitude towards a specific team can be used as a sales tactic to positively influence the buyer. Previous research in personal selling literature has investigated the effects of conspicuous consumption (Scott, Mende and Bolton 2013), salesperson pacing, smiling and appropriate attire (Wood, Boles and Babin 2008), and formal dress (Arndt et al. 2013). This research adds to that literature by suggesting that the use of sports team identification by indicating allegiance to a sports team can significantly impact important interpersonal selling outcomes. Secondly, our research extends the literature on social identity theory and fan identification by examining their effects on the buyer-seller-dyadic exchange in a non-sports team related sales decision. Previous research in this area has focused on the impact of team identification on purchasing products or tickets to events sold by the team itself (Kwon, Trail and James 2007; Wann and Branscombe 1993).

The findings of this research also have important practical implications for sales firms and their managers, as our results indicate that this intentional communication method by the salesperson can act as a strong influence tactic used in the buyer-seller dyadic interaction. It

may also provide initial evidence for customer facing organizations to develop relationships with local sports teams and target buyers with sales calls using CRM information on their interests in sports. Sales managers are interested in things that may give their salespeople a proverbial advantage over other store locations and competitors. With the importance of relationships and building credibility understood as a key determinant of sales success (Evans et al. 2012), these sales managers should look for different ways in which their representatives could build this credibility. One area in which sales employees could influence perceived credibility with their customers is in terms of their identification to a professional, collegiate, or local sports team. The sales literature finds that non-verbal cues used by a salesperson have been found to provide evidence of their credibility in terms of their similarity, likeability and intelligence (Scott, Mende and Bolton 2013). Accordingly, the idea of wearing a local professional or university team logo may provide avenues for instigating conversation surrounding team identification in hopes to increase sales performance in those customers who also support the local teams. The findings in the research which follows suggest that the salesperson's use of signaling congruent team identification with their customer can strengthen the perceptions of the sales representative in the eyes of customer.

The sections which follow will develop arguments which support this idea that the use of congruent sports team identification will influence specific sales-related outcomes. First, the literature review will define the constructs and supporting theory, followed by a proposal of the hypothesized relationships. Second, the methodological analysis, including research methods and data analysis, will be explicated. Following this analysis, the results and important theoretical and practical implications of this study for researchers, sales managers and representatives alike will be discussed.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

In the context of a personal sales environment, the most salient and central component of the experience is the interpersonal interaction with the sales representative (Jiang et al. 2010). As

the boundary spanning agent for the firm, the sales representative serves as the organization's customer-facing connection. The modern sales environment can be difficult for both parties, as increased information and options available in our technology-rich world have increased the level of skepticism in organizational promotions (such as the sales representative) from the buyer (De Pechpeyrou and Odou 2012). Accordingly, it is the role of the salesperson to help navigate the complexities of the sales environment and reduce ambiguity for the buyer in hopes to establish a long-term relationship with them. In order for the sales representative to elicit a positive result from the interaction, they need the customer to attribute non-commercial motives to the interaction (DeCarlo 2005).

One of the first and most important things that is taught to sales representatives in any personal selling training is the idea that the salesperson needs to find some common ground between themselves and the customer with whom they are working. A common ground or similarity, also referred to as homophily, is one of the most effective relationship-building strategies (Palmatier et al. 2006). This is crucial because relationships between salespeople and their customers are important for a firm's survival, growth and future success (Reinartz and Kumar 2003). The majority of studies which look into similarities between the customer and their salesperson have investigated this similarity in terms of attitude. For example, studies have investigated the influence of similar birthdays (Burger et al. 2004), similar birthplaces (Jiang et al. 2010), similar first names (Burger et al. 2004), and similar first initials with a brand (Brendl et al. 2005) on compliance. Similarity has also been found to increase liking, persuasion, and cooperative behavior between individuals in social situations (Burger et al. 2004). Research in this field is fairly consistent, suggesting that identifying similarities of attitudes and opinions can help to build a connection in the dyadic buyer-seller exchange. Previous research in this area has also found that several personal and emotional factors, such as shared attitudes, lifestyles or values, can play a role in establishing rapport between these parties (Crosby, Evans and Cowles 1990). Even when the similarity is incidental, it can be interpreted as a signal that can promote social

connectedness (Palmatier et al. 2006), which means that similarity contributes to their effectiveness as a salesperson (Boles, Johnson and Barksdale 2000).

Social Identity Theory

The influence that relationship-building via similarity has on positive sales outcomes can be explained theoretically by social identity theory. Social identity theory is defined as a person's sense of self derived from their perceptions of membership in a social group (Tajfel 1978). For example, individuals who have a psychological attachment to his or her favorite sports team, deemed team identification, see themselves as part of the team and often refer to the team and its players as "us" or "we." Identification with certain groups is a natural occurrence, as humans have an innate need to belong and are driven to establish interpersonal bonds (Leary and Baumeister 2017). This concept, called belongingness, has multiple aspects, including companionship, affiliation and connectedness (Lee and Robbins 1995). Connectedness, or "the emotional distance between the self and other people" (Lee and Robbins 1995, pp. 239), is of specific importance in this research, as identification with a sports team can be a highly emotional and has even been classified as a secular religious experience (Burstyn 2005). Furthermore, in sales settings, connectedness is a primary driver of similarity effects (Jiang et al. 2010). This means that the mere act of categorizing oneself as a group member is sufficient in encouraging others in the group into responding favorably towards in-group positions (Turner 1975). This is because the desire to belong causes people tend to evaluate their in-group members as more trustworthy (Tajfel 1978). In the sales literature, research on customer-company identification by Ahearne, Bhattacharya and Gruen (2005) finds that the sales representative has a major influence whether or not customers identify with the company. In this study, the authors also find that those who identify with a company are not only more likely to incur positive behaviors, such as word-of-mouth and proactive communication of anticipated problems, but also more likely to have positive judgment towards, utilization of, and responses toward the company's product.

Conversely, social identity theory tells us that in-groups cannot exist without out-group, and that in-groups define themselves in relationship to their out-group (Tajfel 1978; Abrams and Hogg 2006). In other words, individuals tend to use the out-group as a method for determining distinctiveness (Lipponen et al. 2003). Previous literature also indicates that out-group members tend to be on the receiving end of skepticism more so than their in-group peers (Johnson and Lowe 2015). Further, as a group identity becomes more firmly embedded, bias of out-group members becomes more and more entrenched (Stone and Crisp 2007). Hypothetically, this would suggest that for individuals who more strongly identify with their team, they will be even more critical or skeptical of the out-group member. This suggests that in the context of our research, the recognition of a congruent team identification is established with the idea that there are also those who are not in the group, and perceptions of the sales representative as an out-group member may increase skepticism and bias.

Team Identification

Team identification can be defined as the individuals' perception of the link between themselves and the sports team (Wann 2006). Team identification is so powerful that those who identify with a team are willing to attend the team's competitions, regardless of the success of the team (Wakefield and Sloan 1995). It has been well established that fans of a team establish a psychological connection to their team (Dietz-Uhler and Lanter 2008) and that this connection can have a positive influence on an individuals' psychological well-being (Wann 2006). It is important to note here that the positive influence of outcomes associated with team-identification has been more consistently related to social measures of well-being, as opposed to personal well-being (Wann 2006; Wann et al. 2003). This means that the effects of team-identification are stronger in protecting their perceived group identity than that of their personal identity. More interestingly, research by Fisher (1998) tells us that perceived similarity with the group (as opposed to attractiveness of the group) is the most important factor in determining which team an individual identifies with. More recent research on team-identification also tells us that

identifying as part of the same team motivates helping behavior (Van der Borgh et al. 2017). Further, team identification has been found to be a moderator on the influence of consumers' word-of-mouth on their intentions to purchase in the future (Apostolopoulou and Papadimitriou 2018). Accordingly, it is expected that in a personal selling context, perceptions of similar team identification will have a strong influence on the buyer-seller dyadic exchange.

Buyer-Seller Congruent Team Identification

Returning to the sales context, we remember that the purpose of the sales representative is to be a boundary spanning agent for the organization whose role is to reduce the uncertainty for the buyer (Julian and Ramaheshan 1994). In this setting, although the buyer and seller may have had no previous interactions, humans in general are "cognitive misers" who find ways to save time and effort while making assessments and coming to conclusions (Taylor and Fiske 1978), and therefore, tend to use heuristics and schemas to make judgments. Signaling theory states that when two parties have access to different information, signaling occurs which conveys some information about oneself to the other party (Spence 1973). When information is ambiguous, communications that assist the second party act as cues signaling a message to the receiver that helps them to evaluate the source. For example, a salesperson wearing an armband identifying their loyalty to a certain team, may signal to another individual that they are in or out-group members. Further, communication discussing their team in a knowledgeable way is likely to signal to the customer the similarity (or difference) that exists between them.

With this in mind, those who are similarly perceived in-group members should be seen in an even more positive light as they are likely to receive the in-group favoritism effect that is a result of team identification (Wann and Branscombe 1995). Furthermore, when asked to evaluate others, sports fans often exhibit biased evaluations of both in and out group fans, providing more positive evaluations of fellow in-group fans than those who are rivals (Wann and Grieve 2005). This means that

customers who perceive themselves similar in terms of team identification are also more likely to give a positive review of a person who is a fan of the same team than those who are a fan of a rival (Wann and Dolan 1994), and more likely to treat others who are fans of the same team with a positive bias (Wann, Melnick, Russell and Pease 2001). Furthermore, findings that team identification has been found to increase feelings of belongingness (Branscombe and Wann 1991) and have shown that being a fan of the same team can assist individuals in gaining and maintaining relationships (Wann et al. 2011). This is important because rapport building is one major determinant of sales success (Clark, Drew and Pinch 2003). Finally, since social identity theory suggests that the strength of the identification is bound in the idea that those outside the group either don't identify with the same team, or more strongly, identify with a rival, we suspect that in an incongruent situation an opposite effect will occur.

Congruent Team Identification and Trust. Returning to social psychology, we know that the simple act of categorizing oneself as an in-group member can influence perceptions of trust (Tajfel 1978). This is consistent with findings that team identification has a positive relationship with trust (Wann and Polk 2007), and given that fans can hold strong negative perceptions of supporters of rival teams (Wann and Grieve 2005) one could reasonably expect that the inverse is true for in-congruent team identification. From a sales perspective, research supports this idea as similar attitudes, beliefs and values cause the perception of a more trustworthy salesperson in the eyes of the customer (Doney and Cannon 1997; Palmatier et al. 2007). It can reasonably be expected then, that previous relationships between similarity in terms of shared attitudes and beliefs will hold true in the buyer-seller dyadic relationship. More specifically, we suggest that congruent identification with a favorite sports team should signal to the customer that they are both in-group members with similar attitudes, values, and beliefs resulting in higher levels of perceived trust.

H_{1a}: In an interpersonal sales context, (in) congruent team identification shared between the salesperson and a

consumer strengthens (weakens) the level of customer trust.

Congruent Team Identification and Satisfaction. Research in the sports marketing domain tells us that those higher in team identification were more satisfied from positive game outcomes (Madrigal 1995) and that team identification strengthens the influence of satisfaction on loyalty to the team (Bodet and Bernache-Assollant 2011). Also, there is empirical evidence to suggest that similarity among individuals influences relationship satisfaction in a relational context (Byrne 1969). In other words, it can be reasonably expected that similarity in team identification can positively impact satisfaction with the relationship between the buyer and the seller. From a social identity theory perspective, this means that if a sales representative highlights congruent team identification with the buyer, it is likely that their perceptions of the salesperson as an in-group member will cause them to be more satisfied with the relationship.

H_{1b}: In an interpersonal sales context, (in) congruent team identification shared between the salesperson and a consumer strengthens (weakens) the level of customer satisfaction.

Congruent Team Identification and Gratitude. As boundary spanners, sales representatives are in a position where they have the ability to develop powerful emotions within their customer (Mangus et al. 2017). One of those emotions, gratitude, "stems from the perception of a positive personal outcome, not necessarily deserved or earned, that is due to the actions of another person" (Emmons and McCullough 2003, pp.5). In other words, gratitude results from an appraisal where the customer attributes their actions to another agent's actions and not themselves (Brock et al. 2016). When we consider that the customer with a perception of congruent team identification is more likely to exhibit positive bias toward other in-group members (in this case the sales representative), it is likely that their evaluation of the actions of the salesperson are positive. As a result, it is expected that the perception of a similar team identification with the sales representative will elicit greater levels of gratitude than if the representative was not a perceived in-group member.

H_{1c}: In an interpersonal sales context, (in) congruent team identification shared between the salesperson and a consumer strengthens (weakens) the level of buyer gratitude.

Congruent Team Identification and Purchase Intentions. Previous research on team identification has shown that those who identify with a team are more likely to purchase more team-related merchandise, sponsors' products, and tickets to the teams matches (Wann and Branscombe 1993), and team-related memorabilia (Kwon, Trail and James 2007). It can be expected, then, that these effects should translate into a personal selling context, as well. Furthermore (as discussed above), similarity is also a component of credibility (Simons, Berkowitz and Moyer 1970) and consumer-perceived credibility has been empirically demonstrated to be an important antecedent to consumer compliance (Sharma 1990), purchase intentions (Grewal, Gotlieb and Marmorstein 1994), and an important determinant of sales success (Evans et al. 2012). Accordingly, it can reasonably be expected that a sales representative's signal of congruent team identification should influence customer purchase intentions.

H_{1d}: In an interpersonal sales context, (in) congruent team identification shared between the salesperson and a consumer strengthens (weakens) customer purchase intentions.

Moderating Effect of the Level of Customer Team Identification

Although the term identification is used above, identification can mean many different things to different people. The hypothesis above is based on the premonition that simply identifying with the same sports team should help to build a stronger relationship between the consumer and sales representative. However, this does not take into consideration the strength of the customers' identification with that team.

Research by Murrel and Dietz (1992) indicates that as identification with a team increases, so does the level of support from the individual. This is true because not all those who watch or attend sporting events are fans committed to the teams that they are watching (Mahony,

Madrigal and Howard 2000). Furthermore, in-group favoritism and out-group derogation have been found to be stronger when individuals highly-identify with their team (Wann et al. 2001).

The expectation is that the stronger the team identification, the stronger the psychological connection the consumer feels they have with their team. Consistent with these ideas, research on team identification points out that sports fans who identify strongly with their team tend to experience more extreme feelings than those who identify weakly with their team (Dietz-Uhler and Lanter 2008). This is important because even though it is expected that simple congruent team identification between the customer and their sales representative should impact the consumers' attitude favorability, the consumers' level of team identification could affect the relative weight they place on that similarity in team identification.

Therefore, it is also believed that the stronger the individual's team identification, the greater the impact of congruency of team identification on our aforementioned measures of consumer attitude favorability (gratitude, trust, satisfaction), as well as their intentions to purchase from the sales representative. Accordingly, we propose the following moderation hypotheses:

H_{2a}: The customers' level of team identification moderates the relationship between the (in) congruent team identification and trust, such that when identification is high the impact of (in)congruent identification is strengthened.

H_{2b}: The customers' level of team identification moderates the relationship between the (in) congruent team identification and satisfaction, such that when identification is high the impact of (in)congruent identification is strengthened.

H_{2c}: The customers' level of team identification moderates the relationship between the (in) congruent team identification and gratitude, such that when identification is high the impact of

(in)congruent identification is strengthened.
H_{2d}: The customers' level of team identification moderates the relationship between the (in)congruent team identification and purchase intentions, such that when identification is high the impact of (in)congruent identification is strengthened.

A visual representation of the expected direction of effects for each of the hypothesis can be found in Figure 1.

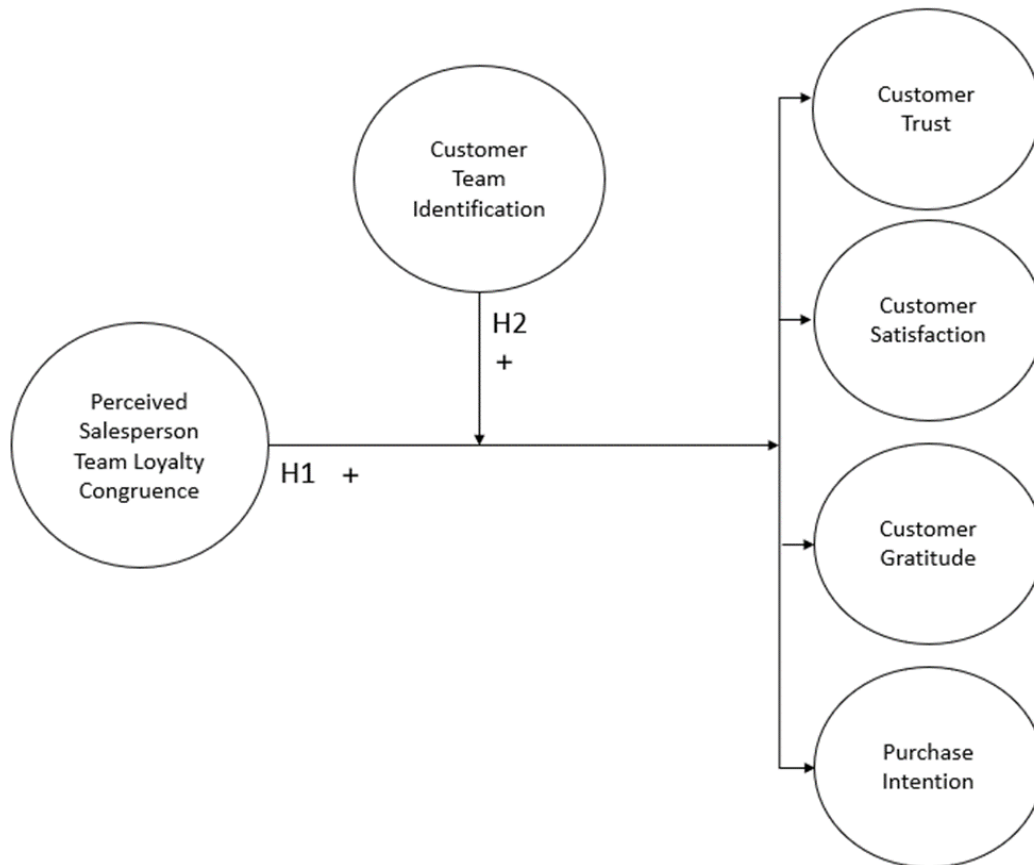
METHODOLOGY

Participants

The study was performed using the convenience sampling method in a local

shopping mall in a college town in the Southeastern United States. Participants answered the paper and pencil instrument survey on a voluntary basis. College football fans were chosen as the research target as college football fandom is very prevalent in the Southeastern United States. Of the 210 completed interviews, 16 of those did not completely finish the survey, leaving 194 usable surveys. The final sample was a male majority (61%) and most respondents were under the age of 35 (70%). The majority of our survey respondents also had a college or above degree (71%). Surveys were conducted by student volunteers who were trained and received extra course credit for their involvement, but were unaware of the reason for the survey.

**FIGURE 1:
Proposed Framework**



Measures and Manipulation

Respondents were first asked priming questions to allow respondents to begin thinking about their favorite college football team and their rivals. Questions asked who their favorite team was and who the top rival of that team was. Next, they were asked a general set of questions in relation to the levels at which they identify with their favorite team using a 7-point Likert Scale, ranging from “1-strongly disagree” to “7-strongly agree” drawn from the items contained in the Sports Spectator Identification Scale by Theodorakis et al. (2010), as well as items from the Team Identification Scale by Wu, Tsai and Hung (2012).

Following the initial survey, respondents were then given one of two scenarios in the form of a vignette to read before answering the final set of data. Ninety four (94) of the respondents in our final sample received the congruent vignette while the remaining 100 received the incongruent team identification vignette. An example of the vignette can be seen in Appendix A. Both scenarios involved a knowledgeable, no pressure sales representative going through his regular sales routine. In order to manipulate team identification, respondents were either given a scenario in which the sales representative happens to be wearing an armband displaying the logo of their favorite team, or where the sales representative is wearing the armband of a rival team. In the congruent vignette a conversation ensues that makes it clear to the reader that the sales representative is a huge fan of the same team. Respondents who received the incongruent vignette were given the exact same conversation, with the exception that the conversation is about the rivalry. In this scenario it is made very obvious by the scenario that the sales representative is a fan of the rival team. The words in each manipulation were exactly the same, with the exception of the addition of the word “rival” in the second vignette, so as to eliminate any issues with fatigue or other bias inducing cognitive load concerns.

Following the vignette, respondents are asked a series of questions regarding their perceptions of the salesperson and their likelihood of purchasing from them. Customer purchase

intentions were measured using 3-items indicating the buyer’s willingness to buy from the salesperson, adapted from similar measures of behavioral intentions present in the service quality literature (Palmatier et al. 2009). Customer gratitude was measured using an adapted version of an existing 3-item scale (Palmatier et al 2009). Buyer’s satisfaction with the salesperson was also measured using 3-items adapted from the study by Friend, Hamwi and Rutherford (2011). Customer trust was measured using 3-items also from previous studies (Palmatier et al. 2009). All of these questions were measured using the 7-point scale anchored by “1-strongly disagree” to “7-strongly agree.”

Analysis

Measurement Model. All procedures within the measurement model were generated using SmartPLS version 3.0. The results presented in Table 1 suggest that the measures for the constructs were reliable and valid. Cronbach’s alpha scores ranged from .67 to .97 and our composite reliabilities ranged from .79 to .98, suggesting that the measures were reliable. The average variance extracted for the constructs ranged from 55% to 94%, showing some support for the reliabilities of the constructs (Fornell and Larcker 1981). Discriminant validity was assessed using Heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlations (Henseler, Ringle and Sarstedt 2015), specifically with the usage of $HTMT_{inference}$ criterion. The usage of the $HTMT_{inference}$ criterion was used due to the inherent difficulty of distinguishing the constructs empirically from one another. Using the $HTMT_{inference}$ criterion, the ratios ranged from .07 to .94, all of which are below the 1.0 threshold used by the $HTMT_{inference}$ criterion.

Factor Analysis. A CFA was ran to determine the factor loading and model fit of the data using MPlus (Muthan and Muthan 2019). The model fit statistics provided evidence of good model fit (SRMR .044; CFI =.98; RMSEA=.05) based on the standards noted by Hu and Bentler (1999). The standardized loadings can be found in Table 2.

Test of the hypotheses. The structural model provides support for all of the main effect

TABLE 1

	Scale	Mean	S.D.	Cronbach Alpha	AVE	L-HTMT	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Congruence	0 - 1	-	-	-	-	-	-					
2. Customer Team Identification	1 - 7	5.31	1.48	0.95	0.77	0.27	-0.07	0.96				
3. Customer Trust	1 - 7	4.02	1.16	0.67	0.55	0.91	.26**	0.06	0.79			
4. Customer Satisfaction	1 - 7	5.36	1.36	0.93	0.88	0.74	.31**	-0.07	.48**	0.96		
5. Customer Gratitude	1 - 7	4.77	1.55	0.97	0.94	0.45	.31**	-0.09	.65**	.71**	0.98	
6. Purchase Intention	1 - 7	5.14	1.38	0.95	0.92	0.96	.31**	-0.07	.49**	.88**	.74**	0.97

Scale are the endpoints used to assess the constructs. S.D. is standard deviation. AVE is the average variance extracted. HTMT is the upper limit confidence interval of the heterotrait-monotrait inference criterion using a bootstrapped sample. Values below the diagonal are the construct correlations. Composite reliabilities are presented along the diagonal. ** indicates a correlation that is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

hypotheses. Specifically, we find that perceived salesperson team loyalty congruence increases customer trust (H_{1a} , $b=.33$, $p < .01$), increases customer satisfaction (H_{1b} , $b=.30$, $p < .01$), increases customer gratitude (H_{1c} , $b=.31$, $p < .01$), and increases purchase intention (H_{1a} , $b=.31$, $p < .01$). The SRMR for the model is below the cutoff of .05 at .047, indicating good model fit (Hu and Bentler 1999).

To investigate the moderation predicted by Hypothesis 2, interaction effects were included in the SmartPLS program. Interaction effects were significant for our outcome variables of customer satisfaction ($b = .18$, $t = 2.36$, $p < .05$) and purchase intention ($b = .22$, $t = 2.80$, $p < .01$), supporting hypotheses H_{2b} and H_{2d} . The interaction effects for the other two outcomes, trust ($b = .06$, $t = 0.78$, $p > .05$) and gratitude ($b = .11$, $t = 1.42$, $p > .05$), were non-significant, failing to support hypotheses H_{2a} and H_{2c} . The interaction coefficients can be found in Table 4. The two significant interactions with hypothetical values are displayed graphically in Figure 2.

Further discussion of these results and their implications can be found in the discussion section which follows.

DISCUSSION

Research on salesperson similarity generally agrees that it is important for organizations that use a salesforce in their marketing plan as their final customer contacts before purchase to consider using similarity as a rapport-building technique. With this in mind, the endlessly evolving role of the salesperson in the buyer-

seller interaction (Wotruba 1991) has caused sales managers to constantly look for new ways to increase their sales employees' influence over their customers, and in turn, sales performance. The findings in this paper, not only support existing literature, but expand upon it in a sports marketing context, suggesting that a signal of employee who identifies with a similar favorite sports team may be one way in which a salesperson can develop credibility between themselves and their customers.

The findings from this research are twofold. First, our results from H_1 indicate that congruent team identification has an influence on how much gratitude the customer has for their help in the interaction, how trusting they are of the representative, how satisfied they were with the interaction and how likely they will be to purchase a product in the dyadic exchange.

Second, the results from our moderation analysis (H_{2c} and H_{2d}) tell us that the stronger the customer identifies with their favorite team, the stronger the influence of team identification on the customer's level of satisfaction and their likelihood to purchase. The insignificant findings for H_{2a} and H_{2b} may indicate that team identification congruence alone is enough to influence trust and gratitude in the customer-salesperson dyadic exchange, regardless of the level at which a customer identifies with their team. In other words, as long as the customer is in the same in-group as the sales representative, they will be trusting and grateful for their help. These findings have implications for sales

**TABLE 2:
Construct and Citation**

Customer Team Identification (Theodakis et al. 2006; Wu et al. 2012)

	Estimate	S.E.
Being a fan of my favorite college football team is very important to me	0.96	0.01
During the season, I closely follow my favorite college football team	0.93	0.02
Being a fan of the team is important to me	0.94	0.01
I really dislike the greatest rival of my favorite college football team	0.70	0.05
I will regularly display the name or insignia at my place of work, where I live, or on my clothing	0.87	0.03
My friends know that I am a fan of the team	0.86	0.03
I would experience a loss if I had to stop being a fan of my favorite college football team	0.90	0.02

Customer Trust (Friend et al. 2011; Palmatier et al. 2009)

Alex gives me a feeling of trust	0.94	0.02
Alex is trustworthy	0.97	0.02
Alex would NOT make false claims	0.50	0.08

Customer Satisfaction (Friend et al. 2011)

In general, I am satisfied with my relationship with Alex	0.95	0.01
Overall, Alex is a good person to do business with	0.95	0.01
Alex provided me with satisfactory service	0.93	0.02

Purchase Intention (Palmatier et al. 2009)

I would be very likely to buy something from Alex	0.93	0.02
I would come back to this store	0.92	0.02
I would likely buy from Alex in the future	0.95	0.01

Customer Gratitude (Palmatier et al. 2009)

I would likely buy something today based on my gratitude for Alex's effort to help me	0.92	0.02
I would likely ask for Alex in the future because I owed it to him	0.96	0.01
Alex would likely receive the opportunities to sell me additional products in the future as payback for the help he provided today	0.91	0.02

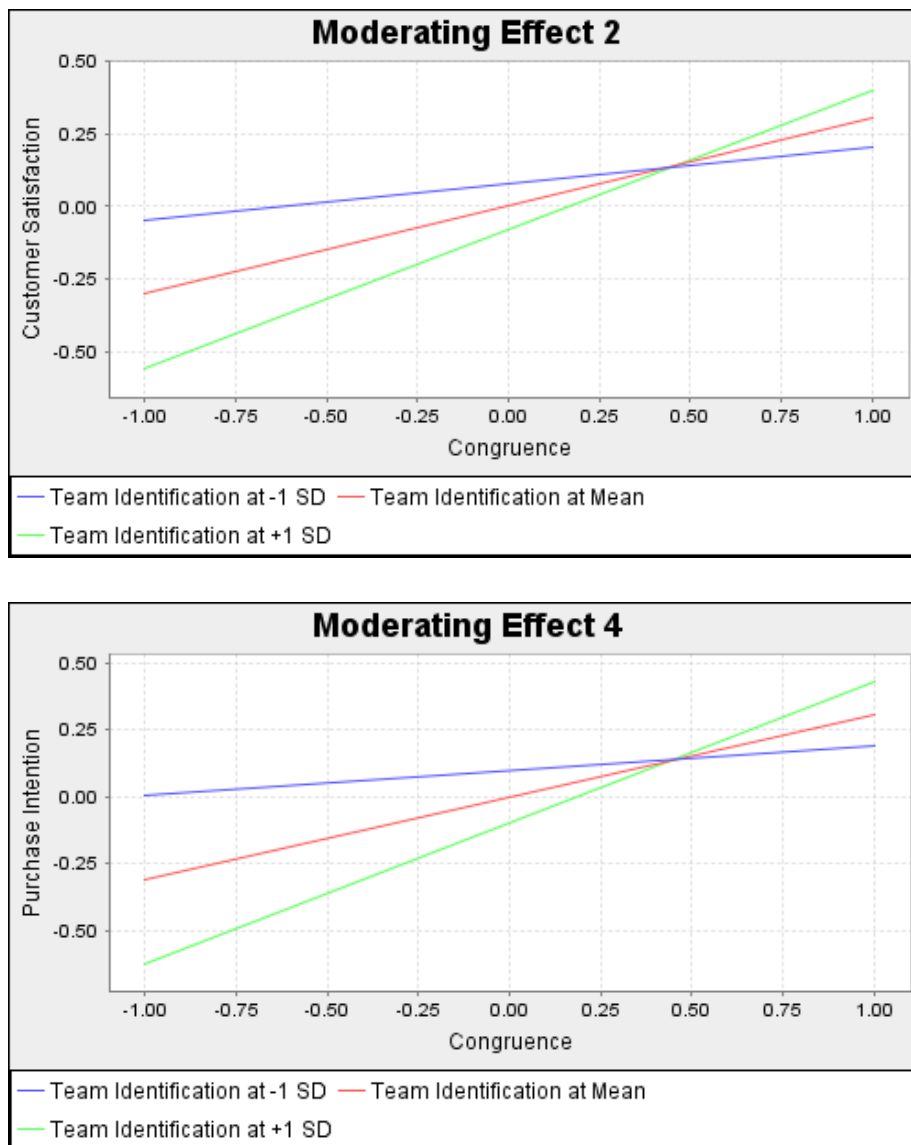
TABLE 3

	Standardized Coefficient	t-stat	p-value
Perceived Salesperson Team Loyalty Congruence - > Customer Trust	0.33	5.35	<.01
Perceived Salesperson Team Loyalty Congruence - > Customer Satisfaction	0.30	4.75	<.01
Perceived Salesperson Team Loyalty Congruence - > Customer Gratitude	0.31	4.49	<.01
Perceived Salesperson Team Loyalty Congruence - > Purchase Intention	0.31	4.61	<.01
SRMR		0.047	

TABLE 4

	Coefficient	Mean	Std Dev	t-stat	p value
Customer Team Identification and Customer Trust	0.06	0.065	0.077	0.775	0.439
Customer Team Identification and Customer Satisfaction	0.176	0.171	0.075	2.36	0.019
Customer Team Identification and Customer Gratitude	0.107	0.105	0.076	1.417	0.157
Customer Team Identification and Purchase Intention	0.219	0.213	0.078	2.792	0.005

FIGURE 2:
Interaction Effects of Team Loyalty Congruence and Team Identification on Customer Satisfaction and Purchase Intentions



managers, as they suggest that there is both a positive and negative side to using sports team identification to signal similarity and build credibility. Sales representatives should use this knowledge to their advantage when interacting with customers who voluntarily share information with them about their favorite sports team. By aligning themselves with congruent identification, the sales representative should gain credibility in the eyes of the consumer. Conversely, those who have incongruent team identification should avoid conversation about their team, as they may significantly influence their ability to build credibility with the customer. Our findings also suggest that sales managers should include this knowledge in their training, and their organizations should make a note of their team identification in their CRM systems. Further, the advent of social media and its use as a communication tool in the sales realm (Agnihotri et al. 2012) means that sales representatives could use this information to signal their allegiance to a sports team through additional channels, expanding the reach of this medium.

LIMITATIONS

Despite the significance of our findings, we regress that there are some limitations to this research. In this paper, the team identification of the salesperson has been manipulated using a vignette. The use of vignettes in research is a highly debated topic due to doubts on realism; however, its strength is in the ability to control any other outside influences on the situation (such as gender or race effects of the salesperson). Research using manipulation and scenario methods have, however, been shown to produce converging results for measurements of emotion (Robinson and Clore 2001). However, findings from this study should be considered with this in mind. Further, the mall intercept approach taken to collect our survey results may have had an impact on our findings, as those who are shopping in the mall may have some things in common that have caused them to go to the store in person as opposed to shopping online. With that said, the environment that the individuals were in when taking the survey may have also increased the generalizability of our study, as the respondents were more able to visualize the vignette in this

setting. Further, it could be argued that the decision to collect data in a retail sales environment may have limited our findings to retail sales and caused them to not be generalizable to B2B sales environments. However, regardless of the environment, the internal processes of building and establishing rapport is effective in the B2B seller-buyer interaction (Kaski et al. 2018). This is more eloquently stated in work by Mier (2016) in his aptly titled paper “Business Buyers are People Too...” Finally, we have not included a neutral reference group in our findings. This means that our study does not consider the situation where team identification does not enter the conversation. These limitations also offer some important direction for future research, explained in the section below.

FUTURE RESEARCH

Further research is recommended to confirm the findings in this research, despite most of our findings being consistent with the hypothesized expectations. First, this study may have been limited by using the survey-based vignette as opposed to a real-life buyer-seller interaction. This compromise was made to control for the many confounding situational influences that can be had in a more realistic environment. Further research should look to implement this study in a retail sales location to confirm the findings. Furthermore, research suggests that many consumers have made up their minds about an individuals’ credibility within the first 30 seconds of an interaction (Ambady, Krabbenhoft and Hogan 2006). This means that future studies could look at the implications of differences in the timing of the release of information or signals of the sales representative’s team identification congruency during a sales interaction. The timing of the interaction may also be investigated by looking at recency to the most previous game played by the team which the consumer identifies with. Previous research by Wann, Royalty and Rochelle (2002) looked at post game positive effect and found that team identification played a role. Perhaps customers who interact with a sales representative following a competition may have higher levels of positive effect during the dyadic exchange. Future research should investigate post game emotions as a moderator. The location and topic of the collection of

survey data being positioned in a retail location in the Southeastern United States and using football as the chosen sport may also bring forth some interesting future research adaptations for this work. Looking at other sports, different leagues, geographical preferences, and different levels (professional vs. college) may be interesting future research direction. Further, investigating this relationship in a B2B setting may also offer further clarity to the use of team identification as a rapport-building tactic.

Secondly, team identification has been associated with two different forms of social connections: enduring and temporary (Wann 2006). This suggests that it can have differing influence on those where social connections are readily available (fans who live in the same city as the perceived in-group) and those where connections are more temporary (fans who find themselves with in-group members in other cities). With these different social connections as a basis, future research should investigate if the positive impact of team identification on the buyer-seller dyadic exchange is consistent in temporary vs. enduring environments. It would also benefit future researchers to look for potential individual characteristics, such as gender, to determine if there are other personal differences that could be moderators.

Thirdly, research could also consider manipulating the salesperson's perceived knowledge with more up-to-date information about their team and/or more long-term knowledge of the team (i.e., Can talk about historical names related to the sports team, like past Hall of Famers, as well as current results and news regarding the sports team's current games and players) as fans high in team identification tend to be more knowledgeable about the sport and team-related information (Wann and Branscombe 1995). Including the knowledge level as a moderator may provide some interesting results. Studies which investigate these differences should make sure to account for any consumer skepticism, as the differencing levels of team knowledge may result in a skeptical consumer as they don't truly believe the sales representative is actually a loyal fan as they proclaim. Future research should investigate the perceived team identification level of the salesperson to

determine if this is the reason why the other two consumer attitude favorability measures were insignificant in the moderation models. Fourth, the lack of a neutral setting does not allow for an understanding of the comparison between our two existing situations (congruent/incongruent) as compared to a situation where team identification does not come up. Future research may investigate this to gain further understanding of whether it is viable for a sales representative to bring up this topic, as opposed to using it more naturally in a conversation when brought up by the customer. Finally, this study only investigates attitudinal measures of consumer behavior. Future research would benefit from further investigation into the actual behavior of purchasing a product in a real-world application.

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APPENDIX

Congruent Vignette

You're shopping at a large retail store for an expensive electronics product. Unfortunately, you know very little about the product that you need to buy. You are hoping to find a knowledgeable salesperson. Alex, a salesperson that works on commission, comes over to help. You notice that Alex is wearing an armband that displays the logo of your favorite college football team. You spend a few minutes discussing the upcoming college football season with Alex. It is obvious that Alex is a big fan of the team. Alex proceeds to tell you a lot of valuable information about the different brands of the electronic products. You are happy that Alex did not pressure you to make a decision today. After you get home Alex sends you a thank you note via email which has his social media (Facebook, Twitter, etc.) contact information on it.

Incongruent Vignette

You're shopping at a large retail store for an expensive electronics product. Unfortunately, you know very little about the product that you need to buy. You are hoping to find a knowledgeable salesperson. Alex, a salesperson that works on commission, comes over to help. You notice that Alex is wearing an armband that displays the logo of the rival of your favorite college football team. You spend a few minutes discussing the upcoming college football season with Alex. It is obvious that Alex is a big fan of the rival team. Alex proceeds to tell you a lot of valuable information about the different brands of the electronic products. You are happy that Alex did not pressure you to make a decision today. After you get home Alex sends you a thank you note via email which has his social media (Facebook, Twitter, etc.) contact information on it.

CAN SOCIAL MEDIA ADS FACILITATE RETAIL THERAPY? AN INVESTIGATION OF PSYCHOLOGICAL OUTCOMES OF AD ENGAGEMENT IN COLLEGE FEMALES

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In modern professional marketing, digital communications, especially social media network marketing, are increasingly prevalent. Young adults are the primary users of social media networks, especially women, and are at greater risk for affective challenges associated with social media use, including fear of missing out (FOMO), anxiety and depressive symptoms. Through engagement with social media ads, young adults are delivered significant amounts of digital marketing messages, but to date the effect of engaging with such marketing messages on psychological well-being has not been adequately investigated. The present study examines relationships between engagement with social media ads, anxiety, depression, self-regulation and (FOMO) in college females. Overall, results reveal an interaction whereby engagement with social media ads is associated with better psychological outcomes for those with higher self-regulatory function, but poorer outcomes for those with reduced self-regulation. Such results point to the growing need for a nuanced, and likely digitally enhanced, approach to engaging in ethical advertising practices.

INTRODUCTION

Research suggests shopping, while often colloquially described as “retail therapy,” is in fact associated with positive well-being outcomes. In broad demographic studies of retail activity, shopping and buying have been associated with reduced anxiety and depression (Atalay & Meloy, 2011). One mechanism of this benefit may be in the enhancement of personal control; choices inherent in shopping may restore personal control over one’s environment and can reduce residual sadness (Rick, Pereira, & Burson, 2014). Importantly, shopping can be considered many factors beyond strictly purchasing, including browsing, choosing, paying, and acquiring (Rick, Pereira, & Burson, 2014). Whether or not a purchase has been made, the act of choosing whether or not to buy, as well as what to buy, and from where, can all be strategic efforts on the part of the individual to repair mood. If consumption of self-treats is strategically motivated, then it associated with improved mood (Atalay & Meloy, 2011).

Modern microeconomic theory of monopolistically competitive markets further suggests

that by providing more complete information, marketing activities offer buyers an avenue for needs to be satisfied through proper price, quantity and quality decision-making (Hajli, et al., 2014; Hayek, 1944).

Although such work has improved understanding of the potential benefits of marketing, shopping and buying, much of the prior work has been done on traditional, non-digital, shopping. Online digital shopping and purchasing is increasingly common in the U.S., with 80% of individuals reporting making purchases online in 2016, compared to just 22% in 2000 (Pew Research Center, 2016). With broadening internet use, social media use has grown dramatically, as the percentage of adults using at least one social media platform has risen from 5% to 69% from 2005 to 2018 (Pew Research Center, 2018). Consistent with these trends in behavior, advertising through social media has also grown. Fifteen percent (15%) of adults in the U.S. report following links from social media ads to make purchases (Pew Research, 2016). Research is needed to understand outcomes associated with this shift towards engaging with online marketing, shopping and buying. This is particularly true with social media.

Social media marketing research is especially needed to understand the social, personal and

commercial implications of online shopping through social media advertisement for young adults, as they mature into their peak earning years. Research suggests current young adults, particularly those in the transition to college, are having difficulty adjusting emotionally, citing feeling more overwhelmed and anxious than in prior years (e.g., Eagan, et al., 2016). Moreover, people within this age group are the heaviest users of social media, with 88% of individuals aged 18 to 29 using at least one social media platform (Pew Research Center, 2018). Higher usage of social media itself in emerging adulthood has been associated with a variety of difficulties, including heightened levels of anxiety and depression (Lin, et al., 2016).

Such problems with social media may be driven by the pervasive fear of missing out (FOMO). FOMO is defined as “a pervasive apprehension that others may be having rewarding experiences from which one is absent” (Przybylski, Murayam, DeHaan, & Gladwell, 2013, p. 1841). Research conducted by Przybylski and colleagues (2013) has shown that FOMO is higher in younger adults and has been linked with negative well-being outcomes, including greater levels of negative mood and reduced life satisfaction. Importantly, results of this work also indicate that young adults with greater levels of FOMO are more likely to use social media during class or while driving, and may use social media to alleviate boredom or loneliness.

Considering these risks, it is important to investigate whether the same advantages found in traditional “retail therapy” can also be experienced via online shopping done on social media, where the physical and practical effort involved in shopping has been reduced to finger clicks (Chiang, 2006). The present study adds to the growing research in the area of social media and health by assessing the influence of social media shopping and ad engagement on well-being in young adults. Moreover, we also assess whether there are factors mitigating this relationship; in short, we investigate whether certain risk factors may make social media advertising engagement positive for some individuals, but detrimental for others.

One such proposed factor is self-regulation, or one’s ability to exert control over themselves by changing the way they think, feel or behave (Muraven & Baumeister, 2000). Self-regulatory strategies, including emotion regulation, constructive thinking and mastery, have been associated with reduced depression, anxiety and stress in the first year of college (Park, Edmondson, & Lee, 2012). Although self-regulation skills have been demonstrated as important predictors of adjustment during the transition to college, on average, recent students have demonstrated a lack of personal growth in self-regulation during the transition (Park, Edmondson & Lee, 2012). Additionally, while self-regulation has been linked with global levels of well-being, research is lacking in understanding whether self-regulatory function can improve not only overall well-being outcomes, but also predict daily behaviors, including social media behavior. Specifically, the inability to self-regulate one’s own shopping and spending may influence the way engagement with social media advertisements is associated with emotional outcomes.

According to self-regulation theory, individuals possess a limited capacity for self-regulation; when an individual expends the energy needed to exert self-control, it depletes the amount available for future self-regulation (Baumister, 2002; Vohs & Faber 2003). Online, retail websites and advertisements create an environment that encourage individuals to purchase and weaken self-regulation resources by, for example, providing round-the-clock and unlimited accessibility of retail options, and by using attention-grabbing designs and interactive content, or offering “one-click” purchases (La Rose & Eastin, 2002).

Such an environment may overpower an individual’s ability to exert the self-regulation needed to resist impulsive shopping and buying. Individuals with deficient self-regulation may then be especially vulnerable in online environment, where their already limited self-control resources are more continuously depleted. In support of this, there is evidence that impaired self-regulation in college students is associated with unregulated buying behaviors online (LaRose & Eastin, 2002).

As discussed, strategic shopping for unplanned self-treats has been linked with improved mood (Atalay & Meloy, 2011). Young adults who are able to self-regulate may enjoy the benefits of traditional retail therapy while online, using the advertisements they are exposed to through social media activity to shop in a way that moves them toward mood repair, enhancing feelings of well-being and control. On the other hand, when individuals shop in conditions of reduced personal control, they report enhanced sadness and depression (Rick, Pereira, & Burson, 2014). Individuals whose self-regulatory resources are already taxed may then be at risk of deepening negative emotional effects when engaging with advertisements online, whether or not a purchase is made. When interacting with advertisements via social media, turning down the opportunity to purchase impulsively may further deplete already low levels of self-control, which may contribute to poorer well-being outcomes. Alternatively, if such an individual, due to poorer self-regulation, instead does not successfully exert self-control, the impulse purchases themselves may backfire and decrease their feelings of well-being via cognitive dissonance or simple buyer's remorse.

Present Study and Predictions

In the present study, we surveyed a sample of college-aged women on their use of social media, their engagement with social media advertisements, their anxiety, depression, FOMO and self-regulation of spending. We used clicking on ads as evidence of shopping engagement; clicking is a frequently used quantitative metric used to gauge engagement with social media ads (Voorveld, van Noort, Muntinga, & Bronner, 2018). Physical interaction with ads predicts greater cognitive absorption of the content, which is in turn associated with greater behavioral outcomes such as bookmarking the retailer website for purchase and forwarding the retail website to acquaintances (Oh, Bellur, & Sundar, 2018). Consistent with this literature, we chose clicking behavior as indication of engagement that demonstrates active attention to the advertisement; such attention may be associated with positive outcomes, if it leads to enhanced feelings of personal control (Atalay & Meloy,

2011), but at the same time poses potential threat to self-regulatory resources due to the unique and characteristic features of social media ads (La Rose & Eastin, 2002).

The primary focus of the present study, then, is to examine the relationship between engagement with social media advertisements (referred to here as ad engagement, and abbreviated as AE subsequently) and the various aspects of well-being. Prior work has demonstrated that shopping and buying are associated with reduced anxiety and depression (Atalay & Meloy, 2011), increased feelings of control and reduced sadness (Rick, Pereira, & Burson, 2014). Given this body of findings, we tentatively expect that AE would be associated with reduced anxiety and depression; in other words, that the benefits of traditional retail therapy would extend to social media shopping. Expectations are tentative, though, in light of the research showing higher usage of social media more broadly in young adulthood is linked with a variety of difficulties, including heightened levels of anxiety and depression (Lin, et al., 2016). It is possible, then, that shopping in this environment may not provide the same benefits as traditional shopping does.

We additionally explore whether AE is associated with FOMO. Although exploratory, we tentatively expect that AE would be associated with reduced FOMO. Theory suggests providing more complete information, that includes marketing activities offer buyers an avenue for needs to be satisfied through proper price, quantity and quality decision-making (Hajli, et al., 2014; Hayek, 1944). This informative aspect of marketing could reduce one's sense of fear of missing out on things others know about, possess, or do.

Additionally, we examine the influence of self-regulatory behaviors on social media use and well-being. Specifically, we assess whether financial self-regulatory failure is associated with anxiety, depression, and FOMO, and whether there is a significant interaction between AE and self-regulatory failures on anxiety, depression and FOMO. In accordance with prior research showing self-regulation is associated with reduced depression, anxiety and stress in the first year of college (Park, Edmondson, & Lee, 2012), we predict

individuals with more financial self-regulatory challenges would have increased anxiety, depression, and FOMO. Importantly, we investigate whether the relationships between AE and the well-being outcomes would differ between those with higher versus lower self-regulation challenges. Because social media ads' features create an environment that encourages individuals to purchase and poses risks to self-regulation, we predict that AE would be associated with elevated anxiety and depression for those lower in self-regulation, for whom ad engagement may only further deplete their self-control and/or provide an all-too-easy opportunity for further self-regulatory failure. On the other hand, we predict that AE would be associated with reduced anxiety and depression for those with stronger self-regulation, for whom ads offer opportunity to exert strategic mood repair.

Results may contribute to the understanding of ethical considerations for advertising in the digital age, as well as identify factors and behaviors associated with depression and anxiety in this emerging adult age group. This could inform future regulators of digital advertising how to intentionally design messaging that will moderate negative effects among those with greater self-regulatory challenges.

METHOD

The survey was conducted at a small all-women's liberal arts college in the US Midwest. Respondents were approached in its only dining hall by two senior independent study students from the Psychology and Business departments during September and October of 2017. As can be seen in Table 1, the

respondent population was largely parallel with the available population on campus despite the random nature of respondent selection. The survey was taken by 122 respondents; after excluding participants who provided incomplete responses, 104 participants were included in the final analyses. Respondents ranged in age from 18 to 22, with the mean age of 19 years and 7 months. Consenting participants individually completed surveys anonymously online via SurveyMonkey on a provided laptop.

Measures

Social Media and Advertisement Engagement (AE). Participants were asked a series of questions about their social media use and AE. AE was defined as clicking on ads, because clicking indicates voluntary engagement with and demonstrates attention to the advertisement. Participants were first asked whether (yes vs. no) they are active on social media. They were additionally asked on which social media networks (Facebook, Snapchat, Twitter, Pinterest, Instagram, LinkedIn, Google+ or Other) they are currently active; participants could select as many as applied to them. To assess AE, participants were asked to estimate the number of times in a typical week they respond to each social media platform's ads by clicking or buying. This wording is consistent with contemporary industry definition on engagement which involves "active participants rather than viewers;" customers interact with material presented rather than simply reading or noticing (Evans, 2010). For the main analyses, based on participants' response patterns, responses were coded as "any engagement" or "no engagement."

**TABLE 1:
Respondent and Population Ethnic Distribution**

Ethnicity	Respondents	Population
White	76.9%	77.5%
Hispanic/Latina	14.7%	11.1%
Asian/ Pacific Islander	4.8%	2.8%
African American/Black	1.5%	2.4%
Native American	0.7%	0.2%
Other/Prefer Not to Respond	1.4%	6.0%

Spending-Related Self-Regulation.

The Self-Regulatory Behaviors scale assesses nutrition, time management, spending, and emotion regulation failures in the past week (Job, Walton, Bernecker, & Dweck, 2015). To assess challenges in self-regulation of spending, the spending subscale of this measure was used; participants were presented with six items asking about their spending regulation. Each item asks participants to rate how frequently they engaged in the presented behaviors in the last week, with answers ranging from 0 (never) to 5 (7 or more times). Sample items include, “During the last week, how often did you buy something knowing that it’s actually too expensive for you?” and “During the last week, how often did you spend money without really thinking about it?” Overall scores were summed. Internal reliability was high; Cronbach’s alpha for the scale in the present study was 0.89. For the present analyses, after individual responses to items were summed, we performed a median split of responses, with participants scoring above the median (respondents scoring higher than 3) placed into a “higher regulatory problems” group and those scoring below the median (3 or less) were placed into a “lower regulatory problems” group.

Anxiety and Depression. To assess depression and anxiety symptoms, we used the short forms of the depression and anxiety scales from the Patient-Reported Outcomes Measurement Information System (PROMIS; Pilkonis, Choi, Reise, et al., 2011). The PROMIS is an initiative of the National Institutes of Health intended to design reliable, precise questionnaires with reduced respondent burden. PROMIS depression and anxiety scales ask participants how frequently in the past 7 days they experienced depressive or anxiety symptoms on a 1-5 scale, ranging from “Never” to “Always.” The depression scale includes eight items; example items include, “I felt worthless,” and “I felt sad.” The anxiety scale includes seven items, including, “I felt nervous,” and “I felt uneasy.” Each scale was scored by averaging the items within each scale. In the present study, Cronbach’s alpha for the depression scale was 0.95, and for the anxiety scale was 0.93.

FOMO. The Fear of Missing Out scale (FOMO; Przybylski et al., 2013) is a ten-item measure designed to assess the extent to which individuals experience fear of missing out. Participants rate the extent to which each item is true of them ranging from 1 (not at all true) to 5 (extremely true). Sample items include, “I get worried when I find out my friends are having fun without me,” and “It bothers me when I miss an opportunity to meet up with friends.” Scores are averaged across items. Of note in the present study, due to survey error, two of the items from the original scale were inadvertently not included. These items are: “When I miss out on a planned get-together, it bothers me,” and “When I go on vacation, I continue to keep tabs on what my friends are doing.” Nevertheless, even with those excluded two items, Cronbach’s alpha for the remaining items in the present study remained high ($\alpha = 0.82$), justifying the scale’s inclusion in the present analyses.

Analyses

For the focal analyses, three factorial ANOVAs were conducted to predict 1.) depression, 2.) anxiety, and 3.) FOMO as the three dependent variables. AE (no engagement vs. engagement), financial self-regulatory behavior problems (low vs. high), and the interaction between the two were included as independent variables. Simple effects tests were also assessed when relevant.

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics and correlations for depression, anxiety, FOMO, number of ads engaged, and self-regulatory challenges are displayed in Table 2. It should be noted that 42 of the 104 respondents (40.4%) indicated zero engagement with social media ads. The remaining responses ranged in frequency from 1 to 205 times per week, with the next 40% of respondents indicating they engaged with ads fewer than ten times per week, and the remaining 20% ranging from 10 and 205. Because of the high rate of responses being zero and to allow for sufficient groups to investigate trends in engagement, for the main analyses, we grouped individuals into “any engagement” vs. “no engagement.” Similarly,

for the self-regulation variable, we split the sample into two groups; participants scoring above the median (respondents scoring higher than 3) were placed into a “higher regulatory problems” group and those scoring below the median (3 or less) were placed into a “lower regulatory problems” group.

As seen in Table 2, significant moderate positive correlations were found between FOMO and anxiety ($r = .32, p < .01$), between FOMO and depression ($r = .22, p < .05$) and between FOMO and self-regulatory problems ($r = .23, p < .05$), and a strong positive correlation was found between anxiety and depression ($r = .72, p < .001$).

Respondents were asked to identify social media networks on which they hold accounts and are active. One hundred percent of the sample indicated that they are active on at least one account. The percentage of the sample who indicated activity on each of the following sites were: Facebook 87.7%; Snapchat 83.6%; Instagram 77.0%; Pinterest 41.8%; Twitter 36.9%. The mean number of social media networks on which respondents were active was 3.96. This is over the minimum threshold of three social media networks for commonly experienced higher levels of anxiety and depression symptoms (Primack, et al., 2017).

Results of the ANOVA predicting depression indicated a significant interaction between self-regulation problems and AE on depression ($F(1, 75) = 5.51, p = .02$) and on anxiety ($F(1, 95) = 4.57, p = .04$). As can be seen in Figure 1 and Figure 2, for those high in self-regulatory problems, higher engagement is associated with more depression and anxiety, respectively. For

those lower in self-regulatory problems, higher engagement is associated with reduced depression and anxiety. When a significant interaction is found between IVs, main effects are not directly interpreted (Maxwell & Delaney, 2003). Simple effects analyses assessed the effect of AE within each level of self-regulatory failures. When assessing multiple simple effects, alpha level should be adjusted to reflect the number of tests being conducted (Maxwell & Delaney, 2003). In the present analyses, two simple effect tests were conducted per outcome, and thus an alpha of 0.025 (0.05/2) was used. Results of simple effects tests showed that among those lower in self-regulatory failures, the effect of AE approached but did not meet statistical significance for depression ($t(1, 84) = 3.59, p = 0.06$) and anxiety ($t(1,49) = 1.98, p = 0.05$). Among those higher in self-regulatory problems, there was no significant effect of AE on depression ($t(1, 43.7) = -1.37, p = 0.18$) or anxiety ($t(1, 46) = -1.03, p = 0.33$).

The interaction between AE and self-regulatory problems on FOMO was not significant ($F(1, 84) = 0.123, p = 0.727$). The main effect of AE on FOMO was not significant ($F(1, 84) = 3.36, p = 0.071$). However, there was a statistically significant main effect of self-regulatory problems on FOMO ($F(1, 84) = 4.42, p = 0.038$), with those high in self-regulatory failures experiencing higher levels of FOMO.

DISCUSSION

In the present study, we surveyed a sample of college women on their use of social media, their social media AE, their anxiety, their depression, their FOMO, and their self-

TABLE 2:
Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for Variables

		Mean	SD	1	2	3	4
1	FOMO	2.47	0.80	--	--	--	--
2	Anxiety	2.45	1.02	0.32**	--	--	--
3	Depression	2.07	1.00	0.22*	0.72**	--	--
4	Number of Ads Engaged	10.31	26.80	0.13	-0.12	-0.14	--
5	Self-regulation Failures	4.58	4.78	0.23*	0.08	-0.01	0.11

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

FIGURE 1

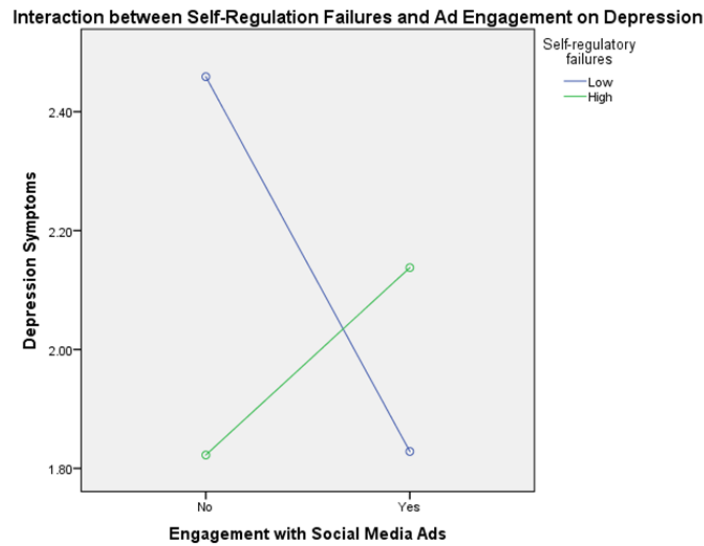
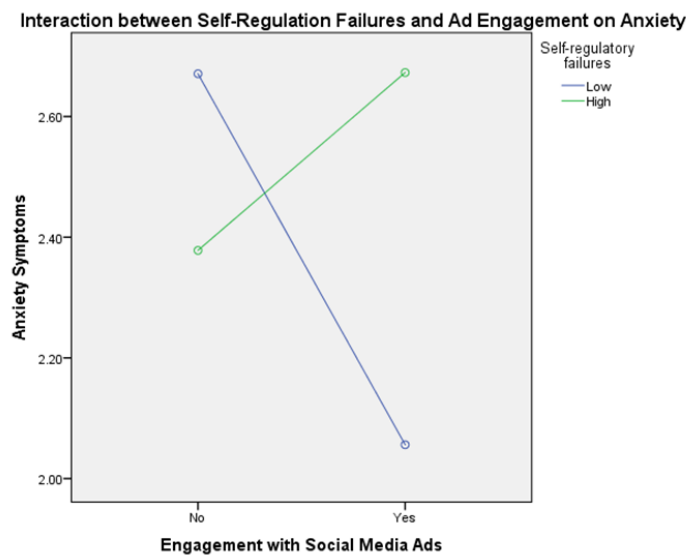


FIGURE 2



regulation of spending. The primary focus was to examine the relationship between AE and various aspects of well-being and self-regulation.

Results suggest that consistent with prior work (Pew Research Center, 2018), emerging adults in the present sample were high users of social media; 100% of the sample reported being active on at least one social media site, with the mean number of networks being 3.96. This

reaffirms the normative use of social media in this age group and supports the need for research into the consequences associated with social media engagement in this age group.

Prior work has demonstrated shopping and buying are associated with reduced anxiety and depression (Atalay & Meloy, 2011). In the present study, this was supported, but only conditionally. The significant interaction between AE and self-regulatory challenges

indicates that for those individuals who have fewer financial self-regulation failures, AE is associated with reduced depression and anxiety, consistent with the prior work and with the research expectations. However, for those with higher financial self-regulatory failures, AE was associated with elevated anxiety and depression.

As the present study shows, marketing on social media networks does not appear to inherently increase anxiety and depression for users. In fact, AE can be positive for many, particularly if they are also able to regulate their own spending. This important qualification expands upon the literature on social media and on the impacts associated with shopping and buying. For the industry, while not conclusive, the present research indicates social media marketing is not in and of itself harm-causing, and can be helpful to the social media consuming population. The significant interaction between self-regulation and AE, however, suggests interpreting overall effects of social media marketing oversimplifies the complex ways in which young adults may engage with the ads, demonstrating understanding the mental health outcomes associated with these practices requires more nuanced investigations accounting for other moderating individual difference characteristics.

Present results additionally build upon prior findings by demonstrating that self-regulation is not only predictive of emotions, anxiety and depression, broadly, but also with relevant behavioral choices, in this case engagement with social media. Given the knowledge that young adults are deeply imbedded into social media (Pew Research Center, 2018) and social media use is associated with risks to well-being in this age group (Lin et al., 2016), the need to investigate factors promoting health in the face of these risks has grown. The present study contributes to this effort by identifying self-regulation as a potential buffer, helping individuals utilize the ads they encounter on social media to successively engage in the retail therapy found in other shopping environments.

Prior work has shown that FOMO is linked with a variety of negative well-being outcomes, including greater levels of negative mood and reduced life satisfaction (Przybylski, et al., 2013). The present study supports the prior work, demonstrating significant positive correlations between FOMO and anxiety, as well as between FOMO and depression. Importantly, AE was not associated with FOMO. Once again, these results suggest social media advertising is not inherently associated with problems. Indeed, this finding differentiates AE from other social media behaviors, such as using social media during class or while driving (Przybylski, et al., 2013), which have been linked with higher FOMO.

On the other hand, self-regulation challenges were directly associated with FOMO; those with more financial self-regulatory failures exhibited higher levels of FOMO. Future studies can investigate whether interventions targeted at improving self-regulatory function might also diminish FOMO, or alternatively, whether reductions in FOMO can improve self-regulatory function. Additionally, of important note is in the present study, the FOMO scale lacked two of the original scale items. Although reliability of the remaining items was still acceptable, future work without this survey limitation is needed to replicate current results.

Future research can expand upon the present work in other important ways. Research suggests present-day college students are having difficulty adjusting emotionally, citing feeling more overwhelmed and anxious than in prior years (e.g., Eagan, et al., 2016). Moreover, individuals in this age group are the heaviest users of social media (Pew Research Center, 2018), and are most susceptible to the risks associated with high social media usage, including heightened levels of anxiety and depression (Lin, et al., 2016). Furthermore, prior research has demonstrated that although the early college years are stressful for both men and women, college women are experiencing especially elevated levels of anxiety and distress (e.g., Eagan et al., 2016). Identifying the experience with social media ads in this higher-risk group was thus the focus of the present study. Nevertheless, future studies should seek replication and generalizability of present findings by

expanding investigation to individuals of various age, gender, socio-economic status and geographic origin.

Additionally, in the present study, to assess AE, participants were asked to estimate the number of times in a typical week they respond to each social media platform by clicking on ads or buying. Future studies could separate each of these by assessing the difference between clicking and buying for well-being outcomes. The recent industry-added category of digital advertising “hoverers” was not considered engagement in the study, but should be assessed in future work. Additionally, rather than ask participants to recall, which may not reflect actual lived behavior, future work should observe usage closer to real time. Of note is that in the present study, due to the nature of participant responses, AE was categorized as binary, either as some or no engagement. A more nuanced approach in future studies to assess AE in a way that captures more types and levels of engagement in real-time may clarify the extent to which engagement, in all of its forms, is associated with well-being outcomes.

Prior work suggests different platforms are more heavily used by individuals of different age groups (Pew Research Center, 2018). In the current investigation, analysis of each individual social media platform was not possible due to the small sample sizes of respondents reporting ad engagement in several of the platforms. In future work, however, each social media network platform could be separated to examine if marketing on each platform has different impacts on depression and anxiety, if the number of respondents is increased and respondent group demographics is substantially broadened.

MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

Comprehending the effects social media has on stakeholders, working environments, the responsible construction of messaging, and gauging the effectiveness of social media marketing efforts is vital in the contemporary business space.

Employee Assistance Programs

The ubiquity of social media and its high reach and frequency of use demands that employers understand the self-regulatory concerns facing team members, particularly when team members include young adults. Management processes must not only acknowledge, but also engage, the distractions caused by ever-wider social media use in the workplace. This is acutely the case when considering how to mitigate the deleterious impacts of poor self-regulators on team performance. With this in mind, the study points to possible managerial approaches to address employee wellness. Potentially, though not specifically, firms may wish to consider offering Employee Assistance Programs to help those negatively affected by social media marketing ads and the instant gratification of engagement many find difficult to resist. More research is needed to determine the appropriate support to provide.

Ethical and Legal Considerations

In the realm of marketing management, the temptation to continually offer messaging via social media without regard to the ability of recipients to self-regulate is a legal and ethical challenge. Generally, it is illegal to not provide disclaiming language when marketing messaging in any environment could affect health, safety or the financial well-being of potential customers in receiving messages. This includes addictive behaviors like gambling. The data of this study indicates the mental health and financial responsibility of ad recipients may in fact be imperiled *or* aided by the ready access to buying encouraged by social media marketing. The socially responsible action marketing managers should, based on study data, contemplate disclaiming advertising in a manner consistent with addictive products and services.

Prioritizing Social Media Platforms for Marketing

AE via social media is a particularly desired goal of marketing messaging across all platforms. Selecting the highest priority social media networks based on demographic AE is often among the most difficult tasks with which

marketing managers have to contend. This is especially true as each network platform has differing levels of account ownership, usage and purpose of usage. The study offers data on the varying levels of AE on six (6) of the most popular social media network platforms: Twitter, Facebook, Instagram, Snapchat, Pinterest, and YouTube. The core learning outcome for marketing managers based on the pilot data is Facebook, SnapChat, and Instagram are the most owned social media networks. The low number of respondents does not offer a clear picture regarding network platform usage and AE.

Social Media Marketing Messaging Effectiveness

Conversion in traditional marketing settings entails the act of buying the product or service advertised. On social media network platforms, metrics of engagement measured via clicks, follows, shares, hovers, time viewing, and video completion rates, are better indicators of marketing effectiveness. Managers must adjust to metrics and examine which social media network platforms offer not just the greatest exposure, but the highest effective engagement metrics, which is considered conversion in the contemporary marketing environment. This study survey instrument offers a managerial window into AE by social media network. As the next phase of this study broadens the number and overall demographic base, it will offer significant insight into social media AE and, by it, conversion.

CONCLUSION

Overall, results of the present study suggest, consistent with prior work, that social media ads provide an opportunity for online retail therapy, but importantly, only for young adults with higher self-regulatory function. For those challenged by poorer self-regulation, ads may pose a risk to emotional health. Such results point to the growing need for investigations of self-regulation enhancement in young adults during this important developmental time and suggest a nuanced, and likely digitally enhanced, approach to engaging in ethical advertising practices.

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¹42 of the 104 respondents (40.4%) indicated zero weekly engagements with social media ads. The remaining responses ranged in frequency from 1 to 205 times per week, with the next 40% of respondents indicating that they engaged with ads fewer than ten times per week, and the remaining 20% indicated between 10 and 205 engagements. Because of the high rate of responses being zero and to allow for sufficient groups to investigate trends in engagement, we grouped individuals into “any engagement” vs. “no engagement.”

²Due to unequal n and some evidence for potential heterogeneity of variance for depression, we used the separate variance approach, or the *F* test generalization of the Welch test and Satterthwaite separate variance t tests for all depression analyses (Maxwell, Delaney, & Kelley, 2018).