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FROM THE EDITORS

Marketing Management Journal, first published in Fall 1991, is dedicated as a forum for the exchange of ideas and insights into the marketing management discipline. Its purpose was and continues to be the establishment of a platform through which academicians and practitioners in marketing management can reach those publics that exhibit interests in theoretical growth and innovative thinking concerning issues relevant to marketing management.

Submissions to *Marketing Management Journal* are encouraged from those authors who possess interests in the many categories that are included in marketing management. Articles dealing with issues including, but not limited to marketing strategy, ethics, product management, communications, pricing, distribution, sales management, buyer behavior, marketing information, and international marketing will be considered for review and possible inclusion in the journal. Empirical and theoretical submissions of high quality are encouraged. The general approach of MMJ will continue to be the publication of articles appealing to a broad range of readership interests.

In addition, MMJ features a special section in the fall issue each year that focuses on specific topics of interest within the marketing discipline. The topic for the fall 2017 special section is The Use of Social Media and Strategic Marketing Initiatives: Insights into State-of-the-Art Marketing Communication Practices. The deadline is March 1, 2017, so please consider submitting a paper. Go to http://www.mmaglobal.org/publications/mmj/ to find the call.

Thanks to Lynn Oyama for her help with the production of the Marketing Management Journal.

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MANUSCRIPT AND SUBMISSION GUIDELINES
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Scope and Mission

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Submission Guidelines

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

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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.

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THE ROLE OF STORE TRUST AND SATISFACTION IN CREATING PREMIUM PRICES

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It is not enough for retailers to generate perceptions of merchandise value in order to elicit consumers' willingness to pay higher prices. In addition to value perceptions, managers must create store trust which serves to authenticate these perceptions. Without accompanying notions of trust in a store, consumers may not have sufficient confidence in their value perceptions to warrant paying higher prices. Results from two studies reported in this paper indicate that, in addition to store affect and perceived store differentiation, store trust (but not satisfaction) convincingly mediates the effect of store merchandise perceptions on consumers' willingness to pay a higher price.

INTRODUCTION

Distinctiveness and consistency have often been found to be facilitating aspects of important marketing outcomes (Litchtenstein and Bearden, 1989; Heckler and Childers, 1992; Homburg, Koschate, and Hoyer, 2006; White and Argo, 2011). For instance, it has been proposed that a brand's perceived value (quality that is *consistent* with price, cf. Ziethaml, 1988) and its distinctiveness are related to willingness to pay a price premium for the brand which in turn indicates commitment to the brand (Netemeyer et al. 2004). However, it is unclear *why* consumers will be willing to pay more when they are already enjoying a "good deal" in terms of value. Similarly, why should someone pay more just because a brand is different? In fact, one would expect exactly the opposite, namely that consumers would not want to reduce the monetary value of the deal by paying more. Further, they would not want to pay more for what could be a risky undertaking into a different and unknown situation.

The literature on willingness to pay (e.g. Argo, Dahl, and Morales, 2006; Chen, Ng, and Rao, 2005; Homburg, Koschate, and Hoyer, 2005; Nunes and Boatwright, 2004; Okada, 2005; Simonson and Drolet, 2004) is related but limited in our pursuit of understanding the determinants of what creates a willingness to pay a *higher* price over any particular price. Willingness to pay may not necessarily lead to premium prices over competitors in the marketplace. However, willingness to pay a higher price (WTPHP) over competitors is a stated intention which has clear implications for obtaining a premium price in the marketplace. WTPHP as a stated intent shows a preference for a brand or store over competitors; it is not the same thing as willingness to pay which is usually measured in dollars (e.g. Argo, Dahl, and Morales, 2006) without entailing any comparisons with competition. Also, willingness to pay has sometimes been taken to be synonymous with the notion of perceived value (Bolton and Lemon, 1999; Winer, 2005). On the other hand, according to Monroe (2003), willingness to pay a higher price (WTPHP) than any particular price represents the surplus that arises from perceived value which itself is derived from notions of perceived quality and actual price paid. Thus, when perceived quality is considered to be greater than the actual price paid, a surplus (perceived value) is generated in the consumer's mind and results in WTPHP as long as the surplus exists.

We formulate that the construct of trust explains why one is willing to pay a premium price, as well as why one would take the risk of paying more for something that reduces one's monetary gain in a purchase situation. Recent research has shown trust's impact on a number of key marketing outcomes (Norberg, Maehle, and Korneliussen, 2011; Orth, Bouzdine-Chameeva, and Brand, 2013). In the present research, we surmise that the value which customers perceive from the retailer's balanced price-quality offerings will lead to greater trust

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for the retailer. As a result of the ensuing confidence in the retailer, the customer will pay what the retailer suggests, even if it is at a higher price point. To our knowledge, no other study has examined the role of trust as a mediator in the relationship of consumers' perceptions of merchandise value in a store and consumers' willingness to pay higher prices at one store over other stores. Thus, trust needs to be seriously studied and understood in the context of retailing.

We propose, first, that value that is considered to be a good deal (consistent in terms of quality and price) leads to WTPHP indirectly via perceived trust; in other words, good value leads to trust and people are willing to pay more to a trusted provider i.e., the effect of perceived merchandise value on WTPHP is mediated by trust. Second, that the effect of perceived merchandise value on perceived store differentiation is mediated by positive store affect and, third, that perceived store differentiation, in turn, mediates the effect of positive store affect on WTPHP. Additionally, our model takes into account prior work on the relationship between value and customer satisfaction. However, we expect that satisfaction will not mediate the value-WTPHP relationship.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The marketing literature has viewed perceived value as a function of both quality and price (Dodds, Monroe, and Grewal, 1991; Johnson, Herrmann, and Huber, 2006; Lichtenstein, Netemeyer, and Burton, 1990; Zeithaml, 1988). Thus, value is based on the extent of the "deal" that the consumer is getting (Thaler, 1985). While such a deal may constitute various configurations of quality and price, high quality and low price are two basic value strategies that firms employ (Grewal, Monroe, and Krishnan, 1998). Further, Zeithaml (1988) defines perceived value as "the consumer's overall assessment of the utility of a product based on perceptions of what is received and what is given" (p. 14). This is a "give-get" conceptualization of perceived value that incorporates all the benefits and costs of obtaining a product into a ratio of what may be described as overall quality and overall sacrifice (see also Gale, 1994). Related to this definition is that of Dodds, Monroe, and Grewal (1991) and Suri and Monroe (2003) – "a cognitive tradeoff between perceived quality and sacrifice" (p. 316).

In sum, the literature on perceived value has usually viewed perceived value as the fairness of the "deal" i.e. good value is achieved when there is a suitable match between quality and price. Accordingly, we define the perceived merchandise value of a store (PMV) as the consumer's perception of the fairness of a store's merchandise arising out of the consistency between its prices and merchandise quality. This is in keeping with the "give up – get back" notion of perceived value in the marketing literature (Johnson, Herrmann, and Huber, 2006; Zeithaml, 1988) while also akin to the concept of payment equity or "fairness" described by Bolton and Lemon (1999).

Our first hypothesis (H1 below) is based on the existing literature in marketing. We define trust as a willingness to rely on the exchange partner (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001; Moorman, Deshpandé, and Zaltman, 1993). Since our definition of perceived merchandise value deals with fairness and consistency, we predict that it leads to store trust since fairness and trust have been associated together and fairness has been found to lead to trust (Ramaswami and Singh, 2003; Wech, 2002; Korsgaard, Schweiger, and Sapienza, 1995). Further, there is a concern in the literature that trust may sometimes be a negative force in exchange relationships (Athuane-Gima, 2005). For instance, in the context of retailing, consumers' willingness to rely on a store (store trust) could well produce consumer inefficiencies such as contributing to a willingness to pay higher prices at that store over other stores. In fact, previous research supports the notion that trust leads to higher price tolerance (Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman, 2001).

Thus, we posit that trust will mediate the direct relationship of perceived merchandise value and WTPHP. This is not an obvious conclusion since the economics literature would lead us to believe that a direct relationship between perceived value and WTPHP is sacrosanct. For instance, Tellis and Gaeth (1990) propose that this direct route is the economic or "best value" alternative. This is also in keeping with classical economics theory on marginal utility which proposes that consumers, under uncertainty, will select a consumption bundle that maximizes their expected utility or well-being, subject to budgetary constraints (Baumol, 1977).

We chose trust as the appropriate evaluation (instead of satisfaction, etc.), because merchandise value is concerned with the fairness of quality and price, and trust is the normal outcome from perceptions of fairness as described above. However, in this study we also test (reported later in the Results section) if satisfaction mediates the effect of perceived value on WTPHP. We expect that greater perceived value will indeed lead to greater satisfaction but that satisfaction will not lead to a willingness to pay a higher price. This is because satisfaction, unlike trust, is not necessarily indicative of a willingness to sacrifice resources (i.e., WTPHP) to maintain a valued relationship. Trust indicates an alignment of mutually beneficial goals, and it is a stronger motivational state than satisfaction (Johnson and Selnes, 2004). Further, previous research has shown that although satisfaction is directly related to purchase intent (Bolton, 1998), it may not be directly related to willingness to pay a higher price and in fact may be routed through trust and other relational constructs (Chaudhuri and Ray, 2003). Satisfaction may be considered to be a lower order relational construct as compared to trust (Johnson and Selnes, 2004). Thus:

H_1: Store trust will mediate the effect of perceived merchandize value on WTPHP.

In the present study, we use a theoretical framework based on Mandler's (1982) theory of value from social psychology. According to Mandler, stimuli that are congruous with our expectations are positively evaluated but do not result in intense affect. Thus, when expectations are fulfilled (as when there is perceived value in the form of consistency and fairness between high quality and *high* price) the outcome is congruent with expectations and there is positive evaluation (trust, in our case) but low levels of affect. On the other hand, stimuli that are somewhat incongruous are stronger in affect intensity. When expectations are positively or negatively disconfirmed, the result is high levels of affect and positive or negative evaluation. Therefore, consumers who encounter the unexpected should feel more affect than those who get what they expect.

According to Wood and Moreau (2006) as well, disconfirmation of expectations leads to emotion (or specific affects in our case) and subsequent positive evaluation (positive store differentiation in our case). Whereas Wood and Moreau (2006) use the term emotion to refer to global feelings that are either positively or negatively valenced, we use the term affect to refer to a specific and qualitatively different feeling such as happiness or joy. When, for instance, consumers encounter perceived value in the form of an inconsistency such as high quality and a *low* price, they will still consider it good perceived value ("*very* fair"). The difference is that this instance will lead to affect (a specific feeling of happiness) whereas, in contrast, the scenario of good perceived value in terms of high quality and high price will lead to trust (a willingness to rely) and a willingness to sacrifice resources (WTPHP) to maintain a trusted relationship. This view is also informed by the recent literature on dual-process theory effects (Badrinarayanan, Sierra, and Taute, 2014; Taute, Peterson, and Sierra, 2014), which enumerate the differential and collaborative effects of emotional and cognitive factors on brand outcomes.

Perceived store differentiation is the consumer's evaluation of the level of interestingness of a store based on how it differs from other stores. It is the customer's realization that the value proposition of a store is unique. However, according to Mandler (1982), something does not have to be interesting in order for it to be valuable. For instance, merchandise quality's consistency with its price could be valuable but not particularly interesting because it is expected and, thus, not different. As a result, one's perception of store differentiation could come from something other than merchandise value. For example, perceived store differentiation could be the result of factors such as store atmosphere, advertising, etc. At the same time, Mandler (1982) indicates that something of value *could* raise the level of interest in the object if it is associated with positive affect. Thus, what makes something valuable into something interesting is the level of affect associated with it. Hence,

H_2: Store affect will mediate the effect of perceived merchandise value on perceived store differentiation.

In contrast to perceived value being epitomized as some ratio of price to quality, Holbrook (1999) defines value as the relationship (affective or otherwise) of a particular consumer to a particular object (brand, store) in a particular context or situation that is *relative* to other situations or contexts. Thus, affect alone, in most cases, is not a sufficient condition for a willingness to sacrifice resources and pay a higher price (WTPHP) since this would, in fact, reduce the nature of the deal and the ensuing affect. However, if the affect leads to a favorable evaluation of the store's level of positive differentiation *relative* to other stores, then that level of uniqueness could inspire a desire to maintain an important and irreplaceable relationship by sacrificing resources.

According to Mandler (1975) as well, something is interesting because it is different from others but what makes something interesting into something good, worthy and "valuable" (worthy of a higher price, as different from "merchandise value") is the set of positive affective sensations generated by a person or object. Thus, affect, in concert with interestingness, gets higher prices by producing a willingness to sacrifice resources to obtain something that is worthy of a higher price than paid for at other stores.

H_3: Perceived store differentiation will mediate the effect of store affect on WTPHP.

Control Variable

Consumers may be willing to pay a higher price for stores that are perceived to be more accessible to them (as opposed to stores that are perceived to be less accessible) since such stores will save time and reduce the costs of search. For instance, it has been shown that consumers' cognitive maps of retail locations correlate with preference and behavior (MacKay and Olshavsky, 1975). Accordingly we include the construct of perceived accessibility in the model as an exogenous control variable that affects WTPHP. The retail literature discusses different types of convenience (Berry, Seiders, and Grewal, 2002; Seiders, Voss, Grewal, and Godfrey, 2005), but for the sake of parsimony in model specification we focus on only one type of convenience - perceived accessibility of the store defined as the consumer's subjective perception of the locational convenience of the store and its perceived ease of use. A perception of easy accessibility may lead to "one-stop" shopping and a willingness to pay a higher price for that privilege. However, this relationship, if any, is not of theoretical interest to our study and, accordingly, we present no hypotheses for this effect.

STUDY ONE

Method

We chose grocery stores as the retail context in which to collect customer data. We felt that the large product assortments, combined with a variety of prices (both within and across product categories) available in such stores would provide ample opportunities to measure the various model constructs, but especially customers' perceived merchandise value and their willingness to pay higher prices. We collected data from two different establishments in the northeastern U.S.A.

Store A, a "traditional" grocery store, is part of a regional chain that offers perishable and nonperishable food items, household cleaners, personal health and hygiene products, as well as a full selection of meat and dairy products and baked goods. This retailer follows traditional grocery store merchandising and layout patterns, namely long aisles filled with a variety of brand-name products. In contrast to the more traditional fare offered in Store A, Store B can best be classified as a "specialty" grocer, because it stocks limited amounts of higher priced items that customers often perceive as being of a higher quality. It is not uncommon for the merchandise in Store B to be labeled as "organic" or "all-natural," or for these items to be imported from an exotic locale. Since this store has only one location in the area, it relies on its reputation for providing high quality and unique items to generate demand in the market.

Measures

We further developed and/or modified measures for our constructs of interest largely from items utilized in prior marketing research studies. Table 1 identifies these constructs with their corresponding item measures. We used a three-item measure developed by Dodds et al. (1991) to capture the PMV construct (a= .89). For WTPHP, we adapted measures from Chaudhuri and Holbrook's (2001) work on brand loyalty (r= .80). We took the perspective that trust also constitutes confidence in something (Crosby, Evans, and Cowles, 1990; Garbarino and Johnson, 1999) and then developed items to measure both facets of the construct (r= .83). For satisfaction, we adapted measures from Oliver's (1997) consumption satisfaction index (a= .87). We used Richin's (1997) "consumption emotions set" to develop items for the store affect construct (a= .87), and we modified two measures of uniqueness employed by Netemeyer et al. (2004) in their work on brand equity and added a third measure, focusing specifically on the store providing unique "benefits" to capture perceived store differentiation (a= .80). Finally, with regard to perceived accessibility, we adapted items from the "access convenience" construct found in Seiders et al. (2005) research on customer satisfaction in retail settings (r= .85). All items for each construct were measured on 7-point scales, where 1= "completely disagree" and 7= "completely agree."

Procedure and Sample Characteristics

We obtained permission from each store's owner to allow a research assistant, trained in administering questionnaires, to remain in the store's parking lot and to approach customers as they left the store and headed to their cars. Two assistants facilitated the data collection; however, only one assistant was ever on site at each store at any given time. After identifying himself and determining whether the customer would be interested in participating, the assistant administered a brief (5-7 minute) questionnaire. Willing respondents were handed a card containing a 7-point scale, which they referred to as the assistant read each question and noted their responses. The research assistant did repeat questions when necessary; however, he was instructed not to provide personal opinions to customers who were unsure of how to interpret a particular question. After the respondent answered all the questions, the assistant thanked him/her for his/her time and moved on to the next customer. To mitigate common method bias (as well as monotony for the research assistant), the survey questions were asked in reserve order each time the assistant engaged a new respondent. To further diagnose CMV, we used a procedure on the resultant dataset involving chi-square difference tests (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee and Podsakoff, 2003). Under this procedure, if method variance exists, "simpler" models should fit the data as well as more complex ones (Iverson and Maguire, 2000; Korsgaard and Roberson, 1995; Mossholder, Bennett, Kemery and Wesolowski, 1998). The results show that model fit increases significantly with complexity- i.e., the addition of more constructs. Although this procedure does not eliminate CMV, it shows that inter-item correlations are not the result of method bias exclusively.

In order to collect a total of 300 completed questionnaires from both of the locations (150 each), the research assistants approached a total of 1986 customers, for a response rate of 30.2 percent. Given the need for a sizable number of responses from both locations, coupled with the irregular nature of customers exiting these retail establishments, convenience sampling was employed.

To insure that a difference exists between Stores A and B with regard to retail price, we identified ten items (a variety of both fresh and packaged goods, as well as some brand name items) and noted their retail prices at both stores. We then analyzed the data using a K-means cluster analysis in SPSS. The results show that Store B, the grocer with "exotic" fare has higher retail prices than Store A, the traditional chain grocer.

Regarding gender, more women than men participated, with the specific percentages by store as follows: Store A- 72 percent female, Store B- 67 percent female. With regard to respondents' ages, the majority of respondents were between 36-45 years of age in Store A (39 percent). In Store B, the majority of

TABLE 1:
Studies 1 and 2: Measurement Results

Constructs	Items	Lambda Loadings		Composite Reliability		Measure of Association	
		Study 1	Study 2	Study 1	Study 2	Study 1	Study 2
Perceived Merchandise Value				.90	.84	.89	.84
	Overall, the merchandise in this store is at a fair price.	.88	.79				
	The merchandise in this store is a good value.	.89	.80				
	The merchandise in this store is economical.	.82	.81				
Trust				.81	.82	.83	.81
	I trust this store.	.81	.82				
	I have faith in this store.	.83	.84				
Satisfaction				.83	.85	.87	.85
	I am satisfied with my decision to shop at this store.	.76	.77				
	My choice to shop at this store is a wise one.	.78	.85				
	I am sure it was the right thing to shop at this store.	.81	.81				
Store Affect				.84	.90	.87	.90
	I feel good when I shop at this store.	.83	.87				
	I enjoy my visits to this store.	.83	.88				
	This store puts me in a good mood.	.75	.85				
Perceived Store Differentiation				.76	.80	.80	.80
	This store is different from other stores in a positive way.	.75	.79				
	This store is unique in a good way.	.72	.80				
	This store offers a benefit that no other store offers.	.67	.69				
Willingness to Pay Higher Price				.75	.87	.80	.87
	I would be willing to pay a higher price at this store over other similar stores.	.75	.87				
	I prefer to shop at this store, even if another store advertises a lower price.	.81	.88				
Perceived Accessibility				.84	.88	.85	.88
	This store is conveniently located.	.77	.82				
	This store is accessible.	.92	.95				

Notes: We measured all items on 7-point scales, where 1= *completely disagree* and 7= *completely agree*. We report Cronbach alpha for Perceived Merchandise Value, Satisfaction, Store Affect and Perceived Uniqueness. We report the Pearson correlation coefficient for Willingness to Pay Higher Price, Trust and Perceived Accessibility.

respondents were in the "55 and up" category (50 percent).

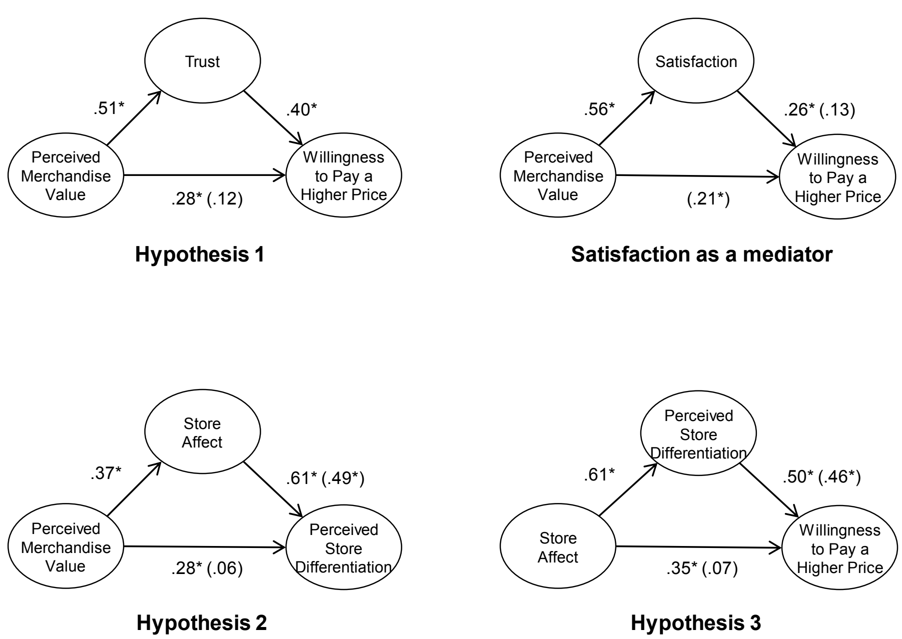
Results

We conducted formal tests of mediation to test H_1 – H_3 using regression analysis as per the four steps recommended by Baron and Kenny (1986). We controlled for perceived accessibility in all four steps by including it in all the regression estimates. Figure 1 provides a summary of the regression results for all three hypotheses of interest, as well as the test of satisfaction as a mediator in the PMV-WTPHP relationship.

For H_1, we found in the first step that the effect of perceived value on WTPHP was positive and significant (β= .284; p<.01). In the second step, we found that the effect of PMV on trust (mediator) was positive and significant (β= .511; p<.01). In the third step, we found that the effect of trust (mediator) on WTPHP was positive and significant (β= .395; p<.01). In the fourth step, we once again examined the effect of PMV on WTPHP, but this time we introduced trust into the equation as well. We found that when trust was in the equation, the effect of PMV on WTPHP diminished (β=.117; p>.05) and became non-significant. *Thus, H_1 was fully supported in this analysis.* Forty five percent of the variance in WTPHP was explained by PMV, store trust and accessibility.

We also tested satisfaction to see if it was a better mediator of WTPHP than trust. When we regressed WTPHP on satisfaction we found that satisfaction (mediator) was significantly related

FIGURE 1:
Study 1: H_1-H_3 Results



The figures above present the stepwise regression results, per Baron and Kenny (1986), for each hypothesis in Study 1 (as well as for the satisfaction construct).
The coefficients in parentheses are obtained when the independent variable and the mediator are regressed simultaneously on the dependent measure.
*p<.01.

to WTPHP (β= .261; p<.01). We also found that perceived value was significantly related to satisfaction (β= .557; p<.01). However, when both PMV and satisfaction were in the model with WTPHP as the dependent variable, only the effect of PMV was significant (β= .211; p<.01). The effect of satisfaction reduced in size and became non-significant (β= .132; p.>05). *Thus, satisfaction did not mediate the effect of PMV on WTPHP.* Further, we tested the effect of quadratic and cubic forms of satisfaction and found no evidence that any of these forms mediated the effect of PMV on WTPHP.

For H_2, we found in the first step that the effect of PMV on perceived store differentiation was positive and significant (β= .279; p<.01). In the second step, we found that the effect of PMV on store affect (mediator) was positive and significant (β= .368; p<.01). In the third step, we found that the effect of store affect (mediator) on perceived store differentiation was positive and significant (β= .611; p<.01). In the fourth step, we once again examined the effect of PMV on perceived store differentiation but this time we introduced store affect into the equation as well. We found that when store affect was in the equation, the effect of PMV on perceived store differentiation substantially diminished (β= .064; p>.05) and became non-significant. However, the effect of store affect on perceived store differentiation remained strong and significant (β=.485; p<.01). *Thus, H_2 was fully supported in this analysis.* Sixty four percent of the variance in perceived store differentiation was explained by accessibility, PMV and store affect.

For H_3, we found in the first step that the effect of store affect on WTPHP was positive and significant (β= .354; p<.01). In the second step, we found that the effect of store affect on perceived store differentiation (mediator) was positive and significant (β= .611; p<.01). In the third step, we found that the effect of perceived store differentiation (mediator) on WTPHP was positive and significant (β= .50; p<.01). In the fourth step, we once again examined the effect of store affect on WTPHP but this time we introduced perceived store differentiation into the equation as well. We found that when perceived store differentiation was in the equation, the effect of store affect on WTPHP substantially diminished (β=.074; p>.05) and became non-significant. However, the effect of perceived store differentiation on WTPHP remained strong and significant (β= .459; p<.01). *Thus, H_3 was fully supported in this analysis*. Fifty five percent of the variance in WTPHP was explained by accessibility, store affect and perceived store differentiation.

Discussion

Results from Study 1 of formal tests of mediation provide support for all three hypotheses. To summarize, we found that the effect of perceived merchandise value on willingness to pay a higher price was completely mediated by trust but *not* by satisfaction. The lack of evidence for satisfaction as a mediator of perceived merchandise value is important not only because it shows that trust and satisfaction are separate constructs but also because this highlights the importance of understanding the role of store trust in a retail context.

In addition to store trust, we postulated that the relationship of perceived merchandise value on willingness to pay a higher price is also mediated by the constructs of both store affect and store differentiation. As expected, we found that the effect of perceived merchandise value on store differentiation was fully mediated by store affect and that store differentiation, in turn, fully mediated the effect of store affect on consumers' willingness to pay higher prices at certain stores over others. Finally, we found that perceived accessibility (control variable) was not significant in any of the regressions. In this dataset, one's accessibility to a retail establishment did not influence whether one would pay a higher price. Overall, Study 1 provides a clear understanding of the forces at work in creating premium prices, at least in retailing if not in other marketing areas. We provide managerial implications of these results in the general discussion.

STUDY TWO

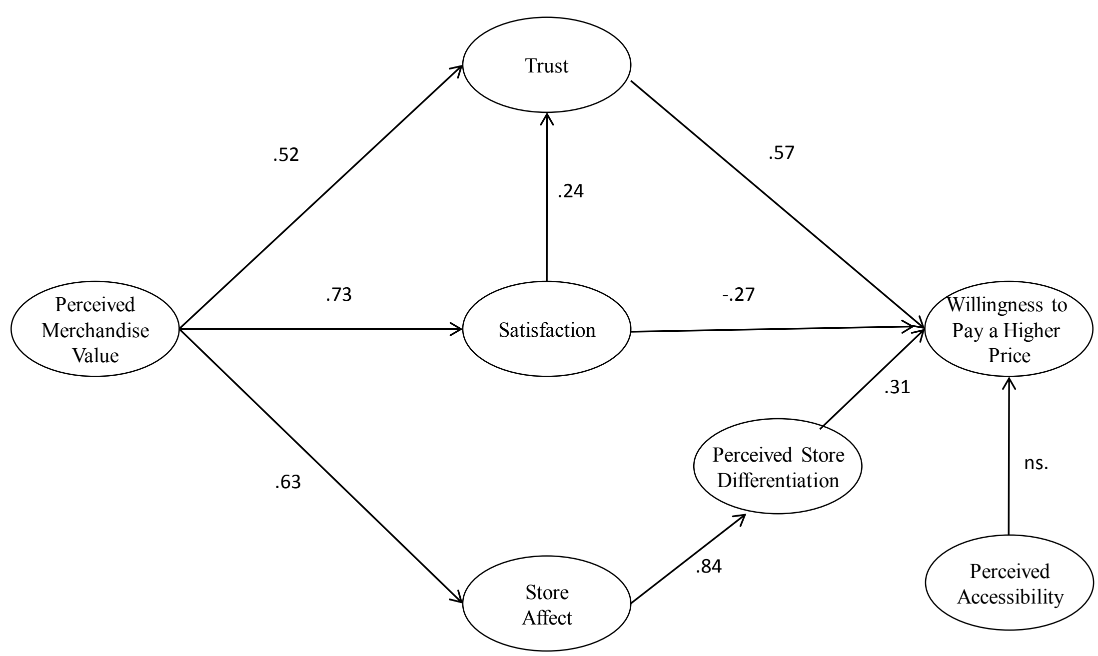
The purpose of Study 2 is to reaffirm the findings in Study 1, namely that trust, store affect and perceived store differentiation mediate the PMV-WTPHP relationship while satisfaction does not. However, unlike in

Study 1 where regression analysis is utilized to determine mediation in a step-wise manner, in Study 2 we test the influence of all the variables of interest simultaneously in a structural model (Fornell, 1984). Further, we analyze data collected from two additional grocery stores (again differing in price) to see whether we can replicate the findings from Study 1. Figure 2 presents the model that was tested in Study 2, as well as the resultant coefficients for all the pathways, hypothesized or not, constituting the PMV-WTPHP relationship.

Method

As in Study 1, the data for Study 2 come from shoppers of two different grocery store establishments. Attention was again paid to identifying two stores that had noticeable differences with regard to merchandise. The two stores which were chosen are different from one another, based on both the quality and retail pricing of the items. Store C is a local chain that carries a number of perishable and nonperishable items, as well as a limited number of household, health and personal hygiene products. What differentiates this store from most traditional chain grocery stores is Store C's emphasis on fresh meat and dairy offerings. In contrast to this store, Store D is considered a specialty grocer. A number of upscale or gourmet brands are present in Store D, resulting in higher retail price points than those found in Store C. We again employed K-

FIGURE 2:
Study 2: Mediating Paths in the PMV-WTPHP Relationship



means cluster analysis (as detailed in Study 1) to show that price differences exist between Stores C and D. The prices for the specialty grocer (Store D) were higher than for the local chain store (Store C).

We used the same measures in Study 2 as in Study 1. Table 1 identifies the various items used to measure each construct of interest in the proposed model.

Procedure

Once both Store C and D provided permission, we assigned a research assistant to each location. Once again, the assistant's job was to approach customers one at a time as they left the store and ask for permission to administer a brief questionnaire (5 to 7 minutes). Customers who were willing to respond received a card with a 7-point scale, which they referred to as the assistant read each question and noted their responses. Although the assistants were instructed not to provide personal opinions, they did repeat questions when necessary in an attempt to minimize the omission of data (Webster, 1997). After the respondent answered all the questions, the assistant thanked him/her for his/her time and moved on to the next customer. The research assistants returned to the establishments over the course of several weeks until each one amassed 150 completed questionnaires.

Regarding gender, more women than men responded: Store C- 75% female, Store D- 81% female. With regard to respondents' ages, the majority of respondents were between 36-45 years of age in Store C (39%), whereas in Store D the majority of respondents were in the "55 and up" category (50%).

Measurement Model

The measurement model shows that although the Chi-square is significant ($\chi^2_{(114)}$ = 551.42), the various fit indices suggest that the model fits the data (RMSEA= .08, NFI= .97, NNFI= .97, CFI= .98, IFI= .98). With regard to item reliability, Table 1 identifies the composite reliabilities and appropriate measure of association (Cronbach alpha or Pearson correlation coefficient) for each construct. The lambda loadings (all significant at $p \leq .05$) show that the indicators load higher than .60 on their respective constructs, thus demonstrating convergent validity. The correlations for the model constructs are provided in Table 2.

We used a method recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) to determine discriminant validity. One-by-one, we constrained the correlation between each pair of constructs so that it equaled one. Discriminant validity was achieved by a statistically significant chi-square difference between the single factor and the two factor model (10 tests performed). For example, the chi-square difference of 199.78 (1) between PMV and trust as a two-factor versus a one-factor model is statistically significant at $p \leq .05$, thus we are able to discriminate between both constructs. With regard to common method variance, as was the case in Study 1, we employed two versions of the questionnaire (with reverse-ordering of questions). In addition, we again utilized the Podsakoff et al. (2003) procedure of comparing "simpler" versus more complex measurement models, to show that any inter-item correlations are not the result of method bias exclusively.

Structural Model

The data support the proposed model (Figure 2). Although the chi-square is significant ($\chi^2_{(123)}$ = 774.47; p= 0.0), the indices do support a structural model of mediocre fit: RMSEA= .09, NFI= .96, NNFI= .95, CFI= .96, IFI= .96 (MacCallum, Browne, and Sugawara, 1996). Further, these data do confirm the existence of our various proposed paths to willingness to pay a higher price. As discussed in Study 1, with regard to the mediating role of trust, the path from PMV to trust is significant and positive (γ = .52), as is the path from trust to WTPHP (β= .57). In contrast, when considering satisfaction as a mediator, although the path from PMV to satisfaction is significant and positive (γ = .73), the satisfaction to WTPHP path is negative (β= -.27). Satisfaction does however have a significant and positive effect on trust (β= .24). Finally, concerning the indirect path through both store affect and perceived store differentiation, the path from PMV to affect is significant and positive (γ = .63), as are the paths from store affect to perceived store differentiation (β= .84) and perceived store differentiation to WTPHP

TABLE 2:
Construct Correlations

Study 1

	PMV	Trust	Satisfac-tion	WTPHP	Accessi-bility	Affect	Differentia-tion
PMV	1.00						
Trust	.520**	1.00					
Satisfaction	.615**	.702**	1.00				
WTPHP	.332**	.346**	.326**	1.00			
Accessibility	.244**	.382**	.374**	.265**	1.00		
Affect	.402**	.712**	.680**	.352**	.463	1.00	
Differentiation	.333**	.584**	.795	.533**	.319	.567**	1.00

**correlation significant at the .01 level (2 tailed)

Study 2

	PMV	Trust	Satisfac-tion	WTPHP	Accessi-bility	Affect	Differentia-tion
PMV	1.00						
Trust	.526**	1.00					
Satisfaction	.616**	.512**	1.00				
WTPHP	.495**	.497**	.296**	1.00			
Accessibility	.345**	.377**	.413**	.293**	1.00		
Affect	.496**	.667**	.660**	.507**	.406**	1.00	
Differentiation	.556**	.497**	.718**	.443**	.394**	.678**	1.00

**correlation significant at the .01 level (2 tailed)

(β= .31). Finally, there is no significant effect of perceived accessibility (control) on WTPHP.

Discussion

The results of Study 2 confirm the results from Study 1. In Study 1, we looked at each hypothesis (H_1, H_2, H_3) individually, considering only the constructs of interest to each hypothesis. In Study 2, we considered all the constructs from all three hypotheses in a single model and tested this model. This allowed us to account for relationships between constructs (say affect and trust) that we had not been able to do in Study 1. In Study 1, our intent had been to conduct strong tests of mediation using only the steps described by Baron and Kenny (1986).

Once again, we found that the positive effect of perceived merchandise value on willingness to pay a higher price is mediated through trust but not through satisfaction. In this regard, note that Study 2 allows us to understand that there is a significant relationship between satisfaction and trust in spite of the different effects these constructs have on willingness to pay a higher price. Thus, although trust and satisfaction are related, trust is different from satisfaction since there is some unique variance in trust (not accounted for by satisfaction) which is positively related to willingness to pay a higher price. Interestingly, satisfaction was negatively related to willingness to pay a higher price. This is important to note since satisfaction is often promoted as the ultimate customer-based outcome. In conjunction with the results from Study 1, we suggest that trust acts as a suppressor variable on the effects of satisfaction on WTPHP (Cohen and Cohen, 1983). When trust is in the model, it so strongly neutralizes the effect of satisfaction on WTPHP that satisfaction has an opposite effect on WTPHP. Our results suggest that trust, not satisfaction, should be the retailer's objective when the goal is to obtain willingness to pay a higher price.

Similarly, in Study 2 affect was related to perceived store differentiation and perceived store differentiation, in turn, was related to willingness to pay a higher price. Thus, Study 2 further contributes by showing the indirect effects of satisfaction and affect on willingness to pay a higher price, routed through trust and perceived store differentiation, respectively.

General Discussion and Managerial Implications

Our results suggest that, as competition heightens among retailers, store managers may seek to differentiate the value of their stores with strategies that create *trusted* perceptions of the quality and price in their merchandise. Such perceptions favor charging premium prices. Our findings suggest that it is not enough to simply create perceptions of value. Managers must also ensure that consumers have trust and faith in the store to augment such perceptions and strengthen the consumer's readiness to pay a higher price at the store. It is one thing to provide price-quality information to consumers and it is quite another to have them believe it. Consumers should *believe* that their value perceptions are well founded since the store is trustworthy and can be relied upon to deliver the quality levels that it promises with its prices.

Previous research has shown that consumers are prone to associate high prices with high quality and low prices with low quality *when no other information is available to them* (Assael, 2004). Thus, consumers use price as critical information in the absence of any other information on merchandise quality. However, consumers may not have sufficient confidence to fully rely and act on their own perceptions of quality and price (i.e. merchandise value) unless managers provide additional information that such perceptions are justified and should be relied upon when paying higher prices at a particular store. In other words, trust in a store is additional information to the consumer that provides greater credibility to his/her price-quality perceptions about a particular store. For instance, low price perceptions may contradict high quality perceptions *unless* these are augmented by reasons *why* a store can provide such good quality at reasonable prices. Such information would create consumer trust in a store and a willingness to rely on consumers' own price-quality perceptions leading to a propensity to pay a higher price at a trusted store. Both high and low price levels in store merchandise can benefit from additional store information on the credibility of a store's offerings.

A number of actions can be taken by the retailer to augment one's trust for the establishment. Awards (J.D. Powers), accolades ("Retailer of the Year") and rankings (via *Consumer Reports*) that are touted by both low- and high-priced retailers can foster trust, to the point where the consumer will accept the retail price. Essentially, the consumer's price not only covers the cost of the offering but also the benefits from the attributed accolade or award. For example, Nordstrom's higher prices are justified because the customer knows that he/she is receiving highly touted and awarded customer service.

Using "high profile" public figures or celebrities can also garner consumer trust. Notable personalities who have accomplished certain feats (in industry, athletics, etc.) and are associated with retail establishments often serve as "trustworthy" figures for consumers when they are considering an establishment. Certain product/service categories do very well in their efforts of gaining consumer trust via connecting with a public figure. Weight loss services (e.g., Weight Watchers, Jenny Craig) often use highly-appealing celebrity spokespersons who use the product/service. These programs typically include special diet regimens and menus, as well as food items to purchase (often at higher prices than what would be found in grocery stores), yet the customers do not question such purchases.

Similarly, the way in which a retailer constructs and utilizes its brand can create information that the consumer trusts. The higher-priced grocers in our studies use the words "wild" and "whole" in their brand names, thus signaling natural ingredients and healthy food alternatives. When shoppers see these names, they believe that the grocery stores will carry healthy options. Outerwear stores such as Denali that carry high-priced North Face apparel use their names to signal certain quality features to the consumer, which in turn triggers his/her trust. Thus, once in the store, the consumer is willing to accept the higher retail prices for jackets, vests and other outerwear accessories. On the other end of the spectrum, when one enters a Dollar Store, he/she expects to find extremely low prices for a wide range of items. Even if some items retail for more than one dollar, the customer accepts the price because the name of the store signals that one is still getting a great deal for what she/he is paying for the item.

Our results also suggest that managers can choose to create either store trust or store affect and store differentiation, all of which are different constructs and suggest alternative approaches to retail practice. If trustworthy information from neutral sources is scarce, managers can, instead, create affective responses to the store based on emotional strategies like unexpected in-store service, surprising in-store entertainment, sudden "blue light" specials, whether in-store or online, and so forth. As an example, consider the number of fitness chains that exist in a given town/area. Although some compete on price differences (e.g., "Only $10.00 a month to be a member!"), many turn to emotional cues in order to differentiate themselves from the competitors. Given that physical fitness and body image are highly personal issues, some fitness shops tout the "no judgment zone" or "workout with real people" philosophies, to elicit a positive response from the customer. When an individual arrives at the facility, the atmosphere is set up to differentiate the establishment from other "mainstream" gyms. Examples include having play areas for people with children, providing one-on-one "coaches" who will tailor a workout regimen based specifically on one's current physical condition and desired end-state, juice bars/areas where one can socialize with others and feel welcomed as opposed to judged. It is likely that these added services will increase the cost; however, the clients do not question this as they feel better in these establishments and perceive them to be different, in a good way, from other workout places.

According to Mandler (1975) and others, unexpectedness is the key to producing affect and resulting interest in the store. Thus, in addition to trust, if managers can get consumers to "feel good" at the store, this creates a positive and "unique" image of the store leading to premium prices. Our results show that, when perceived value is augmented by such positive differentiation and positive affective reactions to the store, perceived value of the store's merchandise is related to a willingness to sacrifice resources in order to maintain a valued relationship. Once again, our model has diagnostic appeal to managers since it suggests managerial actions which may convert price-quality merchandise attributes into higher prices via certain mechanisms. Understanding these mechanisms or *why* there is a relationship between perceptions of value and willingness to pay paves the way for alternative, perhaps more efficient, methods to achieve the goal of obtaining higher prices in the marketplace. This becomes all the more important, in today's context in which stores are finding that profits and higher prices are not forthcoming in spite of so many "deals" and other price-oriented promotions being provided to consumers (Clifford and Rampell, 2013).

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Although we carefully controlled for price differences among our stores, it is interesting to see the age and gender outcomes from our resultant data. In both studies, the majority of shoppers in the lower-priced stores (Stores A and C) were in the mid-thirty to mid-forty age range, while those who shopped in the higher-priced grocers (Stores B and D) were primarily in the 55+ category. Given that this research centers on the constructs of trust and affect, both of which can be influenced by individual factors, future work should attempt to also control for age on these constructs of interest. For example, are trust and affect, at least for grocery stores, important to individuals in their twenties? Given the stereotypes associated with younger generations and the need for immediate gratification, would twenty-somethings be more/less/just as likely to pay higher prices? Do they establish trust or an emotional connection to their retailers, or is it more about the twenty-somethings having their needs met quickly and efficiently?

With regard to gender, although our data conform to the stereotype of women being the "shoppers," will the proposed hypotheses also be supported by males? Are trust, affect and/or even satisfaction significant mediators of the PMV-WTPHP relationship for men? If future work is undertaken to replicate our model, it would also be useful to identify purchase situations where men are the dominant shoppers.

In general, our model needs to be applied to other retail settings in order to see whether trust continues to mediate the PMV-WTPHP relationship. For some product/service categories it is unlikely that this will be the case. Even if the customer trusts the retailer/ firm, depending on the category it may not be possible to charge a price premium. For example, marketers have had an extremely difficult time convincing customers to pay more for "green" product/service alternatives; instead, customers question why the firm would offer anything other than sustainable options, at "regular" price levels (Unruh, 2011).

Focusing on retail communities is another logical next step for future research. Recent work suggests that the exchange process is not the only activity occurring between the customer and retailer. In actuality, a kind of community can form among the retailer and its various customers, in which socialization, mutual support, social control and social participation occur, and in fact positively influence the exchange process (Arnold, Briggs, Landry and Suter, 2013). One outcome that is partially supported by the research on retail communities pertains to the customer's willingness to pay more. Socialization and mutual support are positively related to one's willingness to pay more, however social control and social participation are not related. Trust should also be taken into account, as one can argue that each of the social constructs identified in the community model can be either enhanced or diminished based on customer trust toward the retail establishment. For example, it may be that social control was not positively related to willingness to pay more because customers did not trust in the retailer enough to believe in the retailer's established standards/ rules. As a hypothetical example, in the absence of trust, it may be difficult for customers to believe that a small, independently-run dairy farm strictly adheres to its blatantly-stated rule of not using growth hormones on animals, while it is also servicing a large number of customers. If the farm is not able to send signals of trust to its customers (e.g., medical/ scientific documentation stating the absence of chemicals in its livestock), the customers are much less likely to believe that the retailer is acting in their best interests.

To summarize, it is clear that trust needs to be seriously studied and understood in the context of retailing. For instance, management needs to know whether trust has multiple dimensions (benevolence, expertise, etc.) in retailing and which of these dimensions is most instrumental in obtaining higher prices from consumer perceptions of value in a store.

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CULTURE, DEVELOPMENT, AND ADVERTISING CONTENT: AN EXPLORATORY REPLICATION AND EXTENSION OF PAST INTERNATIONAL ADVERTISING RESEARCH TO OUTDOOR ADVERTISING

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Advertising practitioners and academics have long focused on adaptation of marketing communications when entering foreign markets. This paper extends and replicates past research on this topic by examining adaptation of outdoor advertising in response to cultural differences and level of country development. A content analysis of outdoor advertisements randomly sampled from a major city in 12 different countries was completed. The analysis focused on the number of information cues and types of cultural appeals. The results find that countries with lower levels of development have more information cues. The results for cultural appeals were not as clear. This may be due to the size of the sample, or related to simplicity and directness in outdoor advertising design.

INTRODUCTION

One of the core issues in international marketing is the degree of adaptation or standardization of marketing messages, including advertising (Baack & Singh, 2007; Khang, Han, Shin, Jung, & Kim, 2016). Past research has identified two main drivers of message adaptation – cultural differences and level of development (Abernethy & Franke, 1996; Baack & Singh, 2007). However, the determination that culture and development shapes message adaptation is based on decades of research focused almost exclusively on three forms of media: television, magazines, and, more recently, web content. These media can be information rich, which easily permit the incorporation of cultural information. Noticeably absent in adaptation and standardization discussions are other types of media, which, if included, would help researchers better understand the generalizability of the theory. This study focuses on one of these overlooked media, outdoor advertising (Khang, et al., 2016; Taylor, 2012, 2005).

Despite being one of the oldest forms of advertising, outdoor advertising remains an important part of modern-day advertising campaigns (Wilson & Till, 2012a). The medium is uniquely positioned to amplify mobile and online marketing efforts. It also serves as an excellent last-minute reminder for purchases made by consumers who are increasingly on the go. Within the United States, revenue for outdoor advertising has continued to grow for each of the past six years, and 2015 revenues for the category have topped $7.3 billion (OAAA, 2016). Across the world, outdoor advertising continues to grow as well, fueled in part by the industry's migration to digital formats (eMarketer, 2015).

Beyond its relevance as an important marketing medium, outdoor advertising is vastly different in its ability to convey information as compared to other media, which may affect its capacity to carry information and cultural cues. Unlike television and most online content, outdoor advertising relies almost exclusively on visual cues. It almost never has the opportunity to deliver audible information. In many ways, outdoor advertising is more similar to many of the static images associated with magazine advertising and banner ad content, which have been studied extensively in adaptation-standardization discussions. However, information processing is arguably different for outdoor advertising than it is for the magazine and banner advertisements. Consumers often only have a few seconds to notice and

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subsequently process information contained within outdoor advertising before the ad or the consumer disappears from sight (Wilson & Till, 2012a). As such, outdoor advertisements are designed to be simple and straightforward so message processing occurs quickly.

Based on the importance of outdoor advertising as a marketing communications vehicle, and its unique message processing differences, outdoor advertising represents a significant substantive gap within the advertising adaptation-standardization research stream. With outdoor advertising's need for simplicity and limited information, do the previously understood concepts associated with cross-cultural adaptation and standardization of advertising content hold for outdoor advertising as it does for television, print, and web content?

The exploration of boundary conditions, such as this, is an important means to test and move forward many advertising theories and is an important and under-utilized component of academic research (Ang, Lee, & Leong, 2007; Evanschitzky, Baumgarth, Hubbard, & Armstrong, 2007; Madden, Easley, & Dunn, 1995). In fact, there is a paucity of and a need for more replication and extension research (Hubbard & Armstrong, 1994; Kerr, Schultz, & Lings, 2016; Hunter, 2001) as many replications fail to support original findings, especially in the area of outdoor advertising where its consumption is very different than other media (e.g., Baack, Wilson, & Till, 2008; Wilson, Baack, & Till, 2015; Wilson & Till, 2011).

The core contribution of this study is the replication and extension of previous research on advertising content, culture, and level of development by testing the ability to generalize earlier research findings to outdoor advertisements. By extending previous research on international advertising adaptation and standardization into a different medium, this study meets the calls for more advertising replication research and improves our understanding of the boundary conditions of the theories explaining the internationalization of advertising content (Kerr, et al., 2016).

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Buzzell first discussed standardizing international marketing in 1968, and since this beginning, the choice between a standardized or adapted marketing mix has been one of the core debates in international marketing (Zou & Cavusgil, 2002). In brief, standardization is the use of the same marketing mix in all markets while adaptation is the customizing of the marketing mix to meet the needs and wants of each consumer (Jain, 1989). Broadly, standardization leads to reduced costs while adaptation leads to increased sales.

During the 1980s, the debate evolved from an "us vs. them" grouping to a more complex approach, and since then the concept of total standardization has become "unthinkable" (Jain, 1989). Instead, marketers balance degree of adaptation and degree of standardization in response to the unique local features of each market. By doing so, marketers are able to effectively meet the needs of local consumers while still saving costs through some level of global standardization (Harvey, 1993).

Information Content

Advertising researchers consistently find that international advertising varies in terms of information content. Analysis of the information level of advertising was first systematically undertaken in an investigation of the information content of television commercials (Resnik & Stern, 1977). As of 1996, the measure of information content introduced in this study had been used in almost 60 studies of advertising content (Abernethy & Frank, 1996). Additionally, Franke (1992) found it to be a generalizable measure, and it has been used to measure information content in television, print, and online advertising (e.g., Choi, Rifon, Trimble, & Reece, 2006). Abernethy and Franke's (1996) meta-analysis found that television contains fewer information cues than magazines, newspapers, and radio with outdoor advertising having significantly less than all others.

The first cross-cultural investigation of information content was the comparison of Australian and American television commercials in Dowling (1980), and since this initial study, researchers have looked at the information content of advertisements from Africa and the Middle East (magazine, Al-Olayan & Karande, 2000), Australia and Hong Kong (magazine, So, 2004), Belgium (magazine, de Pelsmacker & Geuens, 1997), China (magazine, Tse, Belk, & Zhou, 1989; television, Chan, 1995; Chan & Chan, 2005), Ecuador (television, Renforth & Raveed, 1983), Europe broadly (magazine, van Herpen, Pieters, Fidrmucova, & Roosenboom, 2000), France (magazine, Biswas, Olsen, & Carlet, 1992), Hong Kong (magazine, So, 2004), India (magazine, Rajaratnam, Hunt, & Madden, 1995; Srivastava & Schoenbachler, 1999) Japan (magazine, Madden, Caballero, & Matsukubo, 1986; television, Lin, 1993; online, Okazaki & Rivas, 2002), Korea (mobile, Choi, Hwang, & McMilllan, 2008), Mexico (magazine, Falk, Jones, Foster, & Rehman, 1999), South Korea (magazine, Moon & Franke, 1996; television, Taylor, Miracle, & Wilson, 1997), Saudi Arabia, (magazine, Noor Al-Deen, 1991), Sweden (television, Martenson, 1987), Turkey (magazine, Akan, 2007), and the United Kingdom (television, Nevett, 1992). The aforementioned studies indicate that there is a long tradition of research on the information content of international advertising.

Two theoretical explanations are given in the literature for these country-level information content differences: 1) level of development and 2) cultural differences. More specifically, past research has linked level of development between countries to the number of information cues used in an advertisement (Abernethy & Franke, 1996). In brief, the explanation for this relationship is that the higher levels of education and literacy in developed countries results in higher levels of information content (Abernethy & Franke, 1996; Noor Al-Deen, 1991). While a meta-analysis of the information content literature by Abernethy and Franke (1996) provided strong support for this relationship, other authors have found that countries with low levels of development actually have *more* informative advertisements. The explanation for this alternative view is that in developing countries many products are in the introductory stages of the product lifecycle and require detailed communication of its features and benefits to market the products effectively (Renforth & Raveed, 1983). Another study offered an additional explanation for the increased number of information cues in developing country advertising. Falk, et al. (1999) suggested that developing countries receive fewer mediated messages on a daily basis permitting advertisers to include more informative advertisements without the risk of message overload.

Culture, specifically the high or low context explanation rooted in the writing of Edward Hall (1976), is the second common explanation of information content differences. In brief, in high context cultures, message meaning is transmitted through both the message content and the message's corresponding context. In low context cultures, messages are more direct and explicit, with context playing a smaller communicative role (Biswas, et al., 1992). This results in differences in the amount of information in advertisements from countries from these two cultures.

While there is much research taking this perspective (e.g., Biswas, et al., 1992; Taylor, et al., 1997), the robust findings of Abernethy and Franke's (1996) meta-analysis provides strong evidence that economic development, not high or low context, causes differences in information levels between countries. Moreover, much of the research on information cues has focused on cross-cultural differences in the type of information cue used rather than the total number of cues (e.g., Madden, et al., 1986). While these country-by-country comparisons are useful, our study is instead concerned with the broader drivers of information differences. For this exploratory replication, the focus is not on a cue-by-cue comparison between the countries sampled. Instead, the focus is on the overall effect of economic development on the number of total information cues per outdoor advertisement.

Therefore, in the light of the above discussion, we test the following hypothesis:

H_1: The number of advertising information cues in outdoor advertisements is correlated positively with country developmental level.

Advertising Appeals

Cultural differences are an additional important driver of advertising adaptation. The importance of culture to international advertising has been discussed since Donnelly (1970), and Jain (1989) posits that as target markets become less culturally similar, messages to those markets need to be more adapted. This link between increased cultural variation and increased adaptation has been supported for a variety of components of the marketing mix, in a variety of settings (Theodosiou & Leonidou, 2003). Advertising research has specifically linked cultural differences, typically described in terms of Hofstede's (1980, 2001) cultural typology, to adaptation of advertising appeals for various media including television, print, and online advertising (Albers-Miller & Gelb, 1996; Al-Olayan & Karande, 2000; Cho, et al., 1999; Lin, 2001; Tse, et al., 1989). Overall, research is consistent in its claim, regardless of the advertising medium, that advertising appeals have been found to both influence and be influenced by cultural differences (Al-Olayan & Karande, 2000). This holds true even when the countries involved are fairly culturally similar, such as the cultural-rooted differences between British and American television advertising as found in Caillat and Mueller (1996).

To extend this finding into the under-research media of outdoor advertising, Albers-Miller and Gelb (1996) is used as the modeled study. Their work is theoretically rooted in the cultural model introduced in Hofstede (1980, 2001). This model consists of four dimensions on which cultures differ: Individualism (IDV), power distance (PDI), uncertainty avoidance (UAI) and masculinity (MAS). These dimensions are defined as follows (from Baack and Singh, 2007, pg. 183) "1) Individualism-Collectivism: explores individuals' relationships with society and the extent of societal-individual dependence; 2) Power Distance: explains the extent to which cultures accept social hierarchy and social inequalities; 3) Uncertainty Avoidance: measures cultures' tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity in daily life; and 4) Masculinity-Femininity: explores how gender roles are allocated in society." While there are other potential cultural frameworks that could be applied to this study's research questions, such as Schwartz (1994) or the GLOBE Project (House, Gupta, Dorfman, & Javidan, 2004), Hofstede (1980, 2001) is one of the, if not the most, commonly applied cultural frameworks for advertising adaptation studies (Baack & Singh, 2007). Therefore, for this particular replication, an application of Hofstede's (1980, 2001) framework is most appropriate.

Albers-Miller and Gelb (1996) used Pollay's (1983) advertising appeals as the basis for their measure of Hofstede's (1980) dimensions. Through extensive reviews of past advertising literature and values research from other disciplines, Pollay (1983) identified 42 advertising appeals commonly used in advertising. However, Albers-Miller and Gelb (1996) dropped 12 appeals from their study because of a lack of agreement about a hypothesized relationship with Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions or because the appeal did not appear to correlate with any dimension. This resulted in their study testing thirty separate hypotheses. Our replication uses the same measures, but for brevity's sake, we test five overall hypotheses. The hypotheses are based on both the findings of Albers-Miller and Gelb (1996) and the broad tradition of research finding that culture influences advertising as reviewed above:

H_2: Cultural values are reflected in outdoor advertisements.

H_{3a}: The relative frequency of advertising appeals reflecting high individualism is correlated positively with country scores on the individualism dimension.

H_{3b}: The relative frequency of advertising appeals reflecting high power distance is correlated positively with country scores on the power distance dimension.

H_{3c}: The relative frequency of advertising appeals reflecting high uncertainty avoidance is correlated positively with country scores on the uncertainty avoidance dimension.

H_{3d}: The relative frequency of advertising appeals reflecting high masculinity is correlated positively with country scores on the masculinity dimension.

METHODOLOGY

Sample

Outdoor advertisements were sampled from cities in 12 countries (Montreal, Canada; Beijing, China; Bogota, Colombia; Budapest, Hungary; Delhi, India; Oslo, Norway; Bratislava, Slovakia; Zurich, Switzerland; Taipei, Taiwan; Istanbul, Turkey; Providenciales, Turks and Caicos; and New York City, the United States). These countries represent a range of development, vary in terms of scores on Hofstede's dimensions (see Table 1 for a list of the scores), and represent Europe, Asia, and the Americas. Additionally, the sample meets the call from Abernethy and Franke (1996) for more international advertising research sampling Muslim countries and Eastern European transition economies.

Within each respective country, outdoor advertisements were sampled from the city that serves as the primary business or financial center for the country. To randomly sample outdoor advertisements, each city was divided into quarter-mile sectors. Using a random number generator in Excel, five sectors were selected for cataloging. Following Wilson and Till (2012b), outdoor advertising was defined as all above-ground, fixed outdoor advertising including billboards and pedestrian panels (i.e., posters placed on bus shelters, phone booths, subway entrances, and scaffolding). Advertising found below ground within garages and subway stations and attached to buses, taxis, and trucks were not included. Advertising in garages and subway stations is more likely to target a transient, rather than resident, population. Buses, taxis, trucks etc. are not permanently stationed in particular blocks, but rather traverse the city more broadly. Storefront signage was also not included in the sample as it is not publicly available, does not fall within

TABLE 1:
Scores on Hofstede's (2001) Dimension and the Human Development Index for the Twelve Countries Sampled

Country	PDI	IDV	MAS	UAI	HDI	Info Cues
Canada	39	80	52	48	95	.80
China	80	20	66	30	76.8	2.25
Colombia	67	13	64	80	79	1.07
Hungary	46	80	88	82	86.9	1.48
India	77	48	56	40	61.1	1.92
Norway	31	69	8	50	96.5	1.73
Slovakia	104	52	110	51	85.6	1.13
Switzerland	34	68	70	58	94.7	.87
Taiwan	58	17	45	69	92.5	1.63
Turkey	66	37	45	85	75.7	1.13
Turks and Caicos	45	39	68	13	79.5	1.27
United States	40	91	62	46	94.8	1.17

Sources: Hofstede typology scores (PDI = Power Distance, IDV = Individualism, MAS = Masculinity, and UAI = Uncertainty Avoidance) from Hofstede (2001) (Jamaica scores used for Turks and Caicos). Human Development Index (HDI) scores from Human Development Report (UNDP, 2007).

the definition we are using, and is not represented by outdoor advertising placement agencies. In cases where photos of more than 30 advertisements were obtained, 30 advertisements were randomly selected for analysis. This resulted in a sample of 319 advertisements across the 12 countries.

This study used two variables that are expected to influence outdoor advertising messaging – level of development and culture. As noted previously, echoing Albers-Miller and Gelb (1996), the measure of cultural differences was scores on Hofstede's (1980, 2001) four cultural dimensions. The measures of development level used were the United Nation's Human Development Index (HDI). This index reflects the belief that level of development should be seen as a multidimensional concept with many more dimensions than just an economic one. Specifically, the HDI is a composite index of four statistics: life expectancy at birth, adult literacy rate, school enrollment ratio, and GDP per capita in purchasing power parity terms.

Content Analysis Procedure

This study uses a content analysis method to code the information and cultural content of the sampled outdoor advertisements. By definition, an advertising appeal is any approach within an advertising message that is intended to influence the attitude of consumers toward the product or the service. Again echoing Albers-Miller and Gelb (1996), it is assumed that advertising appeals are the main instrument for incorporating culture into advertising (de Mooij & Hofstede, 2010), and, as noted previously, the organization of Pollay's (1983) advertising appeals into the four Hofstede (1980) dimensions is repeated in this study based on Albers-Miller and Gelb (1996). Resnik and Stern's (1977) informational cues are used to code information content. This resulted in 44 coded items (see Tables 2 and 3).

Before the coders began the coding process, a training session was conducted. This consisted of coding 10 practice ads with explanations for each ad to guide the to-be-trained coder. After completing the training, data coding began.

When coding the outdoor advertisements, coders were asked to identify whether each appeal or information cue was present or absent from the ad by checking the appropriate box. To facilitate comparisons, the appeals were grouped by cultural dimension. Coders were asked to code the entire sample of ads for each group and to continue on to the next group.

For each country, other than Slovakia, two or three native speakers coded each ad independently and then compared results. For Slovakia, a native speaker translated the copy in the advertisements into English and two native English speakers then coded the advertisements. All disagreements were resolved and a unanimous final coding was agreed upon. The average percentage agreement between coders across all variables was 94.6%.

RESULTS

To facilitate a more representative comparison between countries, the total number of information cues for each country was divided by the number of advertisements sampled for that country. The average across the sample was 1.37 information cues per advertisement (see Table 1). This is comparable to the averages in the Abernethy and Franke's (1996) meta-analysis – namely, the 1.42 average for outdoor advertising. For each country, the average number of cues per advertisement was then correlated with its Human Development Index score. The resulting correlation coefficient, using the non-parametric Spearman Rho, is -0.496 (p-value = 0.045). Despite being significant, the outcome is in the opposite direction. Hypothesis 1 is not supported.

The second step was to analyze the cultural appeals in the outdoor advertisements. This analysis followed the methods used in Albers-Miller and Gelb (1996). The first step was a Chi-Square analysis of the 30 advertising appeals (a 2 x 12 comparison, the appeal was present or absent times the 12 countries sampled). One item, modest, never occurred in the sample of advertisements and was excluded from the analysis. Overall, the analysis of the remaining 29 appeals found significant results for 17 items ($p < 0.05$, two-tailed) (Independence, Distinctive, Self-respect, Popular, Family, Community, Ornamental, Dear, Cheap, Plain, Safety, Tamed, Youth, Casual, Effective,

TABLE 2:
Advertising Appeals Items for the Culture Focused Content Analysis

Content Analysis Item	Individualism	Power Distance	Uncertainty Avoidance	Masculinity
Independence	+			
Distinctive	+			
Self-respect	+			
Popular	-			
Affiliation	-			
Family	-			
Succorance	-			
Community	-			
Ornamental		+		
Vain		+		
Dear		+		
Status		+		
Cheap		-		
Humility		-		
Nurturance		-		
Plain		-		
Safety			+	
Tamed			+	
Durable			+	
Adventure			-	
Untamed			-	
Magic			-	
Youth			-	
Casual			-	
Effective				+
Convenient				+
Productivity				+
Natural				-
Frail				-
Modest*				-

*Item excluded from correlation analysis due to no occurrences in the sample.

TABLE 3:
Information Cue Items for the Development Focused Content Analysis

Information Cue	Description
Price / Value	Mentions product cost or value for the money.
Quality	Product characteristics relating to workmanship, engineering, durability, excellence of materials, structural superiority, superiority of personnel, attention to detail, or special services.
Performance	Details what the product does and how well it does in comparison to alternative purchases.
Components / Contents	Details product components, ingredients, or ancillary items included in the product. This cue also includes prominent mention of actors/artists/performers that are performing in an event, television program, or movie.
Availability	When and where the product can be purchased or viewed (including store names, addresses, television channel, and hours of operation). This cue also includes the date and/or time of an advertised event or television program as well as the telephone number and/or website address for the advertiser.
Directional Information	Provides directions to where the product can be purchased (i.e., “next exit”, “exit 7”, “around the corner”, “next to McDonald’s”, etc.)
Special Offers	Lists limited-time, non-price deals available with product purchase.
Taste	Information is presented that the particular product is perceived superior in taste by a sample of customers.
Nutrition	Data presented about the nutritional content of the particular product.
Packaging / Shape	Details what special shapes or models the product is available in or references that the product’s packaging is better than alternative purchases.
Guarantees / Warranties	Post-purchase assurances are detailed.
Safety	Mentions safety features for the particular product.
Research	Data is presented about independent or company-sponsored research.
New Ideas	New concepts or advantages are presented.

Source: Adapted from Stern, Krugman, & Resnik, (1981).

Productivity, and Frail) and approaching significant results for two other items ($p < 0.10$) (Status and Humility). Ten items were not significantly different (Affiliation, Succorance, Vain, Nurturance, Durable, Adventure, Untamed, Magic, Convenient, Natural).

The next step used a correlation analysis to confirm the hypotheses. For the advertising appeals, the data were first transformed using the same proportional measure as in Albers-Miller and Gelb (1996). This involved “dividing the use of a particular appeal by all uses of all appeals, country by country” (pg. 66). The proportion for each advertising appeal was correlated with its corresponding cultural dimension. In addition, as this study focused on replication of the broad finding that culture is reflected in outdoor advertising, the proportions for each advertisement were grouped according to their underlying cultural dimension (e.g., high power distance, low uncertainty avoidance, etc.) and then summed. The low occurrence items were removed for both of these steps. The summed proportions were then correlated with their corresponding Hofstede (1980) cultural dimension score.

Again following Albers-Miller and Gelb’s (1996) methods, a simple count of correlations in the predicted direction is used to test each hypothesis.

Individualism: None of the single appeals correlated significantly with country scores on

Individualism. Independence, Affiliation, Succorance, and Community had non-significant correlations, but they were in the predicted direction. Distinctive, Self-respect, Popular and Family had non-significant correlations, and their correlations were in the wrong direction. The correlations for the summed high and low individualism scores for the advertising appeals were not correlated to the Hofstede score and were in the wrong direction. These results fail to support Hypothesis 3a.

Power Distance: Status, Cheap and Nurturance had non-significant correlations, but they were in the predicted direction. Ornamental, Vain, Dear, Status, Humility, and Plain had non-significant results, and their correlations were in the wrong direction. The correlations for both the high and low summed power distance scores were not significant. For high power distance, the correlation was not in the predicted direction but it was in the predicted direction for low power distance. These results fail to support for Hypothesis 3b.

Uncertainty Avoidance: Safety Appeal had a significant (p-value < 0.05) Spearman Rho correlation with uncertainty avoidance and in the predicted direction. Untamed had non-significant correlations, but it was in the predicted direction. Tamed, Durable, Adventure, Magic, Youth, and Casual had non-significant results, and their correlations were in the wrong direction. The correlation for the summed high uncertainty avoidance score was non-significant but in the predicted direction. In contrast, the correlation for the summed low uncertainty avoidance score was non-significant and in the wrong direction. These results provide initial, but very partial support for Hypothesis 3c.

Masculinity: Spearman Rho correlations for Effective and Frail were insignificant but in the predicted direction. In contrast, Convenient, Productivity, and Frail were not significant and in the wrong direction. The correlation for the high summed masculinity scores was insignificant and not in the predicted direction while the summed low masculinity scores was insignificant but in the predicted direction. Overall, these results fail to support Hypothesis 3d.

Taken as a group, the results of the cultural analysis find little to no relationship between scores on Hofstede’s four culture dimensions and the cultural appeals in the outdoor advertisements. This fails to support Hypothesis 2.

DISCUSSION

International advertising research is consistent in its findings that advertising content should be adapted to reflect differences in local cultures and development levels (Abernethy & Franke, 1996; Baack & Singh, 2007; de Mooij & Hofstede, 2010). The goal of this paper is to replicate and extend these findings to outdoor advertisements. Using two common methods in the field, this study found partial support for the extension of these theoretical claims to this under-researched medium (Taylor, 2010, 2012). This study finds evidence that the amount of information in an ad is related to development level but not in the hypothesized direction. With a sample size of 12 countries of varying geographic and cultural backgrounds, the statistical results show that the level of development influences advertising content within outdoor advertising in that countries with lower scores on the Human Development Index are more likely to have more information cues. This corresponds to a portion of past research on the topic that suggests more informative ads are found in developing countries for two reasons. First, because consumers are often in the early stages of many product lifecycles, there is a greater need to educate consumers on product benefits. Second, many developing countries are said to have relatively low levels of advertising intensity across all media compared to developed markets thereby minimizing cognitive overload arising from information-laden advertisements regardless of its form (Falk, et al., 1999; Renforth & Raveed, 1983). Our results run counter to Abernethy and Franke’s (1996) research that suggests more informative ads are found in developed countries because higher education levels in these countries support more information cues.

Outdoor advertising likely takes on a very different role in less developed countries where Human Development Index scores are lower. Here outdoor advertising is relatively inexpensive and reaches a larger number of consumers. Other advertising media is used less frequently by marketers because communication infrastructure is less developed; lower incomes prevent wide spread TV ownership and internet usage, especially in rural areas; and low literacy rates impede the coverage of print media (Austin, 1990; Sinha, 2008). As such, including more information in an outdoor advertisement is likely seen as necessary in less developed countries because these ads may be the only true mass medium available.

The results with respect to cultural value reflection are disappointing. Only one of the advertising appeals had a statistically significant relationship with its corresponding culture dimension (safety for high uncertainty avoidance). While exact correspondence is rare for content analysis studies of this kind (see Albers-Miller and Gelb (1996) or Baack and Singh (2007)), the results of this exploratory replication and extension are remarkably weak. This may be due to the number and type of countries used in our sample, although a similar sample was used in Albers-Miller and Gelb (1996). That said, it is more likely that the results reflect on the unique characteristics of the medium.

Outdoor advertisements focus more on simplicity and directness. With distracted and cognitively limited target consumers, effective outdoor messaging typically uses few words, simple images, and quickly processed copy (Wilson & Till, 2012a). An examination of a simple count of the number of occurrences of each appeal supports this potential explanation. Eight appeals occurred ten or fewer times across the entire sample of 319 ads (Magic (8 occurrences), Untamed (7), Frail (5), Tamed (5), Succorance (4), Casual (3), Humility (2), and Modest (0). The highest occurring items, Distinctive and Cheap, both only occurred 44 times across the 319 advertisements, a low 13.8% occurrence rate.

It is possible that outdoor advertising is just not a culturally laden media. Facing the realities of the processing constrains of outdoor advertising, advertisers likely focus on core messaging that does not easily reflect deep, complicated cultural contexts. Contrast this with other forms of print advertising, such as magazine and banner advertisements, where consumers are free to spend as much time as they wish to read and perhaps reread information found within the ad. These ads are able to be much more complex. This is likely why other research has consistently found magazine and web advertisements to be flush with overt and subtle cultural cues (e.g., Choi, et al., 2006). The opportunity for message processing is simply greater in print media where consumers more readily control message exposure.

Theoretical Implications

There are two very important theoretical implications derived from this study. The first is related to the importance of replication research. The prevailing wisdom within international marketing is that cultural differences between countries are reflective within each country's advertising content. Years of advertising research have shown this to be the case. However, this extensive research has only occurred within three forms of media, which are quite capable of supporting information-rich, cultural appeals: television, print, and web content. By replicating this research and extending it to outdoor advertising, we find that the use of cultural appeals do not vary across countries. We believe that our study's inability to support previous cross-cultural research is related to the media itself and how consumers process information within it. Due to the few seconds that many consumers devote to the processing of outdoor advertisements, these ads often do not contain many information cues. As such, culturally-laden cues are also not prevalent. Indeed, we found that many cultural appeals were infrequently used or not used at all. Without our replication, this boundary condition would not have been discovered. The importance to managers and advertising strategy is discussed in greater detail within the next section.

Replication research is often not pursued by many researchers for fear that it will not be published or that it will hinder career advancement by it being considered unoriginal or lacking innovation (Kerr, et al., 2016). Yet, journal editors are recognizing the importance of such work and are publishing reinquiry research (Eisend, Frank, & Leigh, 2016). Recognizing that human behavior is evolutionary and that artifacts of this behavior, such as advertising, may change over time or simply not function as anticipated if viewed from a different media angle, is quite important to the scientific process. We hope that our replication of an important, long-standing principle, such as the adaptation-standardization of marketing communications, encourages others to support the scientific method through replication research.

The second important theoretical implication is concerned with our understanding of how information cues vary by level of human development. Prior international advertising research is conflicted as to whether more information cues are found in low versus high human development levels (Abernethy & Franke, 1996; Falk, et al., 1999; Noor Al-Deen, 1991; Renforth & Raveed, 1983). Our inquiry into outdoor advertising suggests that more information cues are present in countries with lower levels of human development. Despite our assumed knowledge about the use of information cues, we may not truly understand how and when they are used. Referencing again the importance of replication research, it appears that the occurrence of information cues is not only related to human development but also to the type of media.

Managerial Implications

Taken together, the results of this study provide insight into cross-cultural advertising practices and suggest what methods might work best in a country. The insights represent topics that international advertising scholars have indicated are critical in moving research in this area forward and are important to help managers develop more effective international advertisements (de Mooij & Hofstede, 2010; Taylor, 2005). Specifically, the results indicate that culture influences the use of outdoor advertising differently based on what is said versus how it is said. Ad content, or the "what," appears to be influenced by culture through a country's level of development while the appeal, or the "how," appears to differ less by culture. In less developed countries, as measured by the Human Development Index, outdoor ads have greater levels of information value whereas more developed countries have less information. From an appeal's perspective, outdoor advertising is just not that culturally driven. The media limits cultural content by focusing instead on short, pith delivery. Facing these media based issues, an advertising appeal's use is not correlated with a country's cultural values and may be related to the need to use simple designs that aid in message processing.

This seems to suggest that the degree of standardization is less likely across a divergent group of countries but may be possible in countries with a similar level of development. Consequently, this may permit a higher degree of standardization of appeals across markets. Outdoor advertising should be preferred, in terms of cost, because by its nature it needs less adaption. What was once viewed as a constraint, namely a limited amount of information that can be delivered, can instead be viewed as an advantage in an international advertising context. With outdoor advertising, the same basic message can be used across markets.

In terms of information cues, managers face a counter concern. The results find that more information cues are possible in countries just beginning to develop. This is even in the case of a constrained, potentially low information, medium. Outdoor advertising is unique, and the results present a real challenge for managers. How do you present a great amount of information in this format? It is certainly possible, and the results push managers to focus on being brief but powerful in their messaging.

A country-level analysis provides important exemplars of adaptation in practice. The first topic to consider is the role of information cues. As discussed, our findings support a portion of theory that low levels of development correspond to a need to educate consumers regarding the product. Looking at our sample, we find examples of this.

India, which scores at one of the lowest levels on the HDI in our sample, is a case in point, and Exhibit One is a clear example of education in an advertisement. The product is military service. The advertisement is high in information, even while being low in terms of actual copy or words. Instead, the advertisement uses images to capture service in the Indian Air Force. This approach crosses various language barriers, including illiteracy, to educate the viewer. It is worthy to note that the limited copy is in English, capturing the prestige associated with serving in the Indian Armed Forces.

Cultural cues represent a more complicated discussion. As noted above, many of the items had a low level of occurrence, reflecting the simple nature of outdoor advertising as a medium. The use of cultural appeals in outdoor advertising just doesn't seem to be a typical practice. That said, looking at these advertisements in sum, it is possible to reflect culture in outdoor advertising, and doing so might present an opportunity for brands to increase ad efficacy relative to competitors. We review exemplars for practitioners below to provide guidance on how to better reflect cultural values.

Consider the case of Slovakia, which scores the highest on power distance. The advertisement in Exhibit Two emphasizes the importance of growing up. The copy, roughly translated, is "enjoy the taste of growing up." For countries scoring high on power distance, any attempt to highlight status will resonate. This advertisement is an example of that.

This study is unique in that it has a sample of advertisements from the Caribbean. Specifically, our sample from Turks and Caicos Islands allows us to examine the uncertainty avoidance value in one of the starkest examples of this value. With a score of 13 it ranks near Singapore, at 8, and other lowest scoring countries, and indicates that individuals who are part of the Turks and Caicos culture are quite comfortable with ambiguity. This value can be seen in Exhibit Three. The claims made are vague, almost magical, and lack specificity.

A final Hofstede (1980) value to consider is masculinity. With Norway in our sample, we have a stark case of low masculinity to guide practice. Looking at Exhibit Four, you see that the model is frail and the product being sold is natural – characteristics that are associated with a more feminine culture. This reflects the cultural values in Norway. Advertisers may take this as an example as how to reflect, or not reflect, masculinity in practice.

Limitations and Future Research

This study has several limitations worth mentioning. First, the use of only two coders per country increases the possibility of one idiosyncratic coder skewing the results. This potential, coupled with the number of countries sampled, could potentially have led to spurious results. One should also be careful generalizing the results outside of the 12 countries sampled. Lastly, the number of countries sampled limited the power of the statistical analysis, and, as a result, few statistically significant results were found. In lieu of this, interpretation of the null results for cultural appeals is especially difficult.

Future research should start by increasing the number of countries sampled to improve the power of any statistical analysis. Additionally, future research might explore differences in specific information cues and more directly test whether information cue differences have cultural or development causes. Future studies should also consider how additional variables other than culture or the Human Development Index might account for these results. Lastly, future research may further extend research on culture, development, and advertising content into other new media such as banner advertising.

To conclude, the broad goal of this paper was to replicate and extend previous research on advertising content, culture, and level of development to the under-researched media of outdoor advertisements. The authors have met this goal and invite others to build on their findings.

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EXHIBIT 1:
High Information Content in an Indian Advertisement

EXHIBIT 2:
High Power Distance in a Slovakia Advertisement

EXHIBIT 3:
Low Uncertainty Avoidance in a Turks and Caicos Advertisement

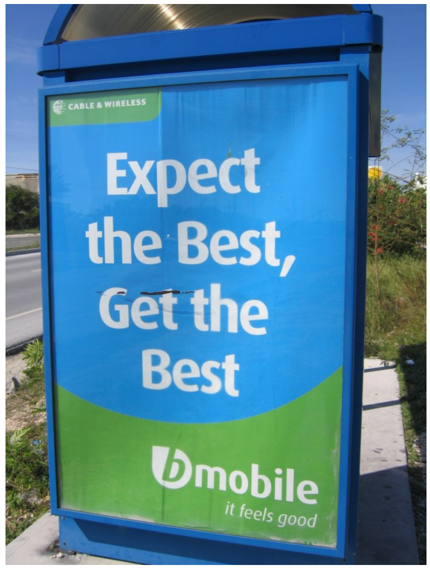

EXHIBIT 4:
Femininity in a Norway Advertisement

MENTORING'S IMPACT ON SALESPERSON JOB SATISFACTION DIMENSIONS

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This study investigates the previously unexplored influence of mentoring and mentor source on salesperson multi-faceted job satisfaction. Sales research has yet to examine the influence of mentoring or mentor source on salesperson job satisfaction. Although research using non-sales samples demonstrates mentoring and mentor source affects mentee job satisfaction, such research examining multi-faceted job satisfaction does not exist. The lack of such research is meaningful because salesperson satisfaction with specific job facets uniquely influences outcomes and is uniquely influenced by antecedents. Findings of this study indicate salespeople with mentors report higher levels of satisfaction on six (i.e., supervisors, overall job, company policy and support, promotion and advancement, coworkers, customers) of the seven job satisfaction facets. Our findings further show salespeople with organizational mentors report higher levels of satisfaction on five of the seven facets than do salespeople with external mentors. Implications of these findings for sales managers and organizations are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Two areas of importance in sales force management are job satisfaction (e.g., Krush, Agnihotri, Trainor, & Krishnakumar, 2013; Pettijohn, Pettijohn, & Taylor, 2009; Schetzsle & Drollinger, 2014) and mentoring (e.g., Hartmann, Rutherford, Hamwi, & Friend, 2013; Hartmann, Rutherford, Feinberg, & Anderson, 2014; Locander, Weinberg, Mulki, & Locander, 2015). Within the stream of research focused on job satisfaction, some researchers investigate this increasingly important human resource variable as a multi-faceted construct (e.g., Friend, Johnson, Rutherford, & Hamwi, 2013; Rutherford, Boles, Hamwi, Madupalli, & Rutherford, 2009). This multi-faceted conceptualization of salesperson job satisfaction consists of seven facets, including a sales representative's satisfaction with supervisors, company policy and support, promotion and advancement, pay, coworkers, customers, and work (Churchill, Ford, & Walker 1974). Extant research demonstrates that salesperson satisfaction with specific job facets uniquely influences outcomes such as organizational commitment, turnover intention, and organizational citizenship behavior (Hartmann et al., 2014; Rutherford et al., 2009; Ladik, Marshall, Lassk, & Moncrief, 2002). Given that satisfaction with specific job facets is also uniquely influenced by antecedents, and mentoring has been linked to global job satisfaction in the applied psychology literature (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2004; Fagenson, 1989), a need exists to more clearly understand the influence of mentoring on each facet of salesperson job satisfaction. Elucidating this influence would allow researchers and managers to develop more informed conclusions regarding the downstream impact on salesperson outcomes.

Prior sales research is has yet to link mentoring or mentor source (i.e., organizational mentor, external mentor) to job satisfaction. However, sales research has shown mentoring and mentor source to influence a number of outcomes associated with satisfaction. These outcomes include increased mentee job performance (Brashear, Bellenger, Boles, & Barksdale, 2006), organizational commitment (Hartmann et al., 2013), and occupational commitment (Hartmann et al., 2013), as well as decreased mentee turnover intentions (Brashear et al., 2006). Nevertheless, research regarding the influence of mentoring and mentor source on multi-faceted job satisfaction remains

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unexplored. This is an important shortcoming given that the goals of mentorship programs within sales organizations often include the performance development, satisfaction, and retention of their sales force.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between mentoring and multi-faceted job satisfaction in salespeople (i.e., whether mentoring has a significant relationship with multiple facets of job satisfaction) and any difference in levels of multi-faceted job satisfaction of mentees attributable to their mentor source (i.e., whether the source of mentoring matters). By expanding our understanding of mentoring in relation to multi-faceted job satisfaction, firms are provided with key pieces of information regarding the extent to which mentors increase salesperson satisfaction with specific facets of the job. This is important to managers because employee satisfaction is positively associated with organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, business-unit outcomes such as profit and productivity, and diminished turnover intention (Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002).

LITERATURE REVIEW

The Unique Nature of the Sales Role

Salespersons serve in a boundary-spanning role seeking to create value by fulfilling the sometimes conflicting objectives and interests of their own organization as well as those of their buyers through the development and maintenance of long-term relationships with customers (Hartmann and Rutherford, 2015; Krush et al., 2013). As others have highlighted, this boundary spanning role is characterized by high levels of autonomy, ambiguity, interaction, and discretionary influence (Avlonitis & Panagopoulos, 2006; Zolkiewski, 2011). This role is also in a state of substantial change. Modern salespeople are faced with an array of new demands stemming from increasing marketplace complexity and customer demands. Indeed, modern salespeople develop and manage customer relationships in a marketplace characterized by ever-changing buyer demands, an increasing number of products and services (Jones, Brown, Zoltners, & Weitz, 2005), and an increasing emphasis on customized solutions (Blocker, Cannon, Panagopoulos, & Sager, 2012). To meet these demands, salespeople are regularly asked to traverse organizational resources (Bradford et al., 2010) and leverage advice from organizational figures to increase their performance (Boyer, Artis, Solomon, & Fleming, 2012; Ingram, LaForge, Locander, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2005). Mentoring relationships may aid salespeople in meeting such job demands, while also offering psychosocial support.

Mentoring

Mentoring relationships are relationships involving consistent interaction between a more skilled or experienced person (i.e., the mentor) and a lesser skilled or experienced person (i.e., the mentee) with the goal of advancing the mentee's competencies and career (Haggard, Dougherty, Turban, & Wilbanks, 2011). Mentors aid the advancement of mentee competencies and careers. As such, mentoring is associated with a number of beneficial attitudinal and behavioral outcomes for salesperson mentees. For example, mentoring has been linked to increases in salesperson mentee job performance (Brashear et al., 2006), organizational commitment (Hartmann et al., 2013), occupational commitment (Hartmann et al., 2013), and diminished turnover intention (i.e., Brashear et al., 2006). Moreover, mentoring is negatively associated with salesperson lone wolf tendencies (Locander et al., 2015), a psychological state characterized by negative attitudes regarding working with others (Dixon, Gassenheimer, & Barr, 2003). Benefits of mentoring for the mentor can include greater rejuvenation, job performance, satisfaction with the job, satisfaction with coworkers, satisfaction with the company, and satisfaction with job opportunities (Pullins & Fine, 2002).

The literature provides evidence that examining boundary conditions yields an increased understanding of the impact of mentoring on mentees (Chao, Walz, & Gardner, 1992; Haggard et al., 2011; Ragins, Cotton, & Miller, 2000). One such boundary condition is the source of the mentor (i.e., whether they are organizational mentors and external mentors.) Each source of mentors offers relative advantages with regard to supporting mentees. Organizational mentors are employed by the same organization as mentees and are conceptualized to provide greater organizational resources, accessibility, protection, sponsorship, and challenging assignments than external mentors (Ragins, 1997). External mentors are not employed by the same organization as mentees. External mentors are conceptualized to offer greater inter -organizational resources and career mobility than organizational mentors (Ragins, 1997). Furthermore, as external mentors are removed from the organization and intra-organizational politics (Ragins, 1997), external mentors are able to provide support with greater degrees of concern for the salesperson and less concern for the welfare of the organization. The respective differences between organizational and external mentors with regard to supporting mentees suggests that organizational and external mentors may uniquely influence salesperson mentee job satisfaction facets.

Multi-Faceted Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a "pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values" (Locke, 1969, p. 316). Sales researchers (e.g., Johnston, Varadarajan, Futrell, & Sager, 1987; Russ & McNeilly, 1995; Rutherford et al., 2009) recognize that job satisfaction is a complex emotional reaction to "all characteristics of the job itself and the work environment" (Churchill et al., 1974, p. 255) and often assess job satisfaction using multi-faceted measures. A review of the work on job satisfaction shows that each of the facets can be categorized into one of three forms of satisfaction – instrumental satisfaction, social satisfaction, and egocentric satisfaction (Nerkar, McGrath & MacMillan; Friend et al. 2013). These three forms of satisfaction differ in their explanation of what aspects of the sales role ultimately determine job satisfaction levels, and thus may also vary in terms of explaining what variables predict instrumental, social, and egocentric satisfaction.

First, instrumental satisfaction represents the salesperson's satisfaction with behaviors associated with performance and task accomplishments (i.e., satisfaction with overall job). Second, social satisfaction denotes the salesperson's satisfaction with work relationships and social interactions (i.e., satisfaction with supervisors, satisfaction with coworkers, satisfaction with customers). Third, egocentric satisfaction reflects the salesperson's satisfaction with benefits received (i.e., satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion and advancement). Finally, "satisfaction with policy does not appear to conceptually fit within the instrumental, social, or egocentric satisfaction dimensions; however it does play an assumed role in providing the managerial oversight and support necessary for individuals to appropriately set expectations" (Friend et al. 2013; p.421).

Beyond the conceptual aspects, a review of the empirical elements of the job satisfaction literature shows that sales researchers assessing multi-faceted satisfaction commonly use one of the following three measures: the Job Description Index (JDI) (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969), Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) (Hackman & Oldham, 1975), or the INDSALES scale (Churchill et al., 1974). The JDI and JDS assess satisfaction with specific facets of the work environment; however, these scales do not assess satisfaction with specific facets unique to salespeople. The INDSALES scale is an extension of the JDI and JDS and seeks to capture affective evaluations of the work environment specific to salespeople (Churchill et al., 1974). The INDSALES scale assesses satisfaction with supervisors, overall job, company policy and support, promotion and advancement, pay, coworkers, and customers. Research using the INDSALES scale generally demonstrates that salespeople experience varying degrees of satisfaction with each of these seven facets of the work environment (e.g., Boles, Madupalli, Rutherford, & Wood, 2007; Ladik et al., 2002; Parasuraman & Futrell, 1983; Rutherford et al., 2009).

HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

Research outside of the sales context provides a large degree of support for the notion that mentoring is positively associated with job satisfaction (Allen et al., 2004; Fagenson, 1989). For example, Allen et al. (2004), in a meta-analytical examination consisting of a sample of 10 correlations and 3,029 observations, found that mentees report higher levels of job satisfaction than do non-mentees. While extant research does not examine differences between mentees and non-mentees pertaining to multi-faceted job satisfaction, support does exist in piecemeal fashion for each categorization of the satisfaction facets. First, research shows that mentees exhibit higher performance than non-mentees (Brashear et al., 2006; Eby, Allen, Evans, Ng, & DuBois, 2008). As a result, salesperson with mentors may experience higher degrees of instrumental satisfaction. Second, a meta-analytic review of the mentoring literature provides evidence that mentees receive benefits with respect to their interpersonal relationships with others (Eby et al. 2008). As a result, salespersons with mentors may experience higher degrees of social satisfaction. Third, mentees experience greater success within their company (Allen et al., 2004; Fagenson, 1989), recognition (Fagenson, 1989), career mobility (Fagenson, 1989), and compensation (Allen et al., 2004), than do non-mentees. Thus, salespersons with mentors may experience higher degrees of egocentric satisfaction. Moreover, the benefits mentees receive with regards to their interpersonal relationships with others, success within their company, and compensation may lead salespersons with mentors to experience higher satisfaction with company policy and support. In summary, it reasons that salesperson mentees experience higher levels of satisfaction with each facet of the work environment than do non-mentees. Therefore, we hypothesize salespersons with mentors will experience higher satisfaction across all facets.

> **H_1**: Salespersons with mentors will exhibit higher levels of satisfaction with: a) supervisors, b) overall job, c) company policy and support, d) promotion and advancement, e) pay, f) coworkers, and g) customers than salespersons without mentors.

Extant research neglects to examine the relationship between mentor source and mentee multi-faceted job satisfaction. However, there are reasons to suggest that the influence of organizational and external mentors is not equivalent. Relative to external mentors, organizational mentors are better able to draw from their social capital, personal experiences, and observations within the organization to offer mentee's instrumental, social, and egocentric benefits that improve the intricacies of the mentee's organization and work environment. For example, similar to coaching (Boyer et al., 2012; Onyemah, 2009), an organizational mentor can help a mentee better understand how he or she is performing and use specific situations as teaching opportunities. Moreover, given their closer proximity, organizational mentors are able to provide mentees with greater opportunities to observe and model mentor job attitudes and behaviors. Such modeling may result in greater instrumental satisfaction due to enhanced skill development and role understanding (Lankau & Scandura, 2002). Organizational mentors also offer greater opportunities for improving the working relationships within their organization that are critical to their role (i.e., social satisfaction), as well as hold positions within the organization that carry more influence over the mentee's promotion and advancement considerations (i.e., egocentric satisfaction). On the other hand, external mentors can offer greater opportunities to improve salesperson satisfaction with considerations external to their organization (Ragins, 1997). However, these inter-organizational advantages may be negligible to salespersons given that their close working relationships with customers and prospects often provide access to similar resources and avenues for career mobility.

> **H_2**: Salespersons with organizational mentors exhibit higher levels of satisfaction with: a) supervisors, b) job, c) company policy and support, d) promotion and advancement, e) pay, f) coworkers, and g) customers than salespersons with external mentors.

METHODOLOGY

Sample

Data for this study were collected using an online panel which rewards respondents with incentive points redeemable for merchandise. Online panels are a commonly accepted data collection standard in sales research, especially when a set of individuals with a specific skill set (i.e., salespeople) are the desired sample (Johnson, 2016). An upper limit of 1,050 respondents was set due to financial constraints. The questionnaire was made accessible online to panel participants previously self-identifying as working within sales. A total of 2,443 potential respondents entered the questionnaire site. Filters were set to ensure that each participant was currently working in a sales position. Respondents that did not answer the question or answered "no" to the sales position filter were removed. This resulted in 1,112 screen outs. Once the data collection reached the limit of 1,050 completed surveys, partially completed surveys (n = 281) were no longer accessible to respondents.

In limiting the analysis to persons serving solely in a selling role, respondents self-reporting as being an owner or senior manager were removed from the analysis (n = 31). Additionally, on the basis that respondents need experience with both their organization and sales to form perceptions of the work environment and develop a mentoring relationship, respondents with less than one year of organizational or sales experience were removed (n=35). Listwise deletion was utilized resulting in a sample size of 647 respondents, an effective usable response rate of 26.48%. Of the respondents, 117 (18.08%) report having a mentor; of these, 68 respondents had an organizational mentor and 49 respondents had an external mentor. Table 1 provides demographic characteristics for respondents.

Retail and industrial salespeople comprised 69.55% and 30.45% of the respondents, respectively. This is consistent with the U.S. population of people working in retail versus industrial positions (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010). The retail and industrial salespeople worked within a diverse range of sectors and industries. The most heavily represented retail sectors included building material, garden equipment and supplies dealers (13.8%), clothing and clothing accessories stores (12.35%), food and beverage stores (11.38%), real estate and licensing (11.14%), health and personal care stores (9.2%), and finance and insurance (8.95%). The most heavily represented industrial sectors included manufacturing (30.61%), wholesale trade (16.84%), professional scientific and technical services (10.71%), and industrial finance and insurance (9.69%).

TABLE 1:
Sample Characteristics

Descriptive	Non-mentee	Mentee	Organizational Mentor	External Mentor
N	530	117	68	49
Age	47.82	48.42	47.46	49.76
Gender (Female %)	55.3%	56.4%	63.2%	46.9%
Marital Status				
Single	22.5%	22.4%	19.1%	27.1%
Married	60.0%	53.4%	55.9%	50.0%
Divorced	11.6%	14.7%	14.7%	14.6%
Other	5.9%	9.5%	10.3%	8.3%
Education				
No College	17.5%	15.4%	22.1%	6.1%
Some College	32.5%	33.3%	29.4%	38.8%
College (undergraduate degree)	32.6%	29.1%	32.3%	24.5%
College (advanced degree)	17.4%	22.2%	16.2%	30.6%
Sales Experience (years)	10.05	8.33	7.78	9.10
Organizational Tenure (years)	9.43	7.62	7.31	8.05

Measures

Job satisfaction was assessed using the reduced 28-item INDSALES scale (Churchill et al., 1974; Comer, Machleit, & Lagace, 1989). Each job satisfaction facet was assessed using 4 items which asked respondents to indicate their level of agreement on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). To assess mentoring, respondents were first asked to indicate whether they currently had a mentor by responding yes or no. Second, respondents who had a mentor were then asked to identify whether the mentor was currently within their organization or external to the organization.

Analytical Approach

Using the mentoring (Ensher, Thomas, & Murphy, 2001; Kram, 1985; Ragins et al., 2000; Lankau & Scandura, 2002) and sales (Brashear et al., 2006; Hartmann et al., 2013; Fine & Pullins, 1998) literature as a reference, a number of plausible covariates were examined. This analysis suggested including mentee gender, age, organizational tenure, and education as covariates. Next, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed to assess the ability of the measurement model to fit the data. Following Hu and Bentler's (1999) recommendations, values close to .95 for overall fit indices (e.g., CFI, TLI and IFI), .06 for RMSEA, and .08 for SRMR were used as indicators of good fit. Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was used to test the hypothesized relationships.

RESULTS

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Results of the initial CFA, performed on the full sample (n = 647), indicate the measurement model produced marginal fit ($\chi2$ = 1246.06; df = 329; CFI = .94; TLI = .93; IFI = .94; RMSEA = .066; SRMR = .07). The modification indices indicated that one item each of the three satisfaction facets (i.e., promotion and advancement, coworker and customer satisfaction) and two items from the satisfaction with pay facet were problematic. Examination of the problematic items indicated that four of the five items removed were reverse coded items. One or more of these reverse coded items has been reported to be problematic by other sales research investigating multi-faceted job satisfaction (Hartmann et al., 2014; Katsikea, Theodosiou, Perdikis, & Kehagias, 2011; Rutherford et al., 2009). Reverse coded items can contribute to unexpected factor structures partially due to respondent misunderstandings (Swain, Weathers, & Niedrich, 2008). Results of the revised model, displayed in Table 2, indicate good fit ($\chi2$ = 448.18; df = 209; CFI = .98; TLI = .98; IFI = .98; RMSEA = .042; SRMR = .03).

Convergent and discriminant validity of the measures were examined. All standardized factor loadings were significant ($p < .001$) and met or exceeded the .70 threshold, providing evidence of convergent validity (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). Average variance extracted (AVE) estimates, composite reliabilities, and Cronbach alpha reliabilities for satisfaction with supervisors (78%, .94, .94), overall job (82%, .95, .95), company policy and support (79%, .94, .94), promotion and advancement (55%, .79, .78), pay (61%, .76, .76), coworkers (76%, .90, .89), and customers (72%, .88, .89) were generally strong, providing further support for convergent validity (Hair et al., 2010). All AVE estimates exceeded the corresponding squared interconstruct correlation estimates (Fornell and Larcker, 1981) providing support for the discriminant validity of the measures.

The revised measurement model was also examined in relation to the mentors only (n = 117). The results produced acceptable fit. ($\chi2$ = 328.15; df = 209; CFI = .95; TLI = .94; IFI = .95; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .05). Moreover, assessments using the aforementioned approaches provide evidence of discriminant and convergent validity.

ANCOVA Results

H_1 posited that salespersons with mentors would report higher levels of satisfaction with each facet of the work environment than salespersons without mentors. Results for H_1, along with adjusted and unadjusted means, for both salesperson mentees and non-mentees are displayed in Table 3. For six of the satisfaction facets, the means were significantly higher for

TABLE 2:
Standardized Factor Loadings and Satisfaction Facet Correlations

	Standardized factor loadings						
Supervisors							
My supervisor really tries to get our ideas about things.	.86						
My supervisor has always been fair in dealings with me.	.88						
My supervisor gives us credit and praise for work well done.	.89						
My supervisor lives up to his/her promises.	.90						
Overall Job							
My work gives a sense of accomplishment.		.85					
My job is exciting.		.92					
My work is satisfying.		.96					
I'm really doing something worthwhile in my job.		.89					
Company Policy and Support							
Management is progressive.			.89				
Top management really knows its job.			.89				
This organization operates efficiently and smoothly.			.89				
People in this organization receive good support from the home office.			.87				
Promotion and Advancement							
My opportunities for advancement are limited. (Reverse scaled)				.72			
There are plenty of good jobs here for those who want to get ahead.				.70			
I have a good chance for promotion.				.81			
Pay							
I'm paid fairly compared with other employees in this organization.					.79		
My income is adequate for normal expenses.					.77		
Coworkers							
My fellow workers are pleasant.						.90	
The people I work with are very friendly.						.94	
The people I work with help each other out when someone falls behind or gets in a tight spot.						.76	
Customers							
My customers are trustworthy.							.82
My customers are loyal.							.80
My customers are understanding.							.92

Satisfaction Facet Correlations						
Supervisors	--					
Overall Job	.60**	--				
Company Policy and Support	.68**	.63**	--			
Promotion and Advancement	.47**	.47**	.51**	--		
Pay	.44**	.45**	.43**	.43**	--	
Coworkers	.61**	.46**	.50**	.32**	.35**	--
Customers	.24**	.37**	.23**	.18**	.15**	.28**

mentees than non-mentees. However, mentees did not report significantly higher levels of satisfaction with pay than did non-mentees ($F = 2.66$; $p = .10$).

Although mentees report higher levels of satisfaction with promotion and advancement than non-mentees, Levene's test of equality of error variance ($F = 10.14$; $p < .01$) was significant, indicating that the homogeneity of variance assumption across groups was violated. Although numerous statisticians show that the F statistic is robust to homogeneity of variance assumption violations (e.g., Stevens, 2009; Myers, Well, & Lorch, 2013), significant alpha levels should be set more stringently when this assumption is violated (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Hence, the influence of mentoring on satisfaction with promotion and advancement was evaluated using an alpha level of .01. Results indicated a significant difference between mentees and non-mentees with respect to satisfaction with promotion and advancement ($F = 20.44$; $p < .001$). To confirm the robustness of this finding, H_{1d} was also evaluated using the log transformation of satisfaction with promotion and advancement. After transforming satisfaction with promotion and advancement, Levene's statistic was no longer significant ($F = .59$; $p = .44$) although mentoring was ($F = 12.02$; $p < .001$). Hence, H_1 (a, b, c, d, f, g) was supported.

Within the examination of H_1 (a, b, c, e, f, g), the covariate age was significantly associated to satisfaction with supervisors ($F = 10.72$; $p < .001$), overall job ($F = 19.44$; $p < .001$), company policy and support ($F = 5.64$; $p < .05$), pay ($F = 5.10$; $p < .05$), coworkers ($F = 4.95$; $p < .05$), and customers ($F = 13.15$; $p < .001$). In H_{1d}, gender was significantly associated with satisfaction with promotion and advancement before ($F = 5.74$; $p < .05$) and after the transformation ($F = .86$; $p < .01$). Organizational tenure ($F = 8.50$; $p < .01$) and education ($F = 8.94$; $p < .01$) were significantly associated with satisfaction with pay (H_{1e}).

H_2 posited that salespersons with organizational mentors would report higher levels of each facet of job satisfaction than salespersons with external mentors. As Table 4 displays, salespersons with organizational mentors reported higher levels of satisfaction with a number of facets compared to salespersons with external mentors. Salespersons with organizational mentors reported significantly higher mean levels of satisfaction with supervisors (H_{2a}), overall job (H_{2b}), company policy and support (H_{2c}), pay (H_{2e}), and

TABLE 3:
Summary of Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Mentor / No Mentor	Adjusted Mean	Unadjusted Mean	SD	F	p	Conclusion
H_{1a}	Supervisors	Mentor	5.41	5.42	1.46	10.24	<.001	Supported
		No Mentor	4.91	4.91	1.54			
H_{1b}	Overall Job	Mentor	5.59	5.59	1.55	20.36	<.001	Supported
		No Mentor	4.92	4.92	1.46			
H_{1c}	Company Policy and Support	Mentor	5.10	5.09	1.56	15.54	<.001	Supported
		No Mentor	4.46	4.46	1.60			
H_{1d}	Promotion and Advancement	Mentor	4.36	4.37	1.85	20.44	<.001	Supported
		No Mentor	3.61	3.61	1.57			
H_{1e}	Pay	Mentor	4.62	4.59	1.62	2.66	.10	Not Supported
		No Mentor	4.36	4.37	1.52			
H_{1f}	Coworkers	Mentor	5.61	5.62	1.21	4.27	<.05	Supported
		No Mentor	5.35	5.35	1.21			
H_{1g}	Customers	Mentor	5.82	5.83	.97	10.28	<.001	Supported
		No Mentor	4.93	5.49	.99			

coworkers (H_{2f}) than did salespersons with external mentors.

H_2 (b, c, g), which examined the impact of organizational mentors relative to external mentors on satisfaction with overall job, company policy and support, and customers, failed Levene's test of equality of error variance ($F = 8.22$; $p < .01$; $F = 5.94$; $p < .05$; $F = 4.59$; $p < .05$). In each case, the probability plot and histogram indicated a pronounced negative skew to the data. Hence, H_2 (b, c, g) was evaluated using an alpha level .01. Results indicated a significant difference between salespersons with organizational mentors and salespersons with external mentors with respect to satisfaction with overall job (H_{2b}; $F = 12.40$; $p < .001$) and company policy and support (H_{2c}; $F = 9.81$; $p < .01$), but not customers (H_{2g}; $F = .06$; $p = .81$). The robustness of the effect of organizational mentors, relative to external mentors, on satisfaction with overall job, company policy and support, and customers was examined after a reflect and inverse transformation of these satisfaction facets. For satisfaction with overall job, Levene's statistic was no longer significant ($F = 1.85$; $p = .17$), although mentoring was significant (H_{2b}; $F = 4.26$; $p < .05$). For satisfaction with company policy and support, Levene's statistic was no longer significant ($F = .26$; $p = .61$), although mentoring was marginally significant (H_{2c}; $F = 3.58$; $p = .06$). For satisfaction with customers, neither Levene's statistic ($F = 3.37$; $p = .07$) nor mentoring (H_{2g}; $F = .39$; $p = .53$) were significant. Hence, with the exception of satisfaction with promotion and advancement (H_{2d}) and customers (H_{2g}), the hypothesis that salespersons with organizational mentors report higher levels of satisfaction with each facet of their work compared to salespersons with external mentors received support.

Several covariates were significantly associated with one or more satisfaction facets. Age was associated with satisfaction with overall job before ($F = 5.27$; $p < .05$) and after the transformation ($F = 7.28$; $p < .01$). Both gender ($F = 5.99$; $p < .05$) and organizational tenure ($F = 4.35$; $p < .05$) were associated with satisfaction with promotion and advancement.

DISCUSSION

Results of the present study raise several discussion points. Extant literature, outside of the sales context, provides strong support for the notion that mentees experience higher levels of global job satisfaction than do non-mentees (Allen et al., 2004; Fagenson, 1989). However, such research fails to examine the impact of mentoring on multi-faceted job satisfaction.

TABLE 4
Summary of Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Mentor / No Mentor	Adjusted Mean	Unadjusted Mean	SD	F	p	Conclusion
H_{2a}	Supervisors	Organizational	5.78	5.74	1.29	9.74	<.01	Supported
		External	4.93	4.98	1.59			
H_{2b}	Overall Job	Organizational	6.00	5.94	1.20	12.40	<.001	Supported
		External	5.02	5.10	1.83			
H_{2c}	Company Policy and Support	Organizational	5.47	5.43	1.25	9.81	<.01	Supported
		External	4.56	4.61	1.82			
H_{2d}	Promotion and Advancement	Organizational	4.57	4.54	1.81	2.05	.16	Not Supported
		External	4.09	4.12	1.89			
H_{2e}	Pay	Organizational	4.89	4.94	1.33	7.51	<.01	Supported
		External	4.18	4.11	1.54			
H_{2f}	Coworkers	Organizational	5.81	5.79	1.10	4.11	<.05	Supported
		External	5.35	5.36	1.32			
H2g	Customers	Organizational	5.85	5.86	.86	.06	.81	Not Supported
		External	5.80	5.78	1.11			

This study extends this literature and examines mentoring in the sales context. The results indicate salesperson mentees report higher levels of job satisfaction with six facets of their work environment (supervisors, overall job, company policy and support, promotion and advancement, pay, coworkers, customers) than do non-mentees. However, salesperson mentees did not report higher levels of satisfaction with pay than non-mentees.

The existing literature base also generally fails to examine the relationship between the source of the mentor and mentee multi-faceted job satisfaction. This study asserts that organizational mentors have a greater impact on mentee multi-faceted job satisfaction than do external mentors. This greater impact is because organizational mentors are better able to draw from their social capital, personal experiences, and observations within the organization to offer mentee's support that accounts for the intricacies of the mentee's specific role. The results of this study generally support this assertion. Mentees with organizational mentors report higher levels of satisfaction with supervisors, overall job, company policy and support, pay, and coworkers than do mentees with external mentors.

Discussion of the Covariates

Scatterplots, or one-way ANOVA tests, were used to yield additional insight into the effects of mentee age, gender, organizational tenure, and education on the satisfaction facets. Within H_1, age was significantly associated with satisfaction with supervisors, overall job, company policy and support, pay, coworkers, and customers. Within H_2, age was significantly associated with satisfaction with the overall job. The scatterplots suggest that satisfaction with supervisors, overall job, company policy and support, pay, coworkers, and customer's increase with age. Gender was significantly associated with satisfaction with promotion and advancement in H_1 and H_2. Males reported higher levels of satisfaction with promotion and advancement than females in both the mentor/ no-mentor condition ($\bar{x}$(male) = 3.94; $\bar{x}$(female) = 3.59; F = 6.97; p < .01) and organizational/ external mentor condition ($\bar{x}$ (male) = 4.78; $\bar{x}$(female) = 4.05; F = 4.75; p < .05).

Given that females comprised approximately 55% of the sample and accounted for approximately 56% of mentees, the lack of equivalent satisfaction with promotion and advancement levels across gender provides further anecdotal support for the continued prevalence of "glass ceilings" for females in organizations. Organizational tenure was significantly associated with satisfaction with pay in H_1 and satisfaction with promotion and advancement in H_2. Within the mentor/no mentor examination, satisfaction with pay increased as organizational tenure increased. Interestingly, within the organizational/external mentor condition, satisfaction with promotion and advancement decreased as organizational tenure increased. Within H_1, education was significantly associated with satisfaction with pay. In general, individuals with greater education reported greater satisfaction with pay.

Post Hoc Examination of Mentoring

While the results indicate that mentoring is positively associated with mentee satisfaction on six job facets, caution needs to be taken when assuming that all forms of mentoring impact yield similar effects. Results indicate that salesperson mentees with organizational mentors report higher levels of satisfaction across five facets of the work environment (supervision, overall job, company policy and support, pay, coworkers) than do mentees with mentor's external to the organization. The adjusted and unadjusted means displayed in both Table 3 and Table 4 raise questions as to whether or not mentees with external mentors report higher levels of satisfaction with specific facets of the work environment than do non-mentees. To clarify whether differences existed between those with external mentors and those without mentors, a post hoc examination using the ANCOVA procedure was conducted. The results indicated that salespersons with external mentors did not significantly differ from salespersons without mentors on their satisfaction with supervisors (F = .04; p = .85), overall job (F = .41; p = .52), company policy and support (F = .43; p = .51), pay (F = 1.10; p = .30), or coworkers (F = .01; p = .98). However, salespersons with external mentors reported marginally higher levels of satisfaction with customers (F = 3.19; p = .08) than did salespersons without mentors. Moreover, salespersons with external mentors reported higher levels of satisfaction with promotion and advancement ($F = 3.86$; $p < .05$) than did salespersons without mentors. The results of this post hoc examination further support the beneficial role of organizational mentors in increasing salesperson mentee satisfaction, which holds implications for organizations who aim to retain high performers.

Managerial Implications

Sales practitioners, especially those at the managerial level, find it important to positively influence organizational outcomes such as performance and organizational commitment, and reduce the negative impacts of outcomes such as burnout and turnover intentions. One way in which managers can influence these outcomes is through the multiple facets of job satisfaction. Thus, it is important for managers to understand how organizational antecedents directly affect the facets of job satisfaction, and, by extension, indirectly influence organizational outcomes.

One way in which the facets of job satisfaction can be directly influenced is through mentoring. First, if managers want to increase the instrumental satisfaction of a particular employee of the sales force in general, results of our study show that providing an organizational mentor or establishing a mentoring program for the sales force may be a beneficial approach. An organizational mentor may help guide the salesperson to a better understanding of what the tasks and duties of their positions are, what management expects as far as productivity and performance, and how to deal with two different sources of authority with different demands. If the aim is to increase social satisfaction, an organizational mentor could help guide a mentee salesperson on the best methods for achieving success when communicating with managers, fellow co-workers or customers. The mentor's previous experience with what communication methods and/or styles have been successful and with the temperament of the mentee's managers, co-workers and/or customers could be very useful. Finally, if egocentric satisfaction needs to be improved, an organizational mentor could lean on their previous knowledge and experience within the firm to help employees achieve desired increases in monetary compensation and promotion. An experienced mentor may better understand what performance outcomes management holds most important, and help guide their mentee towards improvements in these areas.

Given that Generation Y wants mentoring (Reisenwitz and Iyer, 2009), the importance of organizational mentors is likely to increase in the future. Several avenues are available to managers seeking to increase the prevalence of organizational mentoring relationships. An important factor to consider is organizational culture. Organizational beliefs, assumptions and values that promote the development of mentoring relationships are more likely to lead to successful mentoring relationships (Hatch, 1993; Schein, 1985). Organizational beliefs and assumptions play major roles in shaping organizational principles, philosophies, goals, and standards which shape employee behaviors such as mentoring. Organizational beliefs and assumptions which encourage teamwork, empowerment, goodwill, and coaching may be more likely to lead to the development of organizational mentoring relationships.

Organizations should also evaluate the extent to which the organization formally and informally supports and incentivizes its employees to act as mentors and mentees. One plausible means of providing such support is to offer mentors and mentees opportunities to interact with one another. Organizational networking events, training gatherings, and cross-functional teams each present opportunities for potential mentors and mentees to connect and interact. Such opportunities also seemingly diminish expected and realized search costs in finding a mentor/mentee which may be particularly important for salespeople, as salespeople often operate in silos with less contact with coworkers than their counterparts.

Organizations can formally support mentoring relationships by incorporating mentoring responsibilities into senior employees' development plans and performance metrics. While it might seem that requiring senior employees to mentor may negatively impact their ability to meet other job demands, this may not necessarily be the case. After all, salesperson mentors receive rejuvenation, job satisfaction, and performance benefits from mentoring (Pullins & Fine, 2002). Such benefits may offset the time, energy, and other costs of serving as a mentor.

Interestingly, results of the post-hoc analysis indicate that salespeople with external mentors only differ from salespeople without mentors on the satisfaction with promotion and advancement facet at $p < .05$. Thus, the results suggest that external mentors do not play a large role in shaping salesperson job attitudes, or at least multi-faceted job satisfaction. Hence, when the objective is to increase job satisfaction, the findings of this research suggest that organizations should encourage their salespeople to develop organizational, rather than external, mentoring relationships.

Limitations

This study possesses several limitations. First, not uncommon to the mentoring literature (e.g., Haggard et al., 2011), the present study did not provide a definition of mentoring to respondents. While this approach increases the possibility of respondent confusion, this approach was employed in an attempt to control for respondent variation in conceptualizing mentoring. A review of the mentoring literature reports extreme variation in the breadth and specificity of mentoring definitions, leading Haggard et al. (2011, p.286) to question whether researchers who do provide a definition of mentoring are substituting the "variability of respondent perceptions with the variability of researcher perceptions." Also, the roles and types of support provided by mentors may vary substantially across contexts and types of mentoring relationships (Haggard et al., 2011). Given the interest in the influence of mentoring, in general, on satisfaction with each facet of the sales job, a definition of mentoring was therefore not imposed on respondents. Not including a definition of mentoring, however, may have increased the amount of variability in the data, thereby making it more difficult to detect statistical differences between groups, and contributed to the low percentage (18.08%) of salespeople identifying as having a mentor. Future research examining mentoring within the sales context should seek to re-examine the results of this study using various mentoring definitions.

Additionally, the data used in this study were gathered using an online data panel. Online data panels have been criticized for higher dropout rates than conventional methods (Birnbaum 2004). However, data collected online have been shown to possess similar item variability, factor structures, and covariance structures as data collected through traditional methods (Stanton, 1998). Furthermore, data were collected using online panels have been shown to be as reliable and demographically representative as data collected through traditional methods (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011). The authors perceived the advantages of using an online data panel for data collection, such as access to salesperson respondents employed in various industries with varying mentor sources, as outweighing the aforementioned disadvantages.

Directions for Future Research

This research provides many avenues for further inquiry into salesperson mentoring. For example, research finds that different selling situations (e.g., missionary sales, trade sales, technical sales) moderate the interrelationships between job behaviors and attitudes (Avlonitis & Panagopoulos, 2006). A possible avenue for future inquiry is examining the impact of mentoring on salesperson multi-faceted satisfaction across different selling situations. Additionally, research should examine the influence of mentoring with respect to varying levels of boundary spanning conditions (e.g., autonomy, ambiguity, interaction, discretionary influence). Furthermore, future research could examine the influence of mentor characteristics on downstream salesperson outcomes. In addition to examining interpersonal characteristics of the mentor (e.g., supportiveness), such research should examine whether the rank or experience of organizational and external mentors changes the nature of the posited relationships. For example, more senior organizational mentors may, among other things, provide even greater support that may aid mentees in better navigating their work environment, improve selling and relationship efforts, and develop perspective. These accentuated effects may thus lead to even greater beneficial outcomes.

Salesperson mentees with external mentors did not report higher levels of satisfaction with many of the job facets than salespeople without mentors. Given that approximately 43% of the mentee sample had external mentors, it seems pertinent that research further scrutinize the influence, if any, of mentoring provided by external mentors on mentee multi-faceted job satisfaction. Within this study, the true effect of mentoring provided by external mentors on mentee multi-faceted job satisfaction may be obscured by the absence of a moderating variable that influences effect strength and or directionally. For example, does the strength of the effect of mentoring provided by external mentors on mentee multi-faceted job satisfaction differ based on the role of the mentor, or topic emphasized by the external mentor? Research examining salesperson perceptions of effective sales managers provides a foundation for such an approach (e.g., Deeter-Schmelz, Kennedy, & Goebel, 2002). Specifically, examining the role of the sales mentor (i.e., communicator, motivator, coach) and topics (e.g., motivation, relationship development and maintenance, ethics, leadership, presentation) emphasized may elucidate any influence of mentoring provided by external mentors on mentee multi-faceted job satisfaction. Examining the role of the sales mentor across selling situations and environments may also yield insight into when mentoring provided by external mentors is most impactful, and consequently the role the mentor should emphasize in specific situations/ contexts. In addition to offering greater insight into the relationship between mentoring provided by external mentors and mentee multi-faceted job satisfaction, such an approach may offer greater insight into the influence of other types of mentoring relationships on salesperson mentee multi-faceted job satisfaction.

Research should also investigate the influence of mentoring, mentor source, and mentor-mentee relationship quality when the mentee is a first-level sales manager. Outcomes could include the performance, affect, turnover, and career progression of the first-level sales manager, as well as salespersons reporting to this manager. By investigating mentoring's direct benefits through the first-level sales manager's outcomes and mentoring's indirect benefits through the salesperson's outcomes, organizations may develop a more comprehensive understanding of the benefits of mentoring relationships. Lastly, although results of H1e indicate that salesperson mentees did not report higher levels of satisfaction with pay than non-mentees, research is encouraged to re-examine H1e given the limited number of mentees (n = 117), higher unadjusted and adjusted means on satisfaction with pay for mentees than non-mentees, and the p-value.

CONCLUSIONS

This study examines the relationships between mentoring and the source of the mentoring relationship on salesperson multi-faceted job satisfaction. Results indicate that mentoring is positively associated with mentee satisfaction with supervisors, overall job, company policy and support, promotion and advancement, coworkers, and customers. Further, the results indicate that organizational mentors more strongly impact mentee satisfaction with supervisors, overall job, company policy and support, pay, and coworkers compared to external mentors.

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