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Editorial



The current issue of the International Journal of Sales, Retailing and Marketing is once more dedicated to the best research papers from the area of retailing, sales and marketing. In this issue we are proud to present five original research papers from: U.S.A., Lebanon, and India. The contributing authors published an interesting researches about the effect of retailing environmental factors on Lebanese shoppers'

response, about sales manager monitoring, the psychometric validation of a generalizable sales potential profile, shopper marketing and finally about marketing pedagogy tactics.

The profile of contributors to the Journal ranges from well-known established professors to young and promising doctoral students whose time is yet to come.

Thank you for taking interest in publishing and reading The International Journal of Sales, Retailing and Marketing. We hope it will be a valuable help in your professional and academic advancement.

Editor,

A handwritten signature in blue ink that reads "M. Palić". The signature is written in a cursive, flowing style.

Professor Mirko Palić, Ph.D.

EFFECTS OF RETAILING ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS ON LEBANESE SHOPPERS' RESPONSES

Charbel El Khoury & Nehme Azoury

Abstract

This paper primarily concentrates on studying the effects of retailing atmospherics on Lebanese shoppers' responses. In addition to examining the relationship between shopping motivations and buyers' responses, this study discusses the way shoppers' value their experience in order to determine their level of satisfaction based on their expectations. A blend of qualitative-quantitative research paradigms was adopted in order to collect the data from 240 shoppers at 4 retailing outlets in Mount Lebanon. Outcomes revealed that atmospherics vary in their level of effect on shoppers. Moreover, findings showed a moderate correlation between shopping motivations and Lebanese shoppers' responses. In addition, a moderate to low correlation was found to take place between shopping expectations and shoppers' satisfaction.

Keywords: Retailing environment, value perception, Lebanese shopper, shopping motivations, shopper responses.

Classification: Research paper

Introduction

Shopping has always been considered one of the people's main concerns. Despite the remarkable differences that shoppers show in terms of frequency, shopping type, quality, and amount of money and time spent, shoppers regularly seek out personal and monetary satisfaction from their shopping experience. According to Terblanche and Boshoff (2004), shoppers have become tremendously demanding due to increasing number of brands, products, and stores available.

It is from this perspective that retailers have paid attention to this notable demand and competition, as this latter has become very tense, and retailers are today struggling to create a distinctive image and a constructive experience for shoppers in order to gain their loyalty. Here appears the role of atmospherics, since the presence of both social and physical stimuli has become fundamental. In Lebanon, the remarkable rise and restoration of many retailing outlets mirrors the value that atmospherics could entail for shoppers.

Despite the uneven economic situation that Lebanon has faced in the past few years (International Monetary Fund, 2013), many people's enthusiasm for shopping has only grown. According to Alami (2009), the Lebanese shopper seeks socialization, and admires comfortable shopping. Here comes the role of

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retailing outlets in enriching the value of their shoppers.

Regardless of the studies conducted in this regard, a lack is still present in the atmospheric elements and their level of influence on shoppers, as each one may differ in terms of the motivational distinctiveness and expectations formed towards the outlet. As previously mentioned, the social and physical stimuli are seen to exercise a certain influence on shoppers' buying behaviours. Consequently, to what extent are Lebanese shoppers affected by these stimuli? Additionally, is there any relationship between motivational distinctiveness and shoppers' responses?

Literature Review and Conceptual Framework

In this section, different readings and theoretical foundations will be presented in order to generate the proper hypotheses and conceptual framework related to our study.

The Retailing Industry

Berman and Evans (2010) define retailing as the act of making the product and service available for sale to shoppers for home or personal consumption. According to the International Comparison Programme (2011), a varied number of retailing outlets today exist:

Outsized stores: supermarket, hypermarket, and department store

Moderate to small stores: convenience store, kiosk, grocery, and minimarket

Road outlets: street stores

Discount and mass stores: discount stores and wholesalers

Speciality outlets: supply shops

Online stores

Today, Lebanon is considered amongst the primary shopping destinations in the region. The capital Beirut and its suburbs, as well as the cities of Jounieh and Byblos, host the major local, regional, and international retailing outlets such as Beirut City Centre, Le Mall, ABC, City

This paper is considered among the pioneers that empirically test the effects of retailing environment on Lebanese shoppers. It is also the first that mixes the "two-factor" and "hierarchy of effects" theories with the "stimulus-organism model" in a local context. It is from this outlook that this study would present value to all marketing researchers as well as outlet owners, managers, and consultants who are interested in obtaining a deeper knowledge of this subject in a local context. The core objectives of our study are investigating the intensity level of the previously mentioned atmospherics, and exploring the way shopping motivation could affect local shoppers' behavioural responses.

Mall, Bou Khalil, TSC, Le Charcutier, Spinneys, Aishti, and so forth (Zawya, 2010).

Stimuli Organism Response (S-O-R) Model

This framework, broadly applied in behavioural studies, was initiated by Mehrabian and Russell (1974) and specifies that physical cues such as lighting, temperature, smell, music and so on operate internal circumstances such as affect and cognition on shoppers that, in turn, lead to continuation or prevention actions. Bitner (1992) adjusted this model and stated that in the internal responses phase, besides affection and cognition comes physiological response since supermarket atmospherics, such as temperature, may lead shoppers to shake or perspire if this latter is not well controlled. Bitner also added the response moderators that mediate the Stimuli Organism (S-O) phases and may influence the anticipated behavioural outcomes. These moderators are summarized by expectations, personality, mood, and reason for shopping. In 2013, Solomon proposed the "hierarchy of effects theory" summarized as the learning-feeling-doing process. Accordingly, a shopper learns about the supermarket while being exposed to its atmospheric elements. A

particular feeling will then be formed based on the sensational elements acquired initially. The shopper will finally settle on his/her behavioural outcomes, summarized as prevention or continuation. This theory is also known as the "Cognition, Affection, Behavioural" model applied in behavioural education. Several scholars, such as Hyan and Ryu (2009) and Murray (2012), conducted their studies based on the S-O-R model and showed comparable results.

The Physical Environment

Several scholars have shown the important roles that physical and social cues can play in determining the favouritism of an outlet on behalf of another. For instance, Levy and Weitz (2007) demonstrate windows as the focal element of visual merchandising, while Oakes and North (2008) affirm the importance of music volume in determining the amount of money and time spent on shopping. In their study conducted on parking lots, Yilmaz et al. (2007) affirm that this outside facility also influences the favouritism of an outlet. Studies conducted by Belliveau et al. (2002); Chebat and Michon (2003); De Bortoli and Maroto (2009); Markkanen (2008); Nguyen (2006); and Winchip (2008) on temperature, scent, colours, layout, décor, and lighting respectively show, in their turn, parallel results.

From a local standpoint, no recent studies have been conducted in order to assess the degree of influence of retailing atmospherics on shoppers' behaviours. Despite the global perspective pertaining to these variables, each shopper maintains his/her own personal characteristics in this regard. In this context, we believe that it is crucial to test the level of significance of such stimuli on Lebanese shoppers. Based on the above mentioned literature, the following hypotheses are generated:

H1: *Perception of retailing physical cues is associated with shoppers' perceived value(s)*

H2: *Perception of retailing physical cues is associated with the length of time spent on shopping*

The Social Environment

Despite the lower degree of importance that researchers have placed on this environmental element, still professional recruitment standards and carefully conducted marketing researches should be adopted when selecting the front-of-house employees, or targeting the appropriate segments. In this context, Sharma and Stafford (2000) show the importance of integer employees on shoppers' responses. In turn, Gardner and Siomkos (1986) affirm the prominence that grooming may play when dealing with this human factor. On a different level, the study of Baker et al. (2002) concludes that the types of other shoppers available will also influence a shopper's perceived value.

Like the physical environment, no empirical studies have been locally conducted in regards to the social environment. In general, the Lebanese shopper is a tough advocate who appreciates prestige and socialization (Alami, 2009). However, no valid and verified outcomes are available in relation to the importance of the presence and grooming of front-of-house employees, or the type of other shoppers available in store. It is from this angle that the following hypotheses are presented:

H3: *Perception of retailing social cues is associated with shoppers' perceived value(s)*

H4: *Perception of retailing social cues is associated with shoppers' response(s)*

Shopper-Perceived Value and Satisfaction

Value has become one of the most tainted notions in social sciences (Khalifa, 2004). Indeed, the most frequently cited definition is the one pertaining to Zeithaml (1988) summarized by the statement of "what is received, compared to what is provided". In his study conducted in 1999, Holbrook affirmed that "situational, comparative, and personal" constitute the key fundamentals of shopper value. It is from this perspective that the outcomes of Davis et al. (2003) and Fernandez and Bonilla (2006) show that the reputation of the supermarket as well as effort, time, and amount of money spent affect shoppers' quality and price perceptions, respectively. Moving to shopper satisfaction, according to Darian et al. (2005), satisfaction is the outcome that arises after comparing the actual and ideal shopping orientation. In other words, the degree of satisfaction increases when expectations are met or exceeded, while this level decreases when a deviation is present and significant. It is noteworthy to mention that the examinations of Arnold et al. (2005), Castaneda (2011) and Chen (2012) show the importance of long-term satisfaction in generating loyalty when expectations are met or exceeded.

It is crucial at this stage to present the "Two-Factor Theory" elaborated by Herzberg et al. (1959). For them, dissatisfaction is the result of extrinsic elements, or shopping context, while the intrinsic ones, or shopping content, are associated with satisfaction. Despite the "job context" pertaining to this theory, it can also be practically applied to shoppers in the marketplace. This theory concludes that the opposite of "satisfaction" is "no satisfaction" rather than "dissatisfaction". Subsequently, when applied to the shopping context, this theory proposes shopping neutrality as an element that might arise in order to affect shoppers' perceived values and responses.

Generally speaking, expectations are formed before the shopping trip. Retailers try to always focus on this element in order to deliver what they have promised. Are the same circumstances applied in Lebanon? Besides, is the level of satisfaction really associated with shoppers' expectations? It is from this perspective that the following hypothesis is shown here below:

H5: *Shopping expectations are associated with shoppers' satisfaction*

Shopper Motivations and Responses

Various motivational factors may arise in order to influence a buyer's decision for shopping and store selection (Bell et al. 2011). Social motives consist of getting socialized with other shoppers and front-of-house employees on duty. Additionally, personal motives include realizing the latest trends; the role played in the family as decision maker; personal gratification; and sensorial/promotional incentives (Walters and Jamil, 2003). This is not to neglect the utilitarian and hedonistic-recreational shopping motives that may occur and are related to the "functionality" of the event and the mood of the shopper, respectively (Childers et al. 2001). In their extended examination in this regard, Arnold and Reynolds (2003) suggest that "adventure", "value", "gratification", "social", "role", and "idea" form the key elements of shopping motives.

Regarding shoppers' responses; as discussed earlier, continuation/approach and prevention/avoidance are the main behavioural outcomes examined in shoppers. These outcomes are summarized by shopping time spent, unplanned purchases conducted, and area shopping browsing. Donovan and Rossiter (1982) show the importance of time invested while shopping, and link it to internal responses and motives generated by shoppers. Moreover, Coley and Burgess (2003) show the correlation of impulsive buying conduct with the alluring buying senses. On the other hand, Lombart

(2004) affirms that recreational and cheerful shopping activities lead to positive behavioural consequences.

In her article published in 2009, Alami asserts that the majority of Lebanese shoppers are advocates of prestige and somehow generate 70% of the overall local retail sales. Besides, the study of Pons et al. (2006) concludes that most Lebanese show a great likelihood to appreciate crowded retailing spaces. Based on these

readings, one could question the influences of motivational elements on local shoppers' responses via the following hypothesis:

H6: *Shopping motivations are associated with shoppers' responses*

Below is an illustration that summarizes the discussions pertaining to the hypotheses of our study:

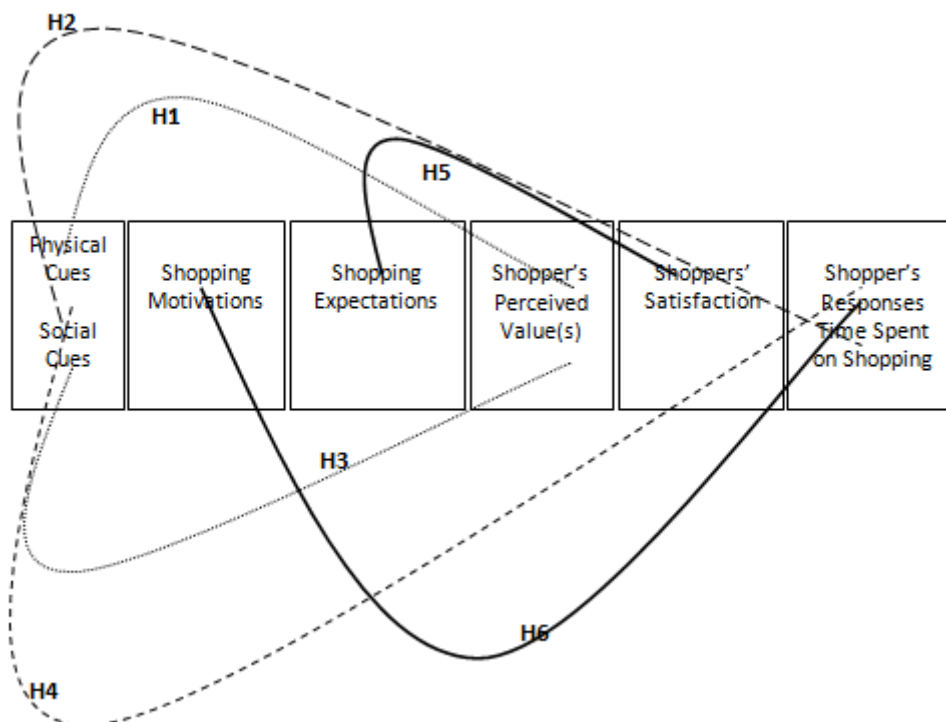


Figure 1. Conceptual framework illustrating the hypotheses pertaining to our study.

We will elaborate next the methodological approaches related to our empirical studies.

Later, our proper findings will be presented followed by the conclusion.

Research Methodology

This paper follows the deductive approach and identifies the theory as key for greatest outcomes. Dising (1971) admitted that no single sampling technique is able to provide scholars with a global understanding of the phenomenon in question. It is from this outlook that our study encompasses an accumulation of both qualitative and quantitative research paradigms – triangulation in order to collect the

targeted information. In other words, we followed the “positivism-interpretivism” approach supporting the reading of Farrer (1984). Accordingly, a mixture of focus-group interviews, supermarket-intercept interviews, and on-site individual observations constituted the main data collection tools of this paper. As it was not feasible to conduct this study in all local retailing outlets due to target markets and

buying-power differences, the Lebanese supermarket sector was the prime concentration of our empirical study. It is noteworthy that this sector holds a significant fortune in its atmospherics, due to the growth that it has shown in recent years. Not to also neglect the common wants that shoppers somehow seek in order to fulfil their needs, when visiting such type of outlets.

The governorate of Mount-Lebanon was chosen as the main geographical area for our investigation due to the large proportion of local inhabitants that it holds, roughly 38 %, compared to alternative areas (Lebanese Ministry of Environment, 2011).

Data Collection and Sample Description

In this section, we will elaborate the entire sampling approaches adopted for the collection of data.

Initial Preliminary Study: Supermarket-Intercept Interviews

We decided to adopt a “descriptive”, “cross-sectional” survey design in order to collect the information related to our initial preliminary study. An aggregated number of 300 shoppers equally distributed over 4 supermarkets in the area of Mount-Lebanon were questioned about the most influential decision maker in their family, his/her gender, marital status, and age category, using a questionnaire of closed-ended questions. Responses were collected from the most crowded supermarkets in the governorate based on the report of the Lebanese Ministry of Economy and Trade (2013). More specifically, Le Charcutier in Zouk Mosbeh, Spinneys in Dbayeh and in Byblos, and Fahed in Furn-Chebbak were the four selected supermarkets representing the four core districts of the governorate where our stratified sampling technique took place. It is also crucial to mention the relevance of our sample since Malhotra (2008) emphasizes that the minimum sample size array for such preliminary research is 200 participants.

Secondary Preliminary Study: Focus Groups

After thoroughly analyzing the results of our initial preliminary study, 20 volunteer shoppers representing the targeted population were invited to be part of an exploratory research conducted in the form of 2 focus-group interviews of 10 participants each. The focus groups were separately conducted but at once, in order to agree on the anticipated lists of attributes relevant to our variables. Moreover, this type of research, qualitative in nature, was implemented in order to determine a supermarket's two most impactful physical stimuli and one social stimulus to take part in our empirical examination, as it is scientifically recognized that it is very costly and irrelevant to investigate all atmospherics elements available in a particular supermarket. In this context, participants were also asked to rank the most effective physical and social cues that they believe to be crucial. Based on the outcomes of these focus groups, atmospheric elements under final study are listed in the below-listed sub-hypotheses:

H1a: *Perception of supermarket illumination is associated with shoppers' perceived value(s)*

H1b: *Perception of supermarket temperature is associated with shoppers' perceived value(s)*

H2a: *Perception of supermarket illumination is associated with the length of time spent on shopping*

H2b: *Perception of supermarket temperature is associated with the length of time spent on shopping*

H3: *Perception of supermarket front-of-house employees is associated with shoppers' perceived value(s)*

H4: *Perception of supermarket front-of-house employees is associated with shoppers' response(s)*

Below is a table that summarizes the variables related to our study:

Table 1: Summary of the Dependent and Independent Variables Pertinent to our Study

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable
1	Shoppers' Perceived Value(s)	Supermarket Illumination Supermarket Temperature
2	Length of Shopping Time Spent	Supermarket Illumination Supermarket Temperature
3	Shoppers' Perceived Value(s)	Supermarket Front-of-House Employees
4	Shoppers' Response(s)	Supermarket Front-of-House Employees
5	Shoppers' Satisfaction	Shopping Expectations
6	Shoppers' Response(s)	Shopping Motivations

Questionnaire: Supermarket-Intercept Interviews

Based on the assumptions of the previously presented preliminary studies, a closed-ended five-point Likert-scale questionnaire was distributed to a total number of 240 shoppers using a non-probability, judgmental sampling since participants were selected based on their gender, marital status, and age category. From this perspective, individual married women, having at least 1 child and aged between 35 and 49 years old were directly intercepted. In other words, information related to the above-mentioned criteria was collected at the entrance of each supermarket, while all remaining questions were kept up until exit. Data collection equally took place at the previously mentioned four supermarkets during the month of November 2013, one day each on weekdays, and weekend. Our secondary data collected from supermarket managers showed that an average of 68 women satisfying our selection criteria visits a supermarket on a normal day. This led us to a typical aggregation of 544 shoppers somehow distributed over the 8 days of data collection. Based on the sample-size table proposed by Kreijcie and Morgan (1970), 240

responses are seen as adequate for such an estimated population.

On-Site Individual Observations

This cross-sectional research was adopted in order to test the degree of correlation between illumination, temperature, and front-of-house employees representing supermarket atmospherics, shoppers' perceived value(s) and response(s). Without any sign, the behaviours of the 240 shoppers interviewed at the entrance of the supermarkets were observed and registered using an observation grid. We followed the "complete participant" role suggested by Gill and Johnson (2010) by discreetly integrating ourselves as regular shoppers amongst the others in order to register the data.

Data Analysis

We adopted cognitive mapping in order to interpret the information collected from the focus groups. This concept, which relies on nodes, has lately been widely applied due to its simplicity and remarkable visual demonstration and cognitive meanings. Cronbach's Alpha test was also conducted in order to assess the reliability of our variables. Spearman correlation, one-way ANOVA, and regression analysis were

also applied in order to test the level of correlation, differences of means, and

predictions of variables, respectively. Outcomes were analysed using SPSS 20 software.

Research Findings

This section presents the findings related to our empirical study. It goes into depth to show all statistical methods adopted in order to respond to the research questions and to test the validity of our hypotheses, listed in sections one and two.

Supermarket-Intercept and Focus-Group Interviews as Preliminary Studies

Abiding by the methodology, the two preliminary studies aimed to categorize the elements under final study. Thus, outcomes generated from supermarket-intercept interviews showed that individual married women are considered the most influential family/household decision makers, roughly constituting a ratio of 84.5% of all individual female respondents. Furthermore, the statistics showed that 78% of these females have at least one child. Finally, almost 86.5% of those married females were aged between 35 and 49 years old, constituting, then, the focal characteristics of our sample.

Moving to the focus-group interviews, debatable open discussions took place in order to explore the attitudes of participants and the causes behind their opinions. Regarding the social cues, participants largely agreed that front-of-house employees have greater tendencies to exert certain internal and behavioural responses on buyers than the other shoppers available due to regular and direct interactions. This may perhaps significantly affect the perceived values of shoppers.

Moving to the physical cues, the majority of participants agreed that supermarket temperature and illumination are critical elements that merchants must carefully manage.

In other words, uncomfortable hot or cold temperature may induce shoppers to interrupt their shopping activities. Moreover, strong and soft illuminations may enable easy movements and tranquil feelings respectively, yet few participants highlighted the intensity on eyes, and sleepiness, that strong and soft lightings might incite. It is also worth mentioning that smell and music followed temperature and illumination in their degree of importance as both were perceived to possibly lead to substantial consequences such as happiness, escapism, and arousal.

To conclude with the common attributes agreed upon, after providing participants with series of keywords relevant to the phenomenon in question, lists of attributes pertaining to variables were generated in order to come up with the core components of our questionnaire and observation grid.

Test of Alpha Cronbach

As discussed earlier, we decided to apply this coefficient in order to measure the level of internal consistency and reliability of variables related to our questionnaire distributed during the supermarket-intercept interviews. Below is a table that summarizes the outcomes of this test, taking into account that a coefficient of reliability that ranges between 0.7 and 0.9 is considered adequate (Cronbach, 1951).

The level of consistency among attributes related to each variable approximately indicates ideal scores. The score of 0.685 does not necessitate the deletion of any item due to its momentous proximity to adequacy

Table 2: Cronbach's Alpha Test Scores

Variable	Score
Shoppers' Perceived Value(s)	0.685
Supermarket Front-of-House Employees	0.899
Shoppers' Responses	0.849
Shopping Motivations	0.729
Shopping Expectations	0.803
Shopping Satisfaction	0.712

Spearman Correlation Test

We decided to adopt this test due to the non-linearity of all variables belonging to our questionnaire, distributed during the supermarket-intercept interviews. To begin with the correlation between the perception of supermarket front-of-house employees and shoppers' perceived value(s), 300 out of 950 responses were randomly selected using the "random sample of cases" pattern in SPSS software. These responses were the consequence of merging attributes listed in the

test of Alpha Cronbach. Statistically speaking, a sample size is considered representative when its ratio exceeds 20% of the original data merged together. The same concept was applied to the remaining elements of this section.

Outcomes pertaining to Table Three showed a weak correlation between *Perception of supermarket front-of-house employees* and *shoppers' perceived value(s)*. In other words, the association between the variables of Hypothesis Three is "too weak and not meaningful".

Table 3: Correlation – Shoppers' Perceived Value(s)/Front-of-House Employees

		Perceived Value(s)	Employees
<i>Spearman's rho</i>	Perceived Value(s)	Correlation Coefficient	1
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.052
		N	.190
		300	300
Front-of-House Employees	Front-of-House Employees	Correlation Coefficient	.052
		Sig. (1-tailed)	1
		N	.190
		300	300

Table 4: Correlation – Shoppers' Responses/Front-of-House Employees

		Employees	Shoppers' Responses
<i>Spearman's rho</i>	Front-of-House Employees	Correlation Coefficient	1
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.042
		N	.229
		300	300
Shoppers' Responses	Shoppers' Responses	Correlation Coefficient	.042
		Sig. (1-tailed)	1
		N	.229
		300	300

Moving to the correlation between *perception of supermarket front-of-house employees and shoppers' response(s)*, similarly to Table Three, outcomes indicated a “very weak and not meaningful” correlation between the variables of this fourth hypothesis. Concerning Hypothesis

Five; scores revealed a “moderate to low” correlation between *shopping expectations and shoppers' satisfaction*. Finally, Table Six demonstrates a “moderate” correlation between the variables of this sixth hypothesis.

Table 5: Correlation – Shopping Expectations/Shoppers' Satisfaction

			Shopping Expectations	Shoppers' Satisfaction
Spearman's rho	Shopping Expectations	Correlation Coefficient	1	.470
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.	.000
		N	300	300
	Shoppers' Satisfaction	Correlation Coefficient	.470	1
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.
		N	300	300

Table 6: Correlation – Shopping Motivations/Shoppers' Responses

			Shoppers' Responses	Shopping Motivations
Spearman's rho	Shoppers' Responses	Correlation Coefficient	1	.605
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.	.000
		N	300	300
	Shopping Motivations	Correlation Coefficient	.605	1
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.
		N	300	300

Table 7: Cross-Tabulation – Temperature °C/Length of Time Spent on Shopping

		Length of Time Spent on Shopping in minutes					
		Less than 15	15 to 30	30 to 45	45 to 60	More than 60	Total
Temperatures	19°C	6	13	8	3	2	32
	20°C	9	11	9	23	5	57
	21°C	7	8	11	23	12	61
	22°C	2	11	23	18	5	59
	25°C	10	16	3	2	0	31
Aggregate		34	59	54	69	24	240

Test of one-way ANOVA

In this part, we will elaborate the outcomes related to our on-site individual observations. However, before proceeding with the ANOVA test, the following contingency table demonstrates the frequency of temperatures inside the supermarkets versus the length of time spent on shopping.

As Table Seven reveals, 6 out of 240 shoppers stayed less than 15 minutes at a temperature of 19°C; 13 observed shoppers spent between 15 and 30 minutes; followed by 8, 3, and 2 shoppers at time intervals that vary between 30 and 45 minutes, 45 and 60 minutes, and more than one hour correspondingly. Identical interpretations

have been applied to the remaining categories. Similarly to the previous section, 30 responses from each category were randomly chosen using the "random sample of cases" option in SPSS software.

Concerning the ANOVA test that aims to assess the validity of our first two hypotheses by comparing the variances of samples and assessing their differences at 95% confidence interval, as Table Eight proves, the *F* statistic is available in the critical zone, leading scores to be statistically substantial at 0.05. Accordingly, the association between *Perception of supermarket temperature* and *length of time spent on shopping* is valid (H2b).

Table 8: One-Way ANOVA – Temperature/Length of Time Spent on Shopping

Length of Time Spent on Shopping					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	12561	4	3140.251	11.098	.000
Within Groups	41024	143	282.932		
Aggregate	53585	147			

Table 9: One-Way ANOVA – Temperature/Shoppers' Perceived Value(s)

Shoppers' Perceived Value(s)					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5.416	4	1.364	2.716	.030
Within Groups	91.200	182	.497		
Total	96.616	186			

Like the above-mentioned results, the *F* statistic of Table Nine is also available in the critical zone. Therefore, a valid correlation is present between the variables *supermarket temperature* and *shoppers' perceived value(s)* (H1b).

Moving to illumination, observations conducted at the supermarkets revealed constant intensity levels. In other words, illumination was soft, and the merchant perhaps intended to maintain such levels based on particular tests and recommendations. As it is commonly recognized,

variations among independent variables are core conditions for any statistical test. Consequently, the correlation between *supermarket illumination* from one side, and *shoppers' perceived value(s)* and *length of time spent on shopping* from another side, could not be tested (H1a and H2a). Descriptive statistics related to these two hypotheses might provide us with an idea regarding the perception of respondents in this regard (refer to **tables ten and eleven**).

Table 10: Descriptive Statistics: Strong Visual Capabilities

		Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	Disagree	9	3.8	3.8	3.8
	Neutral	45	19.2	19.2	23.00
	Agree	146	60.9	60.9	83.8
	Strongly Agree	40	16.3	16.3	100.0
	Aggregate	240	100.0	100.0	

Table 11: Descriptive Statistics: Shopper Perceived Value(s)

		Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	Strongly disagree	1	.4	.4	.4
	Disagree	15	6.4	6.4	6.8
	Neutral	49	20.8	20.8	27.6
	Agree	150	63.0	63.0	90.7
	Strongly Agree	24	9.5	9.5	100.0
	Aggregate	240	100.0	100.0	

Regression Analysis test

The aim of this test was to measure the level of association between *frequency of monthly shopping* as a control variable, and *length of*

time spent on shopping. In our study, Fisher's test that is present in the critical zone scored 4.28. Therefore, the *frequency of monthly shopping* explained the *length of time spent on shopping* in supermarkets.

Table 12: Regression Analysis – Frequency of Monthly Shopping/Length of Time Spent on Shopping

R	Adjusted Square	RStd. Error of Estimate	Change Statistics		
			R Square Change	Square F Change	Sig. Change
.135 ^a	.017	18.1306	.017	4.28	1 232.040

a. Predictors: (Constant) – Frequency of Shopping per Month

The following illustration presents a summary of our hypotheses testing.

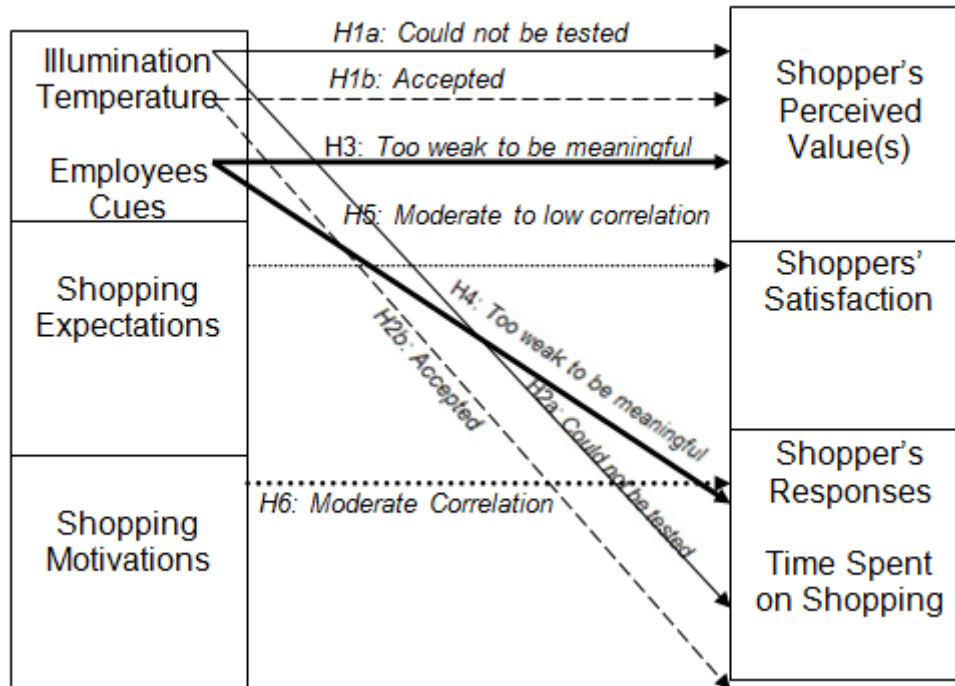


Figure 2. Conceptual framework illustrating the Outcomes of hypotheses testing related to our study.

Discussion of Results and Conclusion

Our study demonstrates that the “S-O-R” model represents the “pulsating soul” of all theories elaborated in this paper. The outcomes show that motivational factors such as personal and recreational ones differ between shoppers, and guide them to exercise various behavioural outcomes such as time invested in shopping, and repurchase intentions. This is somehow similar to the conclusions generated by Childers et al. (2001) and Walters and Jamil (2003), as both affirmed the importance of personal factors in this regard. Yet, our outcomes were not aligned with the results of Bell et al. (2011), who gave greater importance to social factors.

Concerning shopping expectations, our results somehow demonstrate average to low effects on Lebanese shoppers' satisfaction. Such outcomes slightly support the findings of Darian et al. (2005), who focused heavily on the importance of meeting expectations mainly related to quality and price. Moreover, our responses support the “two-factor theory” in terms of the neutrality that might be created when assessing the level of satisfaction of shoppers.

Moving to social cues, weak correlations are found to be present between both front-of-house employees, and shoppers' internal responses and behaviours. Politeness and accurate responses constituted the main attributes related to this variable. The results somehow contradict those of Sharma and Stafford (2000), who revealed higher importance in this regard. This also concludes that Lebanese shoppers do not value the presence of customer service employees and their presence unless a particular type of assistance is needed. Furthermore, such findings bring into line the social stimuli not illustrated in the model of Mehrabian and Russell (1974), showing the greater importance of physical stimuli in this regard.

At a final stage, our findings show the importance of adequate temperature in appealing to shoppers and positively influencing their behaviours. It is from this perspective that such results perfectly match with the conclusion of Belliveau et al. (2002) and the S-O-R model proposed by Mehrabian and Russell in 1974.

Regarding illumination, the presence of consistent levels of light did not facilitate our anticipated empirical tests. Therefore, it is quite difficult to scientifically support the model of Mehrabian and Russell (1974) and the conclusion of Winchip (2008) despite the concrete positive evidences that soft lighting showed in line with the standardized intensity level and outcomes related to our descriptive statistics.

To sum up, this paper of Lebanese context proves that married mothers aged between 35 and 49 years old are considered to be "*Commissioned Shoppers*" delegated to conduct all supermarket acquisitions on behalf of all her family/household members. In addition, Lebanese shoppers are seen to be greatly affected by supermarkets' temperature and possibly lighting rather than front-of-house employees. Our findings in this regard show that 21°C is almost the ideal temperature to be maintained in local supermarkets. From another perspective, our findings somehow verify the personal characteristics and motivational factors that each shopper holds, and that may determine his/her buying responses. Lastly, our results are almost aligned with the hierarchy of effects theory as local shoppers mainly learned about the supermarket after being exposed to particular environmental stimuli. As a result, feelings were formed leading to appropriate levels of both satisfaction and behavioural outcomes.

At a final stage, retailers, marketing researchers as well as all stakeholders listed in the introduction could benefit from the outcomes of this study in order to further develop their knowledge and understanding in this regard. According to his/her background and occupation, each one will then be able to update this study, discuss its outcomes with colleagues, and/or implement it in order to build and extend "profitable customer relationships".

Limitations of the Study

Despite the varied methodological approaches adopted, this paper presents the following limitations:

The experimentation method could have provided us with additional accurate results regarding the impact of atmospherics, especially illumination, on shoppers. Yet, merchants did not grant us the authorization to conduct such an approach due to the negative consequences and high risks related to it. Additionally, laboratory experiments were also seen to not be accurate due to the high cost and biases that could have been generated if adopted.

Besides, the integration of income data questions is relatively essential due to the accuracy that it may generate in determining the buying power of shoppers and their level of expectation. Likewise, merchants prompted us to remove such questions due to cultural aspects and privacy issues.

The last limitation is related to the availability of particular information, such as shopping list and carrier type, as these may assist in determining the factors affecting the length of time spent, and unplanned purchases.

Future Researches

As initially discussed, this paper is considered as a local pioneer in terms of the subject it explores. Since this is a new marketing subject in Lebanon, we believe that this paper would be a great potential informant for additional studies in this regard. Hence, it would be important to test the degree of effectiveness of such atmospherics in multiple and smaller retail settings, such as apparel shops and furnishing houses, as these latter establishments are smaller in surface area and may also perhaps allow the investigation of additional atmospheric elements.

It would also be significant to study how such atmospherics could encourage the conduct of unplanned purchases. It is also vital not to

neglect the characteristics and physiological conditions that each shopper may hold in this regard.

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A REVIEW OF SALES MANAGER MONITORING: CONTROL TOOL AND OUTCOMES

Susan DelVecchio & Joey Bryan

Abstract:

While monitoring salespeople has long been studied, we have yet to confirm theoretical contentions. From a practical standpoint, we have not yet isolated and examined the effect managerial monitoring has on sales subordinates. Thus we reviewed empirical literature which report monitoring effects, pooled those results and examined three research issues. First we tested the expectation that managers' use of monitoring was part of a systematic method of controlling salespeople. Second we examined whether monitoring resulted in positive or negative outcomes. In this compilation of over one hundred effect sizes we found only one control component shared a relationship with monitoring, that salespeople respond favorably to monitoring. Finally new forms of technologically enhanced monitoring seem to have a strong effect on quantitative performance. Overall results here suggest sales management use of monitoring a field sales force may add a level of transparency that gives guidance rather than restrictions.

Keywords: *Monitoring, Salesperson, Managerial, Sales, Technology-monitoring*

Classification: *Research paper/ Literature Review*

A Review of Sales Manager Monitoring: Control Tool and Outcomes

While monitoring is a basic part of any sales managers' responsibility, field sales managers find monitoring especially challenging (Challagalla, Shervani and Huber 2000). As such, monitoring a geographically dispersed set of subordinates requires both time and financial resources (Davison 2003). As the average span of control increases, sales managers will be called upon to engage in even more monitoring (Wulf

2012). Given the future trends and current costs, it is important to understand how monitoring affects sales force management. Academicians are not new to this effort and have given some consideration to this managerial practice (Klein 2001). Thus we capitalize on these research efforts by isolating the monitoring measure in these studies to examine its impact. In so doing we attempt to address three issues concerning sales manager monitoring.

The first issue concerns the interplay of managerial monitoring with sales manager behaviors. Some claim that monitoring is used systematically (Anderson 1985; Bartol 1999; Miao and Evans 2013), and still others point to the wild variation with which monitoring is being applied (Anderson and Onyemah 2006). To gain insights into this issue, we pool results from studies to examine monitoring's correlations

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with other managerial behaviors. The second controversy examined is the effect monitoring has on the salesperson, since monitoring may be viewed by the salesperson as an imposition or restriction. Thus, a second set of analyses pools results to test for effects on salespeople. Finally, the third issue concerns technological advancements in monitoring and seeks to compare studies that specifically refer to computer-based methods. Like the previous two issues, this third one attempts to address a point of controversy. Technologically enhanced forms of monitoring may be more powerful, and thus may have a different and more dramatic effect on monitoring.

In summary, pooled correlations from relevant past sales management studies will be used to answer three questions: (1) Is monitoring a systematic part of sales manager behaviors? (2) Does monitoring have a positive or negative effect on salespeople? and (3) Do technological forms of monitoring have a stronger effect than simple observation?

Monitoring and other Sales Manager Behaviors

Theoretically, monitoring should be used as part of an overall sales management control system (Anderson and Oliver 1987). The theory has received some support and is conceptually compelling, but not all sales management researchers agree on its applicability (Schepers et al 2012; Darmon and Martin 2011). To address this controversy we pool results from studies that isolate monitoring measures. When monitoring alone is examined, we can gain insight into whether it is being used in a manner consistent with theory. If monitoring is being used systematically, then studying the effect in combination with other sales management control components is required. If, however, monitoring is not being used systematically, then this analysis needs to isolate all variables to find

out if monitoring alone (or used as part of a system) has a positive or negative effect on overall performance.

Since managerial monitoring takes time and effort, field sales managers should be using it as part of an overall system. This expectation is a central theme of Agency Theory, which contends it is more efficient to use a commission when management emphasizes achieving revenue goals – and to monitor when the compensation is in the form of salary (Bartol 1999; Basu, et al 1985). High levels of monitoring theoretically are part of a behavioral control system. Conceptually managers will monitor extensively when the selling firm wants to encourage specific sales behaviors such as highly customized sales solutions. Thus, the manager sets priorities (i.e. types of customer solutions) and rewards when those behaviors are observed. Alternatively monitoring should not accompany a highly incentivized/variable compensation system, but rather should be inversely related to setting priorities (since achieving the revenue goal is the basis for compensation).

Monitoring, however, tends to be one of the more divergent parts of control systems (Anderson and Onyemah 2006). Control systems tend to be described as hybrid, rather than falling into either behavioral or outcome control systems. This pattern of ‘hybrid’ rather than pure forms of control systems suggests that monitoring is not used by managers as expected. By pooling results across studies that provide measures of monitoring’s effect alone this research effort can address this controversy. We examine the pooled correlations between monitoring and other sales manager control behaviors (such as evaluating, directing, etc.). Thus, the first research question and possible answers stated in hypotheses forms are:

RQ1: Is monitoring significantly correlated with other sales management behaviors?

H_{controlSystem}: Monitoring should be inversely related to use of commission.

High monitor when compensation is salary based.

Monitoring should be positively related to sm directive behavior

Low monitoring when sm is participative.

H_{Null} : Monitoring relationship to compensation system too diverse,
not related to commission

(will monitor salaried as well as commission salespeople)

not related to leadership style

(will monitor to direct or to guide)

Monitoring effect on Salesperson

The second controversy concerns the impact sales manager monitoring may have over the field salesperson. Two theories offer explanations for managerial monitoring: one explaining positive effects and the other demonstrating negative effects. Specifically, Foucault (1980) contends that managerial monitoring can have a positive effect because it provides a full or panoramic view of subordinate's activities. Self-Determination theory, however, takes a different view of monitoring. The work of Deci and Ryan (1985; 1989) characterizes the effect of monitoring as of imposing choices and reducing the autonomy of the salesperson. The following sections provide a description of each theoretical process.

The panoptic view of monitoring emphasizes the ability of monitoring to observe a wide array of behaviors. When managers monitor at a high level, that is are able to take not just an isolated view but monitor to the extent that their view is panoramic, then subordinates are effected. This effect is initially one of compliance because the subordinate knows they are being monitored (Faubion 1994). Since many actions are being monitored, these actions over time tend to become a consistent set of behaviors. Subordinates who know they are being monitored on a wide array of behaviors move from compliance to internalizing the values reflected in these sets of actions (Valikangas and Seeck 2011; Foucault 1980; Faubion 1994). Under conditions of monitoring, the subordinate will move beyond compliance

with a set of actions to internalize the values to self-correct (Barratt 2002; Foucault 1982).

When applied to the field sales setting, Foucault's theory would suggest that a sales manager who engages in a high level of monitoring would monitor a set of actions beyond achievement of quota (such as the degree to which the salesperson does pre-call planning and adapts each sales presentation). When a full set of customer-centric sales behaviors are being monitored the salesperson will initially comply. Since monitoring at this level is not restricted by topic or time, the salesperson's compliance will be consistent. The adoption and replication of these behaviors will result in the salesperson internalizing the values reflected in these behaviors (Elmes, Strong and Volkoff 2005). Thus, panoptic theory claims that monitoring will initially increase actions and over time internalize the attitudes reflected in those actions (Kosmala and McKernan 2011).

Self-determination theory takes a decidedly different view of monitoring. When monitoring is performed for the purposes of controlling, subordinate reactions are likely to be negative. Managerial monitoring gives directives to the subordinate on precisely what behaviors are acceptable. Conceptually a high level of monitoring will observe a wide set of behaviors and prescribe the form for each behavior. At this level, monitoring gives directives and removes volition or autonomy (Enzle and Anderson 1993; Gagne and Deci 2005). The monitored subordinate is less likely to feel autonomous. Monitoring also has the effect of undermining the subordinate's feelings of

competence as managerial monitoring implies the subordinates' abilities are insufficient (Jensen and Raver 2012; Shalley and Perry-Smith 2001). Self-determination theory contends a subordinate needs to feel both autonomous and competent in order to maximize their potential (Roca and Gagne 2008).

When applied to the sales field setting, self-determination theory would suggest that a sales manager who engaged in a high level of monitoring is doing so to control every step of the sales cycle (from prospecting to closing). As the name of the theory implies, this perceived level of managerial control robs the salesperson of feeling self-determined (or feelings of autonomy). Theoretically, the best results, those that are motivated intrinsically, will only occur when a course of action is self-determined. For the field salesperson who must operate independently to solve ambiguous problems, the controlling effect of monitoring should carry negative externalities. Sales subordinates will perceive managerial monitoring as restrictive, and thus may harm their ability to respond to a wide array of customer needs (O'Donnel, Ryan and Jetten 2012). Adaptive selling behaviors,

therefore, will suffer since the monitored salesperson will realize that the degree of flexibility or adaptations are limited. According to self-determination theory, the monitored salesperson will experience reduced feelings of competency (as monitoring implies their judgment and ability are insufficient) (Deci, Connell and Ryan 1989; Vansteenkiste et al 2007). Lacking the feelings of both autonomy and competency, the monitored salesperson's intrinsic motivation will be thwarted (Deci and Ryan 1987; Gagne and Bhave 2011). In summary – but arrive at different conclusions (See Table 1 for Comparisons). Both theories address the issue of the subordinate being aware of the monitored condition, but arrive at divergent conclusions. In short, the positive effect of monitoring is based on the ability of monitoring to illuminate the expected behaviors and the negative effect is based on the ability of monitoring to enforce those same behaviors. The second research question and opposing hypotheses are as follows:

RQ2: Is monitoring effect on salesperson positive or negative?

$H_{\text{PanopticTheory}+}$: Monitoring will have a positive effect on salespeople.
High levels of monitoring will encourage positive selling behaviors.
High levels of monitoring will be positively related to intrinsic motivation.

$H_{\text{SelfDetermTheory}-}$: Monitoring will have a negative effect on salespeople.
High levels of monitoring will discourage positive selling behaviors.
High levels of monitoring will be inversely related to intrinsic motivation

Table 1: Positive or Negative Effect of Monitoring Summary of Panoptic Theory and Self-Determination Theory	
Panoptic theory (seeing everything, everyone, all the time)	Self Determination Theory (self, <small>not other</small> , selected+monitored behavior is best)
<p>The act of monitoring gives cues as to desired behaviors.</p> <p>Giving cues increases information to those being monitored.</p> <p>More monitoring (more types of behaviors being monitored, more time spans, etc.) gives more cues to those being watched as well as more information to those doing the monitoring.</p> <p>Over time those being monitored internalize the cues and become self-monitoring (adopt the desired behaviors).</p> <p>Monitoring serves to dissipate power. Those being monitored know the methods of being monitored, the reasons for being monitored and over time self monitor.</p> <p>Employee is a self-enterprise (over the course of career, changes+develops skills, networks, etc.).</p> <p>Monitoring empowers because those being monitored know what data is being collected, know when it is collected – and can use this data to achieve their goals.</p>	<p>The act of monitoring gives directives as to desired behaviors</p> <p>Directing reduces autonomy of those being monitored.</p> <p>More monitoring (more types of behaviors, time spans etc.) gives less choice to those being watched and gives more control to those doing the monitoring.</p> <p>Over time monitoring will drive out task enjoyment, intrinsic motivation and self-directed behavior.</p> <p>Monitoring serves to concentrate power. Those being monitored know the purposes behind monitoring (and not their own choices) determine behavior.</p> <p>Employee is a resource to be managed, an asset or investment which can be maximized.</p> <p>Monitoring enslaves because those being monitored know the data is being collected, know when it is collected – and infer the purposes to be controlling how they achieve goals.</p>
Foucault 1980; 1982; 2002	Deci & Ryan (1985)

Technologically Enhanced Monitoring

Just as the salesperson has integrated the use of sales force automation and CRM tools into their everyday work, so too have their sales managers. The market for employee monitoring software and hardware is substantial and growing (Awareness Technologies Advisory 2011). No longer restricted to face-to-face, direct observation, today's field sales manager has a vast array of monitoring tools at his disposal. Every time a salesperson uses his or her laptop, a trace is created, which can be monitored. For example using events timeline logging, a manager can know how long each program was used, the websites visited and the documents printed. Sales organizations are using software like LaunchForce that tracks salesperson's use of information sources (Weinreb 2002). According to annual surveys conducted by American Management Association, there has been a steady increase in employee monitoring (American Management Association 2008). Unlike other forms of monitoring, technologically enhanced methods provide voluminous data about multiple dimensions of performance. In fact electronic forms of managerial monitoring have been described as more pervasive and precise than direct personal observation (Aiello 1993). The use of technology to monitor employee performance is not new to more traditional work settings and has been studied in call centers as well as factory floors. Much of this work claims monitoring these less ambiguous tasks electronically differs from direct observation, and meta-analyses verify this point (Carroll 2008; Kluger and DeNisi 1996). The majority of these studies arrive at the same conclusion that monitoring simple tasks tend to emphasize quantitative indicators over qualitative. Further,

these aggregations and comparisons of monitoring studies conclude the reactions to electronic forms of monitoring are far more varied and less uniform than direct observation. Unfortunately, this wide array of responses leaves the direction of the responses obscured. Given that sales managers are increasing their use of sophisticated tools to monitor their field salespeople, this lack of clarity is problematic. Studies that compare modes of monitoring are similarly inconclusive regarding task performance. Results have been mixed among studies that compare technologically enhanced methods of monitoring (summarized on Table 2). Compared to face-to-face or direct observation, McNall and Roch (2007) determined that computer-based monitoring provided better results. However, Stanton and Sarkar-Barney (2003) found that computer-mediated monitoring proved less effective than direct observation. Even among studies comparing computer-based monitoring to no monitoring, there is little agreement. While Mallo et al (2007) found harmful effects of computer monitoring, Lount and Wilk (2013) observed that computer monitoring resulted in increased performance levels. Thus, there seems to be just as much evidence of a positive as a negative effect. The majority of studies to date, however, seem to agree that the new forms of technology-based monitoring methods are generating more varied reactions. These forms of monitoring are growing in scope. Unfortunately, to date, we cannot be sure these methods help or harm salesperson performance. Therefore, we sought to explore the degree to which change (either positive or negative) has occurred in the monitoring-performance relationship.

RQ3: Does sales performance differ under technologically enhanced managerial monitoring?

$H_{\text{TechDiffers}}$: Performance results will differ when monitoring involves the use of technology.

$H_{\text{Null TechSame}}$: Performance results will be unaffected by the use of technology to monitor.

Table 2: Summary of Management Studies (Comparative Modes of Monitoring)						
Authors	Year	Setting	Monitoring Methods Compared	Participants And Task	n	Findings/Conclusions
Stanton& Sarkar-Barney	2003	Lab Experiment	Direct observation to computer monitored	Students-detect and correct data entry errors	115	Compared f2f, cptr monitor and no monitor conditions: Found f2f better than cptr monitor over time.
Mallo, Nordstrom, Bartels and Traxler	2007	Lab Experiment	Computer monitor to no monitoring	Students and Community Volunteers	163	Monitoring difficult tasks resulted in lower performance. Significant task difficulty by monitoring status interaction (after controlling for computer experience).
Jensen and Raver	2012	Field Survey	Reactions to new monitoring system	Cross section full time employees	211	Self-management less likely when monitored
Watson, Thompson, Rudolph, Behrend& Gissel	2013	Lab Experiment	Computer monitoring to No monitoring	Students with basic working knowledge of Excel e-learned advanced Excel tools	153	When e-learners who are externally motivated are aware of monitoring they react negatively .
McNall&Roch	2007	Lab Survey	Direct obs. to computer monitored	Students assigned textbook sales representative scenarios	248	Computer monitored subjects rated feedback as more objective, unbiased & immediate than direct observation subjects.
Goomas and Ludwig	2009	Field Experiment	Synchronous to asynchronous monitoring	Distribution Center Employees	24	Monitoring more effective because feedback on task delivered closer to performance of task.
Lount&Wilkinson	2013	Field Experiment	Posting perf to not posting perf.	Mkt Research Firm Employees	737	Perf level on group task higher (than perf level on an individual task) when monitoring and posting present.
Sarpon&Rees	2014	Field Study	Qual – interviews pre+post new tech monitor	Medical Service Providers (Staff and Mgmt)	15	Service of customers: "general feeling monitoring is ideal for safety of patients". "All managers felt electronic monitoring has improved performance."

METHOD

Collection of Studies and Coding

Sales management studies that measured managerial monitoring and reported sufficient descriptions of that measure (i.e. a list of scale items and correlations with other variables) were compiled. Given these criteria, we identified thirteen published and peer-reviewed sales management studies. Because monitoring was the focal point of this aggregation, two

researchers reviewed the monitoring measures (i.e. conceptual and operational definitions) to assure the same construct was common to studies included in the meta-analyses. (See Table #3 for list of Studies and Monitoring Measure).

To be included in this analysis, therefore, studies that were too generic were not classified as sufficiently similar to monitoring (the gathering of information about salesperson actions). Studies that did not report results of monitoring as a separate construct (i.e. combined monitoring with other managerial behaviors such as rewarding or evaluating to form a measure of control systems) were excluded from this aggregation as well.

The resultant studies provided measures of monitoring from the viewpoint of the salesperson as well as sales managers. This set of studies provides the opportunity to examine patterns across a wide array of countries (eleven countries represented on Table 4). Both homogeneous samples (i.e. five of the 13 studies report responses from one firm) as well as those from cross sectional studies are included.

For each of the three research questions we examined monitoring's relationship with a relevant set of variables. To examine the degree to which monitoring was being used in conjunction with other managerial actions (RQ1), we gathered bivariate relationships between monitoring and compensation system

(proportion of variable or incentive income), as well as sales manager directing or participative behaviors, setting priorities, evaluating and frequency of working with sales person. Based on these results, we then examined correlations with salesperson actions to address RQ2 (e.g. adaptive selling behaviors, planning, presenting and sales support) as well as attitudes (e.g. intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction). Finally, we collected correlations between monitoring and salesperson performance (qualitative and quantitative) to test RQ3.

Bivariate correlations were adjusted for coefficient alpha indicators of internal reliabilities (where available). These corrected correlations were converted to Fisher Z values and the degree to which these values differed from the average weighted (by sample size) Fisher Z provided a test of heterogeneity. Chi square values with associated probability values more than 0.01 implied a set of effect sizes were similar. Every comparison that demonstrated significant heterogeneity of effect sizes was subjected to an outlier analyses. Determination of outliers was first and foremost based on the variable measured (e.g. the degree of similarity of 'participative decision making' to 'giving salesperson autonomy') then on the source of the respondent (e.g. sales manager self report or salesperson). In every situation (of dropping outliers) we found the conclusion of heterogeneity did not change.

Table 3: Monitoring Studies: Measures and Respondents

<u>Author</u>	<u>Year</u>	<u>Monitoring Variable</u>	<u># of Items</u>	<u>Respondent</u>	<u>Monitoring scale item (sample items)</u>
Asiegbu, Amah&Odili	2012	Use of Dashboard to monitor	4	Mktg Exec	Degree to which dashboard used to monitor sales activities.
Babakus et al.	1996	Extent of SM monitoring	8	SP SM	Regularly review call reports from sp. Monitor the day-to-day activities of sp. Pay attention to the extent to which sp travel. Closely watch sp's expense accounts.
Baldauf, Cravens&Grant	2002	Extent of sm's monitoring activities	3	SM	Regularly review call reports from sp. Pay attention to the extent to which sp travel Closely watch sp expense accounts.
Cicala et al.	2014	SM's use of information	3	SP	SM use of tech to hold sp accountable. SM use of tech to improve sp performance. SM use tech to provide better sp eval.
Eggert &Serdaroglu	2011	SM' SFA control	5	SP	My mgr monitors my SFA use. My mgr informs me on whether I meet expectations on SFA use.
Murphy&Li	2012	Monitor	4	SP	Sales manager closely monitors my sales perf. The number of sales calls are closely monitored. Sales manager closely oversees sales present.
Murtha,Challagall & Kohli	2011	Management monitoring	3	SP	Mgmt is actively involved with this customer. Mgmt closely monitors our progress w/custmr.
Onyemah&Anderson	2009	Degree of management monitoring	6	SP	Management tracks my activities. Management keeps a close watch on my time. Management checks to see if I'm following its instructions.
Onyemah,Swain & Hanna	2010	Monitoring of SP's activities	3	SP	SM keeps a close watch on how I spend time. SM checks to see if I am following instructions.
Rapp, Ahearne,Mathieu&Rapp	2010	Action Processes	4	SP	Monitoring progress towards goals; Team monitor and back up behavior systms. Monitoring- track resources,etc.
Sabnis et al.	2013	Managerial Tracking	5	SP	Call reports are used extensively by mgmt to track the follow-up of leads by sp. Uses lead tracking software system to monitor the follow up of leads by sp.
Schepers et al	2012	Agency control: monitoring	4	SP	The extent to which I follow established service procedures is critically monitored. Feedback on how to accomplish my performance goals is frequently communicated to me.
Theodosiou& Katsikea	2007	Monitoring	3	SP	Regularly reviews overseas visits/call reports. Monitors day to day activities.

Table 4: Monitoring Studies Selling Contexts

<u>Authors</u>	<u>Year</u>	<u>Industries</u>	<u>Firms</u>	<u># of Respondents</u>	<u>Countries</u>
Asiegbu, Amah and Odili	2012	Manufacturing	36	135	Nigeria
Babakus, Cravens, Grant, Ingram & LaForge	1996	Consumer and Industrial Products	58	204	Australia
Baldauf, Cravens & Grant	2002	Mix: 73% consumer 27% Industrial	Not Reported	306	Austria Australia
Cicala, Bush, Sherrell & Deitz	2014	Business to Business	Not Reported	253	USA
Eggert & Serdaroglu	2011	Pharmaceutical	1	244	Brazil
Murphy & Li	2012	Business to Business	29	888	USA, Canada, Mexico, China, Australia & NewZ.
Murtha, Challagalla & Kohli	2011	Office Equip	1	145	USA
Onyemah & Anderson	2009	4: Pharmaceutical, Info Systems, consumer Goods Industrial Goods	30	1290	USA Spain Nigeria Italy Hungary
Onyemah, Swain & Hanna	2010	Bank	1	82	Nigeria
Rapp, Ahearne, Mathieu & Rapp	2010	Pharmaceutical	1	218	USA
Sabnis, Chatterjee, Grewel & Lilien	2013	4: Scientific Instruments, Chemicals, Copiers, Computer	4	461	USA
Schepers et al	2012	Medical Equip Mfg	1	262	USA
Theodosiou & Katsikea	2007	Export	210	234	UK

RESULTS

To answer the first research question (concerning the degree to which managerial monitoring is related to other sales manager behaviors) we tested monitoring's relationship to a set of variables. Those variables included the sales organizations compensation method (operationalized as the proportion of salary or fixed income) as well as six manager behaviors. These six manager behaviors included directing, evaluating, rewarding, setting priorities, participative decision making and the frequency of contact (face-to-face and working with salesperson). The only relationship on which study results converged was compensation system (See Table #5 Results for RQ1.) While studies agreed on the size and direction of this relationship, the average weighted Fisher Z was

only +0.06. Applying Cohen's guidelines for effect sizes, this result indicates a weak relationship between monitoring and compensation system (proportion of salary). We examined the correlation between salesperson experience level and managerial monitoring and found a significant agreement among studies of an inverse relationship (Fisher Z of -.0317). This negative correlation is as expected (less experience salespeople would be monitored at a higher level) and suggests external validity.

When we combine this consistent but small effect with the results from the other set of managerial behaviors, the pattern of results supports the null hypotheses. Heterogeneity tests of these effect sizes show results across

these studies do not converge. While some of the weighted Fisher Z values are large (e.g. reward at 0.78), none pass the test for similarity. This may suggest the degree to which monitoring shares a relationship with other manager behaviors is too varied to be described as systematic.

Table 5: RQ#1 Monitoring Correlated with other Managerial Behaviors

Variable	Number of Studies	Number of Effect Sizes	Total n	Heterog.Test* Chi-square (df,prob)	Average Weighted Fisher Z
Compensation (Proportion of fixed)	2	2	2178	2.28 (1, .1308)	+0.06
Directing	4	6	2034	148.11 (5, <.0001)	+0.26
Setting Priorities	3	3	1394	189.81 (2, <.0001)	+0.62
Evaluation	4	7	4614	378.61 (6, <.0001)	+0.39
Rewarding	3	5	772	113.84 (4, <.0001)	+0.78
Frequency (working with sp, F2F contact)	3	3	1188	31.85 (2, <.0001)	+0.26
Participative Decision Making (PDM as well as 'gives autonomy', 'encourages sp input')	5	7	3132	66.66 (6, <.0001)	+0.40

* Chi square test hypotheses effects are significantly different. Thus a failure of difference implies similar effects (noted in bold).

To answer the second research question (and provide a test of the positive Panoptic theory hypothesis or the negative one of Self-determination theory), we examined seven salesperson variables. The salesperson variables included attitudinal variables (i.e. motivation and job satisfaction) and salesperson actions such as adaptive selling, planning, presenting, and providing post-sales support. We examined both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and found

studies do agree on the effect monitoring has on intrinsic motivation but diverge regarding extrinsic (See Table 6. The aggregated effect sizes for intrinsic motivation are similar (Chi-square value 8.38 (3, .04)). In aggregating effect sizes to reflect responses from 802 respondents, this analyses indicates monitoring and intrinsic motivation share a moderate but positive relationship with an average weighted Fisher Z of 0.23. This result reflects responses from both

salesperson and manager (thus reducing the possibility that high agreement is due to common source methodology). The degree to which studies agree on the correlation between monitoring and job satisfaction did not exceed

the cutoff of 0.01. At best results indicate marginal homogeneity among the 408 respondents in these studies (i.e. the 0.18 effect size is moderate).

Table 6: RQ#2 - Monitoring Correlated with Salesperson Attitudes and Actions						
Variable	Respondent	Number of Studies	Number of Effect Sizes	Total n	Heterog.Test Chi-square (df,prob)	Average Weighted Fisher Z
Motivation – intrinsic	SM and SP	3	4	802	8.28 (3, .04)	+.23
Motivation – extrinsic (recognition motivation)	SM and SP	3	4	802	40.39 (3, <.0001)	+39
Job Satisfaction	SP	2	2	408	6.31 (1, .01)	+18
Adaptive Selling Behaviors	SP	3	4	686	4.88 (3, .18)	+26
Planning	SP	4	5	904	10.31 (4, .03)	+36
Presenting	SP	3	4	686	3.88 (3, .27)	+24
Sales Support	SP	3	4	686	0.69 (3, .87)	+17
*Chi square test hypotheses effects are significantly different. Thus a failure of difference implies similar effects (noted in bold).						

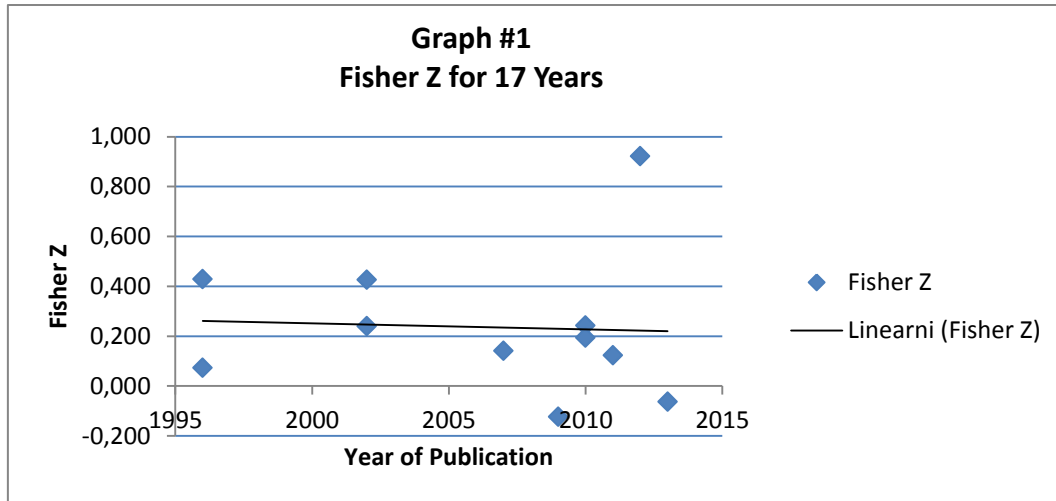
The pattern among actions is far more consistent and together lend support to the notion that monitoring has a positive effect. All four of the salesperson actions (adaptive selling, planning, presenting, and sales support) show agreement across studies (See Table 6 all probabilities are more than 0.01). All four of the salesperson actions are positively correlated with managerial monitoring. Two of the four can be described as large: Adaptive selling behaviors with a 0.26 Average Wtd Fisher Z and planning with a 0.36 Average Wtd Fisher Z. The remaining two are moderate at 0.24 and 0.17 (presenting and sales support respectively). The pattern through out these comparisons is impressive. Whereas few of the sales manager behaviors showed convergence across studies, most of these

salesperson effect comparisons do converge. Five of the seven relationships fail tests of heterogeneity and one of the two passing does so at the 0.01 cutoff. In addition to agreeing on the size of monitoring's effect on salesperson, they agree on the direction. Monitoring may have positive rather than negative effects.

The third research question concerned the form of monitoring and its possible effect on salesperson performance. We examined quantitative measures of performance and found little agreement among monitoring's effect on performance. The chi-square value of 401.15 (2, <.0001) clearly show these thirteen effect sizes for the monitoring-quantitative performance relationship are not the same. To what degree, if any, these differences are due to

the use of technology to monitor was examined by looking for a chronological pattern. A list of the effect sizes spanning seventeen years (from 1984 to 2013) indicates the variation in effect sizes is not following a linear pattern (e.g. a negative small effect size of $-.06$ and a huge positive effect size of over ninety have both

been reported recently). See Graph #1 (17 and 29 year plots). We included 4 earlier studies (i.e. publication dates 1984-1985) studies which refer to “closeness of supervision” to see if a linear pattern exists for a longer (29 year) period. A linear pattern is weak at best in both the 17 year as well as the 29 year comparison.



Because this chronological comparison implied sales managers were integrating technology into their monitoring activities over time, we sought a less assumptive test. We isolated and examined monitoring studies that specifically referred to using technology as a method of monitoring. Among the thirteen studies reporting monitoring measures and correlations, five make specific reference to the use of sales force automation tools by sales managers. The five studies are: Asiegbu et al 2012; Cicala et al 2014; Eggert and Serdaroglu 2011; Sabnis et al 2013; and Rapp et al 2010. (See Table #3 Monitoring Measures). For example Cicala et al asked respondents the degree to which the sales manager “used technology to hold salespeople accountable”, the Sabnis et al (2013) study examined the degree to which management “used lead tracking software system to monitor” and Asiegbu et al (2012) study refers to

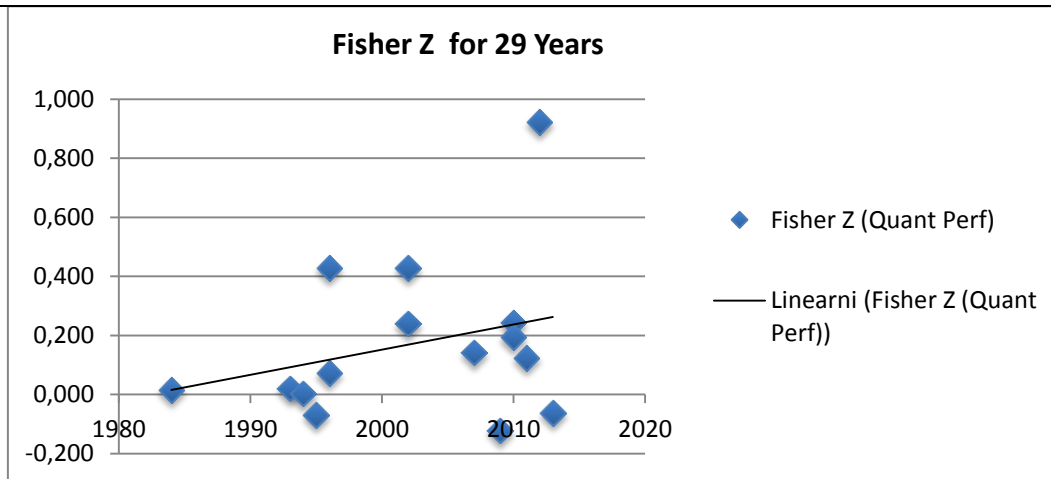
managements use of dashboard functions to monitor.

While the average weighted Fisher Z for the tech-monitoring studies was 0.322, the tests for similarity of these effect sizes generated a large Chi-square (See Table #7). A generous interpretation of this finding may suggest the large effect size (of 0.322) compensated for the non-specific effect size (of 0.0293) to the overall average of 0.1422. This interpretation is generous since none of these effect sizes were similar. This degree of heterogeneity existed in the combination of all studies as well as within the non-specific modes of monitoring studies. The large effect size of tech-monitoring suggests the null (of no effect) may be questionable. To shed light on this question we extended the same analyses to qualitative indicators of sales performance.

Table 7: RQ#3 - Form of Monitoring: Technology Specified or Non-specific form

	Set of Studies Compared	Number of Studies	Number of Effect Sizes	Total n	Heterog.Test Chi-square (df,prob)	Average Weighted Fisher Z
Quantitative (outcome) Performance Indicators	All monitoring	9	13	3444	401.14 (12, <.0001)	+ .142
	Technology Specified	4	6	1328	284.05 (5, <.0001)	+ .322
	Non-specified form	5	7	2116	90.13 (6, <.0001)	+ .0293
Qualitative (outcome) Performance Indicators	All monitoring	8	9	2036	41.03 (8, <.0001)	+ .069
	Technology Specified	3	3	958	25.63 (2, <.0001)	+ .077
	Non-specified form	5	6	1078	9.10 (5, .10)	+ .169

*Chi square test hypotheses effects are significantly different. Thus a failure of difference implies similar effects (noted in bold).



Study	Year	Fisher Z (Quant Perf)	C=closeness M=monitor	Study	Year	Fisher Z (Quant Perf)	C=closeness M=monitor
Behr&Perr	1984	0.015	C	Theodosiou&Katsikea	2007	0.141	M
CrInLaF&yng	1993	0.020	C	Onyemah & Anderson	2009	-0.123	M
Oliver & Anderson	1994	0.002	C	Onyemah,Swain & Hanna	2010	0.242	M
Anderson & Robers	1995	-0.070	C	Rapp,et al	2010	0.193	M
Babakus, et al SM	1996	0.073	M	Eggert &Serdaroglu	2011	0.123	M
Babakus, et al SP	1996	0.428	M	Asiegbu, Amah and Odili	2012	0.922	M
Baldauf, Cravens&Grant- AUSTRALIA	2002	0.427	M	Sabnis, et al	2013	-0.063	M
Baldauf, Cravens&Grant- AUSTRIA	2002	0.240	M				

When the same analyses was conducted using qualitative (rather than quantitative) performance variables a slightly different pattern is suggested. Similar to the quantitative performance relationship, tech-monitoring correlations with qualitative performance are diverse. Unlike quantitative performance, however, the findings of studies using non-specific forms of monitoring do converge (Chi-Square probability of 0.10) albeit with a moderate effect size (Fisher Z of 0.1691). These results suggest some forms of managerial monitoring may influence qualitative performance.

CONCLUSIONS

Overall we found monitoring is not part of a systematic set of managerial actions, but by itself it does have a positive effect on sales subordinate attitudes. While managers have increased their use of technology to monitor salespeople, we found little evidence to suggest newer forms of monitoring have a harmful effect. More specifically, the answer to the first research question testing the degree to which monitoring is part of a sales manager control system is negative. Monitoring shares weak relationship with compensation but beyond this, there is little to suggest monitoring is a part of a systematic part of managerial behaviors. In our test of the second research question we found more support for the Panoptic and positive effect of monitoring. It was impressive the degree to which studies converge on their positive effect sizes. Monitoring does have an effect on salespeople and results strongly suggest monitoring can enhance rather than suppress positive salesperson reactions. There is less clarity surrounding our answer to the third research question (regarding the influence of new forms of monitoring). Salespeople may be reacting with a wider array of responses to monitoring during their customer-interactions. There is a consistent albeit weak relationship between managerial monitoring and

compensation system. Moreover the pattern of findings here suggests this set of studies indicate little convergence of findings. Monitoring does not consistently share relationships with other managerial behaviors. We examined seven manager behaviors to test the degree to which monitoring may be related. Of these seven manager behaviors, only one (compensation system) produced similar findings. Certainly this lack of agreement may be attributable to a variety of selling situations. This makes the agreement we found in other comparisons more meaningful. Specifically we found monitoring effects salespeople.

Six of the seven salesperson variables show agreement across studies. The findings across an array of sales settings shows monitoring has a positive effect on salesperson intrinsic motivation, job satisfaction and sales behaviors. Notable among those behaviors favorably effected by managerial monitoring is salesperson planning. Planning typically shows *during* the sales call, but occurs before customer contact, this suggest managerial monitoring takes forms other than direct observation of the buyer-salesperson interaction. Results suggest monitoring can enhance rather than suppress positive salesperson reactions.

The positive relationship between sales manager monitoring and salesperson intrinsic motivation may place the self-determination theory expectation in question. Self determination claims monitoring reduces internalization of motivation but the consistency across all studies and over 800 respondents implies this may not be the case. This set of findings point to the possibility that Panoptic Theory may be more applicable. Monitoring may have the effect of increasing salesperson's awareness of evaluative criteria being used, may increase the transparency of progress toward those goals and in this way allow the salesperson to be self-managing.

Managerial implications

Concerns about harming salesperson adaptive selling behaviors by engaging in too much monitoring may be unwarranted. Field sales managers may not need to feel as if their monitoring efforts are curtailing salesperson pre-call planning nor after sale support behaviors. In fact, this compilation of empirical results suggest otherwise. Monitoring may be aiding salesperson attitudes. Salespeople who are recipients of managerial monitoring attention are likely to be both intrinsically motivated as well as satisfied with their job. The very act of monitoring lets the salesperson know which behaviors or outcomes are important enough to warrant attention.

Thus monitoring may help provide clarity of expectations to the field salesperson. The investment in technologically sophisticated tools to monitor field salespeople may help clarify salesperson expectations. This comparison of studies, however, does not fully support the notion that this investment will improve sales performance levels. Managers do need to be aware of the likely possibility that technologically enhanced forms of monitoring may generate a more varied set of reactions in final performance measures. Perhaps this lack of effect is related to the inconsistencies in the use of monitoring. We found monitoring was not a consistent part of control – nor did multiple studies converge on whether monitoring was part of a more participative type of management style. Since we know that monitoring has an effect on salespeople, it may be prudent for sales managers to examine the reasons behind monitoring.

Limitations and Future research

Our conclusions regarding the technological forms of monitoring are limited by the fact that a subset of studies specifically referred to the mode of monitoring and the remaining did not. Thus, our comparison was limited to comparing a specific form (i.e. computer mediated) to a non-specified form. This comparison is not as strong as one in which both measures specify the mode of monitoring (e.g. direct observation versus computer mediated). Studies in more traditional work settings suggest computer mediated tend to stimulate quantitative outcomes over qualitative outcomes (Stanton and Julian 2002). While we found more agreement concerning qualitative outcomes, the same cannot be said of quantitative. Thus, future research would be useful to examine the degree to which expenditures on direct observations (or investing in more employee monitoring systems) yield differential qualitative outcomes.

While this comparison of monitoring studies supports the notion monitoring may not be a consistent part of control, we were limited to studies that separated out monitoring measures. Far more studies combine rather than isolate their measures of monitoring. While we were able to examine its effect, we were forced to eliminate studies that aggregate monitoring with other managerial behaviors. Control system studies combine monitoring with other manager behaviors (such as evaluating, rewarding, etc) to measure control systems. Future research efforts could compare our findings to a meta-analysis of studies that combine monitoring into measures of behavioral control. In this manner one could test the expectation that behavior control measures (with monitoring as well as other manager behaviors) should have a stronger effect than monitoring alone.

END NOTES

¹ Examples include \$22 per month per employee for Replicon time tracking software and \$63 per manager for Activity Monitor software that tracks computer and online activities (softactivity.com). (Remotely Interested in Supervision on page 108 of Technology Q&A of Journal of Accountancy September 2014].

²The seminal work of Churchill, Ford and Walker (1984) addressed this issue through the "Closeness of supervision" concept. Today monitoring may be reported as an individual measure or aggregated into "sales management control systems".

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THE PSYCHOMETRIC VALIDATION OF A GENERALIZABLE SALES POTENTIAL PROFILE

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Abstract

This study investigated validation of a psychometric behavioral model. Research findings were derived from 204 participants in four distinct industries: financial services, automobile, staffing/temporary placement, and hospitality/timeshare. Participants completed Leading Dimensions Profile (LDP), a web-based personality inventory; the outcomes were then compared with performance measures provided by their respective employers. Leveraging advanced psychometric techniques; researchers derived a scoring model for sales profile based on participants’ LDP outcomes. The sales profile yielded statistically significant correlation with employer-provided performance criteria. Further, the model exhibited statistically significant findings as a screening device. The findings suggest that the sales profile model could serve as a criterion-valid predictor for variety of employment decisions.

Key words: sales performance, LDP, personality inventory, personality profile, sales potential.

Classification: Research Paper

Review of Literature

Interest in employment-related measures of sales potential is not a recent phenomenon, with earlier research involving the computation of relative sales possibilities geographic areas (Wellman, 1939). Similarly, Brown (1937) emphasized the importance of such measures in distributing personnel and resources, as well as to appraise the effectiveness of sales and advertising efforts against performance quotas.

Brown (1937) contended that efforts to develop measures of sales potential should take into account efforts to create demand, competitive activities, and business conditions.

Anderson (1985) addressed the personnel aspects of sales performance, where sales force efforts are crucial for creating business revenue. Guidice and Mero (2012) described control mechanisms for sales performance as either outcome-based, in which quantifiable productivity is the priority, or behavior-based, in which adaptive selling is the main focus. In either case, control mechanisms are essential as sales roles, by their nature, require specific monitoring and evaluation (Fang, Palmatier, & Evans, 2004).

From a career perspective, sales roles are perceived as requiring a depth of product or service knowledge, an adaptability to meet

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demanding customer expectations, an understanding of communication technology and a practical application of competitive motivation (Jones et al., 2005; Krush et al., 2012). In addition, personal financial resources are critical while navigating through the work and family expectations (especially during the initial months in a new sales role). Job-Demands-Control theory implies that effective use of personal resources may help in balancing personal and workplace productivity while controlling challenging situations found in the sales role (Karasek, 1979; Krush, et al., 2012; Zablah et al., 2012).

Vinchur et al. (1998) identified sales roles as particularly well-suited for individuals who can work independently, deal with rejection, adapt to their customers' needs, and handle stress. Given these characteristics, Maxwell et al. (2005) pointed out that the individual performing the act of selling has a major impact on the cost and effectiveness of the sales process. In other words, ineffective sales professionals can miss opportunities for new sales as well as forfeit current customers – a costly outcome for the employer. Regardless of the type or nature of the specific selling process, there appears a compelling argument on the accurate selection of sales professionals (Maxwell et al., 2005).

Among many possible factors impacting the sales environment, researchers have paid particular attention to the impact of influencing (selling) styles on performance (Sager & Futrell, 1989; Meyer, Dala, & Hermida, 2010; Chiu & Chen, 2012). In addition, extensive research has explored the psychological well-being and emotional capacities of sales professions as contributors to performance (Hamwi, Rutherford, & Boles, 2011; Agnihotri, Krish, & Singh, 2012). Further, considering the challenges emerging from expectations of work and life balance, an individual's capacity to address personal and professional demands has been

evaluated for its impact on sales performance (Boles, Wood, & Johnson, 2003; Netemeyer, Maxham, & Pullig, 2005; Hawni, Rutherford, & Boles, 2011).

Examining specific personality characteristics, Barrick and Mount (2005) and Chiu and Chen (2012) alleged conscientiousness and emotional stability were among the most powerful predictors of sales performance. Tett, Jackson, and Rothstein (1991) reported a positive relationship between an individual's openness to new experiences and their sales performance, especially in the transitional stage. Such a finding is of little surprise, as highly open individuals tend to be reported as creative, flexible and intellectual (Digman, 1990). Deeter-Schmelz and Sojka (2007) found the need for cognition ("the tendency for an individual to engage in and enjoy thinking" (Cacioppo & Petty, 1982, p. 116)) and self-monitoring (the phenomena of expressive controls (Briggs, Cheek, & Buss, 1980)) as effective predictors from a study of 956 sales professionals. Following this, researchers have also explored the role of competitive intelligence (CI) as an integral contributor to success in specific selling activities (Webster, 1965; Marshall, Moncrief, & Lassk, 1999; Ahearne et al., 2013).

Among many performance predictors, Barrick and Mount (2013) described a connection between how personality traits and job characteristics jointly and interactively influence work outcomes via a job characteristics model. Specifically, they explored the alignment of purposeful work behaviors with higher-order implicit goals, while applying the widely-studied Five-Factor Model (FFM) of personality. Similarly, Schmidt and Hunter (2004) drew attention to individual characteristics and environmental circumstances in explaining the motivation associated with behaviors which influence specific work-related outcomes.

Personality and Job Performance

Pervin (1996) defined personality traits as temporally stable, cross-situational individual differences that refer to broad behavioral consistencies in the conduct of people, which form the structural basis of individual differences. Using the Big Five taxonomy, Sitser, Van Der Linden and Born (2013) investigated the predictive validity of different hierarchical levels of personality traits for sales performance in a study involving 405 sales professionals. By developing scoring mechanisms for personality traits, researchers have found that valid predictions of job performance could be derived for specific job types, such as for sales professionals (Musek, 2007; Van der Linden, Scholte, et al., 2010; Rushton & Irwing, 2011).

Although there are many studies across industries in the personnel psychology literature, there has been much debate over the adequacy of personality measures in predicting specific job performance outcomes. Some researchers have argued that lower validities of personality measures reduce their value in predicting job performance (Murphy & Dzieweczynski, 2005; Morgeson et al., 2007). Still, others have argued for the utility provided by personality measures in workplace applications such as selection, training, and development (Judge & Erez, 2007; Rushton, Bons, & Hur, 2008, Backström, Björklund, & Larssen, 2009; Rushton & Irwing, 2011; Van Der Linden et al., 2012; Sitser, Van Der Linden and Born, 2013).

Lamont and Lundstrom (1977) proposed that the operational value of personnel tools could be enhanced by better-understanding the characteristics of successful sales professionals. They advocated for the development of a theoretical framework for the personal selling function. More recently, Hiu and Chen (2012) suggested that determining the preference and relevance of specific personality traits involved in selling would be enhanced by considering situational variables in addition to job analytic data. In this vein, researchers have suggested

that attempts to generalize personality-based assumptions should be influenced by an adequate consideration of conditions and effects found within a variety of selling environments (Barrick & Mount 2005; Meyer, Dala, & Hermida, 2010, Rothstein, & Goffin, 2006).

Although the impact of varied exogenous variables on job performance is rightly acknowledged, numerous studies have shown considerable promise in the identification of specific behaviors which tend to influence work-related behaviors and ultimately, performance outcomes (Barrick and Mount, 1991; Barrick, Mount and Judge, 2001; Hogan and Holland, 2003; O'Neill, Goffin, & Tett, 2009; Rothstein & Goffin, 2006; Tett, Jackson & Rothstein, 1991). As such, the psychometric measurement of performance-inducing motivational factors has attracted growing interest among both scholars and practitioners alike (Guidice & Mero, 2012). With so much at stake, both in terms of employer resources and customer experiences, it is not surprising that the measurement of sales-related behaviors continues to receive considerable attention. The purpose of this study is to explore the validity and utility of one such measure, the LDP-sales profile, as an operational device to effectively screen candidates for sales positions. The following research questions were analyzed via correlation analysis and cross-tabulation procedures:

RQ1: The LDP-sales profile will exhibit positive correlation with sales performance across multiple industry segments.

RQ2: The LDP-sales profile will provide a criterion-validated measure for screening job candidates.

Methods

This study involved 204 participants, each occupying full-time sales positions. The participants were gathered from four unrelated employers, each representing a distinct industry; Financial services (n=52), Automobile (n=51), Staffing (n=32), Hospitality/Timeshare (n=69). To

identify specific behavioral tendencies among sales professionals, participants completed the Leading Dimensions Profile (LDP), a psychometric inventory designed specifically for employment-related purposes. The LDP generates scales for two primary factors, Achievement Drive and Relational Drive, along with multiple dimensions of personality that are defined as shown in Figure 1 and 2.

Primary Factor	Definition	
Achievement Drive	the focus and intensity with which an individual approaches common activities as well as long-term goals.	
Achieving Dimensions	the drive to extend effort in meeting or exceeding expectations when performing common tasks.	
Work Intensity		
Assertiveness		the level of confidence in approaching one's role and in asserting opinions.
Uncertainty Avoidance		the propensity to accept risk in making decisions or taking actions in uncertain situations.
Adaptability		the interest in, or comfort level with, changing or unplanned circumstances.
Perception	the extent to which one relies on intuition and experience (versus methodical analysis) in making decisions.	

Figure 1: LDP Primary Factors and Dimensions (Achievement)

Primary Factor	Definition	
Relational Drive	the extent to which an individual engages emotionally in common circumstances.	
Relating Dimensions	the drive to be personally recognized for efforts and accomplishments.	
Status Motivation		
Consideration		the awareness of, and propensity to contemplate, others' feelings and needs.
Openness		the desire to learn and share personal information with others, including strangers.
Affiliation		the desire to collaborate with others in approaching work and making decisions.
Self-Protection	the level of trust in the intentions or reliability of others.	

Figure 2: LDP Primary Factors and Dimensions (Relationship)

The LDP is commercially available in the US, Europe, Australia, and India, with specific emphasis on employment selection, training, and development. LDP outcomes are reported as normative percentiles, such that the population mean would be expected at or near the 50th

percentile for each dimension. Developing a job-specific profile is an iterative process, involving the evaluation of employee performance levels at each possible dimension outcome (ranging from 0-100%). The process begins with a local validation sample, and then once developed, the resulting profile is cross-validated within subsequent samples to demonstrate cross-validation.

Results

In the case of the LDP-sales profile, researchers analyzed performance data initially for Sub-

sample 1 (the financial services sample). The norms were developed during the LDP's development cycle, to provide an indication of expected outcomes for a normal distribution of participants. Descriptive and reliability statistics for the primary factors and supporting dimensions are shown in Table 1. The primary factors and supporting dimensions provide descriptive information regarding the behavioral tendencies of employees. Such information can offer utility within a variety of employment applications.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for LDP Factors and Dimensions (n=204)

Factors/Dimensions	Mean Percentile	St. Deviation	Cronbach's Alpha
Factor: Achievement Drive	55.49	29.41	.84
Achieving Dimensions			
Work Intensity	63.78	34.15	.79
Assertiveness	59.32	31.29	.77
Uncertainty Avoidance	40.96	26.11	.83
Adaptability	53.79	30.43	.68
Perception	55.54	24.84	.74
Factor: Relational Drive	61.54	28.62	.80
Relating Dimensions			
Status Motivation	58.75	26.74	.73
Consideration	57.03	32.62	.82
Openness	63.16	28.22	.83
Affiliation	65.06	24.85	.77
Self-Protection	55.21	27.47	.66

Data from Sub-sample 1 had been collected initially with a three-tier performance rating based on lower, acceptable, and higher sales performance from employer. Then it was merged with participants' LDP outcomes to identify the average LDP percentiles exhibited by higher performing participants. From this process, researchers established the preferred factor and dimension outcomes for a hypothetical sales profile (as shown in Table 2). Participants in Sub-samples 2, 3, and 4

completed the LDP psychometric inventory as directed by their respective employers, for the purposes of cross-validating the LDP-sales profile derived above. Researchers collected performance measures from the remaining participants' employers (for Sub-samples 2, 3, and 4), representing 152 participants with performance data based on sales units or net sales (in US dollars) and the 3-tier rating (indicating lower, acceptable, or higher sales performance).

Table 2: Preferred Outcomes for LDP Factors and Dimensions (based on Sub-sample 1)

Factors/Dimensions	Preferred Percentile	Preferred Range
Achievement Drive	93 rd	68-100%
Achieving Dimensions		
Work Intensity	100 th	60-100%
Assertiveness	100 th	70-100%
Uncertainty Avoidance	33 rd	10-56%
Adaptability	100 th	70-100%
Perception	83 rd	59-100%
Relational Drive	53 rd	24-82%
Relating Dimensions		
Status Motivation	100 th	75-100%
Consideration	8 th	0-43%
Openness	4 th	0-40%
Affiliation	8 th	0-30%
Self-Protection	36 th	0-55%

The LDP-sales profile and performance ratings were analyzed for bivariate correlation, revealing a significant finding of $r=.31$, $p<.01$ within the combined sample ($n= 204$). The

results in Table 3 indicate that, when segmented by sub-sample, the LDP-sales profile exhibited linear association with sales performance within each industry included in the study.

Table 3: Correlation Statistics by Industry ($n=204$)

Sub-sample	Industry	Correlation r	n
1	Financial Services	.49**	52
2	Automobile	.30*	51
3	Staffing/Temp	.38*	32
4	Hospitality/Timeshare	.25*	69

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

Within an employment setting, employers often establish a cut-score (also referred to as a passing score) for a psychometric inventory. This approach allows for an efficient means of screening-in or screening-out job candidates based on an overall profile score. To replicate this approach within the study, a cut-score was established for the LDP-sales profile. The cut-score was established such that the highest scoring 50% of sample participants were labeled

as screened-in and the lower scoring 50% were labeled as screened-out. The utility of the cut-score was analyzed using a cross-tabulation procedure, whereby the performance of screened-in participants was compared with that of the screened-out participants, as shown in Table 4. The results in Table 4 reveal that higher performing participants were significantly more likely to be screened-in than were their lower performing peers.

Table 4: Cross-tabulation of Cut-Score and Performance Categories (n=204)

Performance Category	Screened-out	Screened-in	Total
Lower	46	31	77
Acceptable	30	20	50
Higher	22	55	77
Total	98	106	204

Pearson Chi-Square 18.780, df=2, p<.01

Discussion

Looking over to correlation statistics by industry in response to Research Question 1 (RQ1), two items stand out. The first is the bivariate correlation between the LDP-sales profile and the separate performance ratings by industry. Though all are significant at the .01 and .05 levels, it is important to remember the profile was developed using only the financial services data (sub-sample 1). Consequently, cross-validating the automobile, staffing/temp and hospitality/timeshare data with the profile developed with only financial services data adds credence to Pervin (1996). He defined personality traits as temporally stable, cross-situational individual differences that refer to broad behavioral consistencies in the conduct of people. Given the bivariate correlations of Table 3, one could further assume similar behavioral consistencies across four relatively distinct sales profiles.

In addition to this promising result, we can also get an idea of which “broad behaviors” are pivotal in highlighting the consistencies. Looking again at Table 5, we note that dominant characteristics (dimensions) in Achievement Drive are Work Intensity, Assertiveness, and Adaptability. For Relationship Drive, Status Motivation is the dominant characteristic (dimension).

Unpacking these characteristics a bit, all seem particularly pivotal in the success of a salesperson. Work Intensity and Status Motivation could be reframed as competitive –

the drive to excel. Assertiveness certainly speaks of one’s confidence, especially in the face of a rejection which, as it turns out, Adaptability is picking up in this context – changing or unplanned circumstances. Certainly there are many variables contributing to the success of a sales professional, and the LDP-sales profile has identified several key characteristics across four diverse sales roles.

More importantly, in this case, is using the findings to assist managers in screening or hiring sales staff who are likely to be successful in their industry. Looking at Table 8 in response to Research Question 2 (RQ2), the criterion-validated measure using the LDP-sales profile successfully placed (screened-in) 106 out of 204, or 52% of the total sample. Most significant was the percentage, 71%, associated with the sales employees identified as higher sales performers. The cut-score did a better job of identifying higher performers than lower performers, at 40%. Consistent with Sitser, Van Der Linden and Born (2013), the LDP-sales profile, in this case, provides a valid method of predicting job performance. This enables managers to approach the screening of new sales hires in a more methodical, succinct way as compared to reviewing larger amounts of data that could appear cumbersome and disjointed.

Conclusion

While the entire sample was comprised of commission-based sales professionals, the four

sub-samples provided a broad and diverse representation of sales techniques, markets, products, and services for the study. The diverse nature of the participant sample allowed researchers to explore the specific sales-related behavioral tendencies across industries and selling platforms. The utility of the cut-score was analyzed using a cross-tabulation procedure, whereby the performance of screened-in participants was compared with that of the

screened-out participants, the results revealed that higher performing participants were significantly more likely to be screened-in than were their lower performing peers. In other words, those screened-in by the LDP-sales profile represented the higher performance category at more than twice the rate as those screened-out by the profile. Such information can offer utility within a variety of employment applications.

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WHAT'S IN IT FOR SHOPPERS; SHOPPER MARKETING – AN EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS

Mini Mathur

Abstract

In the era of fragmented media, retail environment has become a new media vehicle. Shopper Marketing is not just the last stage in 'path to purchase', but a part of overall brand communication strategy. The objective of this study is to understand path to purchase for various product categories in consumer durables. The research aims at understanding the way shoppers interact with the product at the store, influencing their choice of brands in consumer durables. The key findings provided an insight into key category drivers, barriers and motivations to purchase consumer durables.

Keywords: Shopper, Marketing, consumer durables, shopper behaviour, store.

Classification: Research Paper

INTRODUCTION

Manufactures spend a lot of their efforts in understanding consumption and consumer behaviour. With the changes in technology, economy, and social structure of the country, consumption is also displaying changes in behaviour and action. Consumers behave differently on different occasions and at different stages of the buying process. Their behaviour also differs across categories. Behaviour displayed in shopping for food and grocery or CPG would be very different from shopping for durables or electronic. A number of factors influence the shopper behaviour at pre-shopping, shopping and post shopping stages. A large number of studies have been conducted to study consumer behaviour, but there are not many studies on understanding how and why shoppers behave at the store.

India's expenditure on housing and consumer

durables is expected to grow 4x, from US\$ 185 billion in 2010 to over US\$ 750 billion in 2020. (BCG, 2012). Spending per household on e-tail went up by nearly 25% (in real terms) in 2011-12 and up by a significant 84% since 2009. Most purchased products by online mode were consumer electronics, apparel and media products (including music, films, video games and books) . Consumers not purchasing online, were also found to get influenced by internet retailing. According to a recent report from the Boston Consulting Group, - the internet's influence on buying decisions is growing rapidly. This influence affects up to five times more purchases than those actually made online. Online activities such as product research and price comparisons are shaping the preferences of Indian consumers, affecting what they buy and why. As per BCG report, more Indian consumers tend to go to company websites rather than just consumer-driven or social media sites for product information (Euromonitor, Consumer Lifestyles in India, 2013)

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Marketing as a discipline has focussed all its resources in understanding customers' needs and desires and on building brands that satisfy these needs. It doesn't take into consideration one of the major customer types – the shopper, one who shops at the store. Economic value would be created only when the transaction takes place and product moves off the shelf. The brand's interest lies in the movement and not piling of merchandise on the retailers' shelf.

With the emergence of internet and smart phones, and thus growth in ecommerce and mobile marketing, an average global consumer gets exposed to more marketing communications in a given day. Thus it becomes all the more important for brands to not just establish their presence, but to talk loud to the shopper at the store, in the clutter of products. In-store communication creates the maximum impact. (Insight Instore, 2009)

Shoppers are exposed to countless alternatives on their expedition for a product, be it with brands or channels and they are tempted to make a decision at every stage of the path to purchase. The brands need to make an effort to entice and engage shoppers at every occasion. While many brands are able to create awareness

and interest, but the successful ones are those who can make a mark at the moment of truth, and turn these into action at the store.

Shopper Marketing is all about finding shopper insights through an integration of various research tools and translating these insights into actions, as creative solutions at the store and integrating it with other communications tools, be it advertising, mobile marketing, social media marketing and so on. Shopper Marketing is all about the mindset, wherein shopper is at the centre of all the marketing activities done by the brand. It adds to the integrated 360 degree approach after brand management and category management.

Shopper Marketing in India is at a very nascent stage. Only a handful of brands have started working in collaboration with modern trade retailers to understand the shopper behaviour. Many brands still consider it as a part of in-store communication activity, which is a narrow outlook of the discipline.

Attempt has been made, through this research, to understand profile of shoppers so as to recommend in-store communication tools that would fit in their needs and requirements.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Shopper Marketing has been defined as "The systematic creation and application of elements of the marketing mix to affect positive change in shopper behaviour in order to drive consumption of a brand" (Desforges & Anthony, 2013) Desforges argues that a shopper exhibits different behaviour for different categories and thus the need to study shopper marketing for each category. As not much literature is available on shopper marketing, link has to be established by understanding how shoppers behave at the store and what factors influence their choice of brands at the store. A large part of research available on Shopper Marketing has been conducted on grocery shopping or supermarket as a format.

Inman (1998) in 'where rubber meets the road', focuses on in-store' decision making. This study was done on the assumption that consumers' choice of brands is influenced by lots of factors in the store. It explores influence of situation and individual factors on in-store choice behaviour. BCG had studied shopper behaviour for various categories, including consumer durables. It highlights that the trigger to purchase an electronic product is changing lifestyle in majority of cases and the shopping for such products is highly planned and well researched. Store visits are mostly for execution. Increasing dependence has been observed on organized formats for this category. (BCG, 2012)

Shopper Marketing is defined as an approach to understand how consumers behave as shoppers in different channels and formats and this insight is used for the benefit of brands, retailers and shoppers (Insight Instore, 2009). The objective is to increase conversion of buyers to shoppers. Shoppers are looking for an integration wherein they can shop for products online, but can exchange or return at a nearby store, if need be. (Headland, 2013)

Shopper is not necessarily the same person as consumer. So all the marketing efforts aimed at consumer might not work for shopper. It takes a lot of energy and efforts in building a brand, but they leave it at the mercy of the retailer, to take it forward at the last mile that a brand is travelling. This might lead to destruction of brand image at the floor.

Shoppers invest their money, time and emotions, while shopping for a product. Sorensen calls them as three currencies. He suggests these as three shopping inputs and two outputs as product and satisfaction (Sorensen,2010). Ailawadi et. al. investigated various benefits and costs associated with making a purchase. Economic benefits such as savings and product quality and hedonic benefits such as entertainment, exploration and self-expression were studied. Costs incurred would be searching, switching and inventory holding costs, applicable in some product categories or if the product is purchased, but not used. (Ailawadi, et.al., 2001). A number of studies focused on perception of time spent in the overall process of decision making, including all the stages in completing the shopping task. (Guy et.al., 1994; Mentzer & Cook,1979). The level of excitement experienced at the store influenced the perceptions of shopping duration, emotional levels, and merchandise evaluations by shoppers at the retail stores (Rajagopal 2007).

It was researched that shoppers with a higher sense of purpose, indicating seriousness of shopping, spend less time in shopping at the store, as compared to those who are not very

clear about it. (McDonald, 1994) Shoppers are task-orientated, with their mind working at the first moment of truth and they have to make decisions in a situation of perplexing choice, all of which impacts their behavior at the store. It is influencing this behavior that is at the heart of shopper marketing. It was investigated that the experience of pleasant emotion increases openness to the environment, and thus impacts shoppers' ability to notice and understand retail communications, as well as the amount of time and money shoppers are willing to spend in-store. (Goodall, 2011). Time required for entire process adds to the overall shopping experience. Retailers are expected to understand this need to maximize shopping efficiency. (Holman & Wilson, 1982). From the brands perspective, usage of digital technology in various areas like, tagging, packing and displaying at the store would be valuable.

It was researched that most consumers shop on auto-pilot mode, breaking through the clutter of habitual pathways. Store observation is key to shopper research, as 'what shoppers say' is not always 'what shoppers do'. Thus observation was chosen as the tool for this research. The study took into account variables detailed in a white paper by insight instore (2009). These were market variables for the category, shopper variables and design challenges at the store level for products, in consumer electronics, essentially mobile handset, notebooks, printers, etc. It has been observed that 60-70% of shoppers' decisions were made in-store and these were largely physiological. Even shoppers were unaware of how and why they made decision. It is what is experienced at the store, down the aisle. (Nielsen 2013)

The Harman Group Inc.(2004) defines Shopper Insights as follows:

“That which is necessary to properly understand the role of the shopping experience with regard to purchase behavior (in specific) as well as brand loyalty (in general)” “Shopper insights” were noted to include things that

happen outside the store as well as inside the store.”

METHODOLOGY

Shopper studies at various retailers revealed insights into type of shoppers in different formats. The objective of this study was to study variables that influence the shoppers in the choice of a brand at the store. Though only brick and mortar channel was studied, insights were also drawn for online retail.

The research methodology used was exploratory and qualitative shopper research. It was a combination of observation studies and in-depth interviews. The research involved two key approaches;

(1) Observation and accompanied shopper-Stores selling consumer electronics, both exclusive brand outlets and multi-brand outlets, were observed in detail for the layout, color, lighting, in-store communications, and placement of the brands at the store. Respondents in the age group of 18 – 60years,

who showed interest in shopping for electronic products, either mobile, laptop, or printers were tracked throughout their movement in the store. Their shopping process was closely followed. Their approach to the brand, interactions with the in-store communications, POP materials and with sales persons were noted by the interviewer. In the end shoppers were interrupted to get a better understanding of their shopping process. Respondents were not pre-recruited as they would become cautious.

(2) Retailers' perspective- An indepth interview was conducted with the sales person or the employee of the retailer to comprehend their understanding of what created maximum impact in influencing the final choice of the shoppers.

The **objective** was to find a shopper 'path to purchase' for consumer electronics.

Research questions

How does a shopper shops and behaves in a store

How should the retailers use this insight in designing in-store communication

What factors influence their shopping decision for electronics.

Observations and texts were noted descriptively and analyzed for common themes emerging,

pertaining to shopper behaviour. The research would form a base in developing a 'path to purchase' model for the category. It would contribute to the literature on shopper marketing for academics and would be helpful in developing shopper marketing led strategies for organizations in consumer durables.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Brand image or market share affects the movement of the shoppers in a multi-brand outlet. Fixtures facing the entrance had maximum traffic exposure followed by ones laid out along the aisles. In-store visibility has a significant impact on shoppers choice of brands. Appropriate placement of the brand, with increasing visibility, specially in a multi-brand outlet, creates a larger impact by drawing maximum shoppers to the fixture. Rate of traffic movement across the fixture is highly correlated

to the performance of the brand at the store. Most highly trafficked areas are the entrance and aisles. Samsung has the highest rate of exposure in mobile and tablets as they are placed at strategic locations within the store.

It was also observed that larger the choices in a given category in their budget range, more confused they seemed. Salespersons' product knowledge and promptness to solve their problem helped them in gaining more information and get convinced. Brand promoters

or knowledgeable sales persons' role was found to be highly influential in making a choice. Time spent at the store was found to have a strong relations with the purchase rate.

Promoters from the brand played a key role. It was observed that though they had an indepth information and knowledge about the products they were promoting, majority of them lacked in softer skills of understanding the shopper profile and their needs. They need to be trained as consultants.

Two typical behaviours observed were:

Elderly customers, in the age group of 50 and above, were unaware of the brand and features and depended on the sales persons' guidance to make a choice. They came with the family. While youngsters, came mostly with friends, and were already aware of the models and brands in the category. They were more concerned of the configuration and applications than price and discounts. Few shoppers kept browsing and did not bought as they intend to compare not just brands, but also offers across the store. Young shoppers (aged 18 – 30) went directly to the counters stocking brands, they had in mind.

Four types of shoppers on the basis of their shopping objective were observed

Planned to buy and shopped for it

Planned to buy, but didn't bought it then.

Didn't planned, but bought while browsing

Non-shoppers due to-

initial stage of the process

Accompanying others

Looking for other appliances

Just looking around

Looking for accessories

Because of the nature of product category, notebooks, mobile phones, printers, etc fall into high-involvement shopping. Thus majority (about 75%) have undergone initial stages of purchase decision process and had come pre-planned for their purchase. This behaviour was observed across formats.

Key selection factors identified for the category were:

Price

Brand

Configuration

Form / model

Availability

Shoppers differed in the weightage given to these factors, but broadly technology and price emerged as key influential factors. With more and more information at their hand, it became challenging for the promoters to enable brand shifts and more than 50% purchased pre-planned brands. This further emphasises the importance of shopper marketing, in establishing a rapport with the shoppers before they enter the store. 'Path to purchase' envisage more than the path followed inside the store. About 25 to 30% of shoppers were observed to go beyond their budget on getting a better product at the store, or as a result of promoters' upselling efforts. Very few who had come with a preplanned configuration or technology in mind, changed their choices. Most shoppers attributed impulse purchase to price of the product or promotions.

In-store elements, recommendations made by the salesperson, attractive prices, promotions, availability and visibility of the product played an important role in case of impulse shopping. Though impulse shopping formed a small proportion in this category, trigger points for switching brands needs to be identified.

In-store communication

Shoppers didn't really noticed much of in-store communication in a consumer durable outlet. The engagement of the shopper was with actual models, wherever available. Shoppers didn't showed any interest in going through the catalogue available at some of the multi-brand outlets. In-store communication tools were used with an objective of : (1) enticing shoppers' attention; (2) engaging shoppers with the products; (3) persuading shoppers to buy. Display of the models, indicating an availability, and encouraging interactions with the product, scored a high ranking in the importance given to

various tools. It was followed by personal presentation by the promoters. Shoppers showed least interest in going through any text material given at the store. Posters and banners with an eye-level visibility had high recall as compared to other tools.

Fixtures which can be accessed from all sides were most preferred by the shoppers. While the need for locking the display models was accepted, it was considered as a limiting factor while engaging with the products. Sales persons' importance was realized across all channels or formats, but they were expected to solve all product and function related queries and should be proficient in demonstrating the product. They were expected to offer technical expertise as a consultant and provide an unbiased comparison of brands in a given category.

Brands scored high for mobile phone, while technology or configuration scored high for computing products. Comparison across brands, across stores, across formats, and across channels emerged as a strong phenomenon in purchase of electronic products. Vicinity of multiple retailers in a given shopping location further strengthened this factor. Shoppers visited exclusive brand outlets to get authentic information on a given model, they had preselected based on their requirement, through an online search. They go to multi-brand outlets to do a comparison and get a good deal, or else go and purchase online, after having a touch and feel of the product they wish to buy. Most of them visited atleast 2-3 stores, including online and offline before making a final choice.

Based on the path to purchase trailed by the shoppers, they can be typed into three classes:

Value conscious : These type of shoppers don't buy the products unless needed. Compromise with the brands and purchase private label brands and take a lot of pride in saving. These shoppers may postpone a purchase for a likely promotion by the brand. Family needs are of top priority to them. A similar study done for

Chinese consumer types called them as 'Pragmatic' (Li& Xiao, 1999)

Brand conscious: These types are on the lookout for new models and seek marketing information. They get influenced by advertising and retain communication from their preferred brand. They compare brands for functions, than cost and feel proud in owning a brand. Such shoppers get influenced by friends and family.

Price conscious: These shoppers pre-plan and save for an electronic product. They don't get too much influenced by promoters or advertisements or upselling efforts by the sales persons. They do a lot of price comparison and stick to their budget and pre-planned brands.

Nunes and Cespedes (2003) have given a similar typology, classifying shoppers into four types, to understand the actual shopping behaviour – Habitual shoppers; High- value deal seekers; Variety-loving and High-involvement shoppers. They noted that these customers do not behave in the similar fashion always and behave differently on each occasion.

Retailers' observation revealed atleast 40% of shoppers visit more than one store, before making a final choice. A large proportion of shoppers have visited few websites before going to a brick and mortar store. With increase in the price of the product, amount of time spent on making a choice also tend to increase. Pre-shopping occur to a great extent. There was a relationship observed in the amount of time, income and technical expertise with the shoppers and pre-shopping done by them. In technological era, it is not imperative for shoppers to go from store to store physically as a lot of information is available at their desk. Loganathan and Panchanatham (2012) has shown a relationship between customers' income and e-tailing usage.

Discussing on the information sources or cues used in making a choice, websites scored high followed by own experience with the brand and word-of-mouth of friends and colleagues. Sales persons' presentation, with the advent of net,

was observed to lose its importance. Mass media communications, including TV and print

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Shoppers identified themselves more with mobile phones in terms of personality, than notebooks or printers as the usage for these products was shared in most cases. Retailers and brands should adopt a holistic marketing approach that incorporates shopper marketing practices into their marketing program. At every stage, shopper insights should be taken into consideration. Employees in each department should be trained and developed to look at the larger picture of integration across channels or formats. As information search emerged as the most important influencing factor in shopper marketing, retailers need to make an effort to provide complete information with the help of digital technology, A touch screen kiosk at the store could be helpful. Brand should provide an audio-visual manual as shoppers were averse to reading lengthy texts.

Even within the consumer electronics, the shopper behaviour and thus the path to purchase observed for mobile phones and notebooks differed. In majority of the cases for mobile, the trigger was the new model or obsolete technology used currently. While in case of notebooks, it was the first purchase for most of the respondents, as a personal computer, and adding an asset was the trigger. Many of them used one which was an official possession. Next stage in path to purchase, of searching for the information, for which internet was used in most cases. But the queries and the comparison of attributes differed for the two

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were given least importance.

products. Next level of decision includes the place of purchase, purchase terms, availability, and is influenced by displays in the showroom, the promoter or sales person's expertise, hassle free purchase process and multiple payment processes.

Shoppers' perception of overall time and effort for the two products differed by gender, age and profession as well. Males were considered more pragmatic, while female looked at the visual features and thus emotional in their shopping behaviour. Shopping experience for this category was considered more as part of their 'work' and not as 'escape' from daily routine as may be the case with shopping for apparels and accessories. As brand stands out as a strong differentiator, manufacturers need to establish a strong image through other communication tools and integrate it with in-store communication tools to create an impact. When marketers or brands understand the journey taken by the customer in making a purchase decision and integrate all elements of marketing, like strategy, channel management and message to the moment of maximum influence, they create a sustainable advantage for themselves (Court, et. al., 2009).

Limitations: A very small representative sample in one city, across 10 stores was studied. A national level study of shoppers would have drawn better insights. Findings are indicative of shopper marketing concept, and a starting point for further study in this area.

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MY WORD – A MARKETING PEDAGOGY TACTIC THAT IMPACTS STUDENTS' AUTHENTIC LEARNING, POSITIVE EMOTION (SELF ESTEEM), AND FACULTY FEEDBACK - AN EXPERIENTIAL METHOD FROM A PRACTITIONER TURNED ACADEMIC

Ravi Kandhadai

Abstract

Universities are facing the pressure increasingly to offer innovative programs to meet changing demands from industry, government agencies, alumni, students, and accrediting organizations (Albers et al, 2001). Marketing employers increasingly value general qualities, such as effective communication, presentation, application to local market situations and teamwork skills, in their entry-level new hires rather than just specific knowledge of the marketing function (Taylor, Kimberly, 2003). It is perceived by the marketers that students cannot be successful unless, what they have learnt have been internalised, they are capable of articulating their point of views, they know access to knowledge, they are capable of identifying similar situations in real life and apply what they have learnt when needed (Boyer 1990. Powell 2002). Many students find traditional lectures, routine memorization, and restatement of facts and terms tedious and boring (Sreedhar M. and Debra A. L. 2010; Munoz and Huser 2008). The increasing publication pressures, larger class sizes, number of programmes, and a fast-paced, explosive body of knowledge has made even the pursuit of teaching excellence in marketing education more difficult today than ever (Smart et al., 2003). In this context, the chase for innovating new course development and delivery remains incomplete.

This article describes a marketing pedagogical tactic titled "My Word" designed to help Asian students of marketing in authentic learning process, ability to articulate and present their thoughts in a coherent structured manner resulting in higher self esteem and confidence to choose marketing as their preferred subject. Interestingly this pedagogy tactic also demonstrated a dramatic increase in positive faculty feed back.

Adopting this method in to regular course delivery will help the Marketing Majors increase their own marketability by gaining and improving skills in the areas most desired by employers. This prescriptive pedagogy tactic can be put to further research and refined for greater following.

Keywords: *Marketing Pedagogy, Innovation, Authentic Learning, Student Transferability, Asian Students.*

Universities are facing the pressure increasingly to offer innovative programs to

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meet changing demands from industry, government agencies, alumni, students, and accrediting organizations (Albers et al, 2001). Marketing employers increasingly value general qualities, such as effective communication,

presentation, application to local market situations and teamwork skills, in their entry-level new hires rather than just specific knowledge of the marketing function (Taylor, Kimberly, 2003). The changing expectations of the industry demand incorporation of new skill development in the Marketing Programme (Kelly, Craig 1998). Thus today, mere graduating with a marketing degree might not provide an advantage in securing a position and succeeding in a marketing career. It is perceived by the marketers that students cannot be successful unless, what they have learnt have been internalised, they are capable of articulating their point of views, they know access to knowledge, they are capable of identifying similar situations in real life and apply what they have learnt when needed (Boyer 1990. Powell 2002). Consistent feedback from employers and alumni, clearly state, that communication and presentation skills with relevant content are critical for the success of marketing students. A new learning process to achieve this objective is needed. On exposure to the realities of market, entry level employees show low confidence and lesser positive attitude. The challenge for marketing educators lies in harmonizing the two approaches: Class room lecture vs student presentations of their learning process.

The scenario of concerns is further heightened by various pointers highlighted by research conducted among Asian Students and Faculties: a) Considering that a majority of the students come from an Engineering background, different languages, income levels and schooling patterns they may have particular difficulty in understanding the body of marketing knowledge due to differences in learning styles, relationships with teachers, familiarity with lectures, language barriers, commanding influence of the family, and societal attitudes toward failure (Waller 1993; Zhang 1999). b) business faculty believes that their doctoral training leaves them unprepared for their future teaching possibilities (Hershey, Gargeya, and

Eatman 1996). c) the five predominant themes of teaching excellence as perceived by students, namely rapport, course delivery, fairness, knowledge and credibility, organization and preparation, through subject-directed discussion and the recurring emphases on subcategories such as empathy, communication and personal style, approachability, and accessibility underscore the need for marketing educators to maintain personal interactions with students (Faranda W T and Irvine Clarke III 2004). d) The question and answer method of learning is also questioned by some with regard to its effectiveness in new emerging markets. Nevett et al (1993) challenge the wisdom of question-and-answer techniques in Southeast Asian countries. e) fundamental differences in teaching and learning between Eastern and Western educational systems suggest that students in New Emerging Marketss will learn differently than domestic U.S. students (Neusner 1991; Waller 1993). f) many students find traditional lectures, routine memorization, and restatement of facts and terms tedious and boring (Sreedhar M and Debra A. L 2010: Munoz and Huser, 2008). This requires professors to employ a variety of teaching techniques to make class room sessions interesting. Visiting faculties with industry experience while offer realworld experience because they offer real life cases with which students can connect are often perceived not to be including academic depth in their teaching model (Emin Civi 2011) and g) the interactive case method because of the argumentative and participatory nature of the experience conflicts with the memory-oriented learning approaches to which Asian students are familiar (Zhang, 1999). As a result many students in the class remain silent even if they have read the case studies and prepared for class discussion. Most of the time, to manage the language barrier, students tend to repeat what has already been said by other students. The students are sick of hearing about how great American marketing and products are. They

want teachers to talk about how to perform better in their own markets with the media that are available to them (Clarke, I., III, & Flaherty, T. B. 2002). It is well known that students of compulsory marketing subjects in the MBA first year question the application of the theories since some students will never have the opportunity to develop brands. In some Universities the preference to pursue marketing as a career has not been growing. Students who do not plan to specialise in marketing show less interest in the subject. i) Although often marketing educators view their approaches as successful when teaching in emerging economies, student feedback and observed practices indicate that there is room for improvement in the delivery of marketing education (Mahan and Stachowski 1989). j) Striving to become a master teacher and maintaining that level of competence takes dedication, sensitivity, and a willingness to try different pedagogical techniques. Students value teachers who are flexible, caring, and organized, and who strive to involve them in the learning process (Kerner et al., 2005). Therefore, furthering our general appreciation of learning from the students' perspectives (or the bottom-up view) may provide marketing educators with the necessary insight to develop more effective yet student-oriented marketing instruction (Clarke I. III et al 2006). These pointers suggest that there is a need for innovative class room course delivery methods. The above discussed pointers underscore the challenge for marketing educators in harmonizing the two approaches: Class room lecture vs student presentations of their authentic learning process.

This article describes a marketing pedagogical tactic designed to help students of marketing in authentic learning process, ability to articulate and present their thoughts in a coherent structured manner resulting in higher self esteem and confidence to choose marketing as their preferred subject. In order to add Indian market relevance and value to students and

their prospective employers, Universities are striving to innovate in the areas of within and outside of the traditional classroom. The increasing publication pressures, larger class sizes, number of programmes, and a fast-paced, explosive body of knowledge has made even the pursuit of teaching excellence in marketing education more difficult today than ever (Smart et al., 2003). In this milieu, the chase for innovating new course development, use of technology and development of research education remains incomplete.

This article, an experiential research based on qualitative feedback, describes a marketing pedagogical tactic designed to help students of marketing in authentic learning process, ability to articulate and present their thoughts in a coherent structured manner. This tactic when practiced has resulted in higher self esteem for the students and has given confidence to choose marketing as their preferred subject. This course delivery method has led to even a higher positive faculty feedback.

“My Word” a student oriented pedagogy tactic – 5 slide 5 minute presentation method:

This is an effective method of course delivery with student participation especially for the first year students of Marketing and Marketing Planning. This is a ‘five slides (PPT) - five minutes’ presentation method about what a student has learnt and reflected upon.

During the class lecture whenever the students come across a new word they generally raise their hands to know more about the word or terminology or concept (Example ‘Differentiation’). This is the most opportune moment to introduce the “My Word” method. After explaining the new word (differentiation) the teacher assigns one of the volunteering students to explore and reflect the word in a particular format. The My Word format has just five slide templates and the student is expected to explain the new word given to him in the following class in the given particular set of slide format. The format is designed to give

opportunity for structured thinking through authentic learning, current market application, creativity and presentation. Post presentation the students' reaction to the presentation as validated by the teacher are incorporated in the presentation and circulated to all the students in the class for further reading and reference. The participating students are called to the teacher's room for personal qualitative feedback about the student's experience. The most important feature of this method is there is no right or wrong answer. It is the student's reflective process of authentic learning. Everyone gets to know how the learning has taken place in the student's mind and there is a collective benefit.

Slide 1 – Title Slide: This slide communicates the chosen word or concept or terminology as the title. For example the word "differentiation" could be the given word.

Slide 2: What does the text book say about the word (Differentiation): This requires reading the recommended text books by the student and present the text book definition of the given word. Not more than two definitions are expected and the differences in dimensions of the two definitions if any are to be highlighted by the student.

Slide 3: What does Research say about "My Word": For this the student has to refer to two research papers from 'A' grade Marketing Journals using say "EBSCO" or "Proquest". In this exercise the student refers to the abstract, review of research and findings. Based on what appeals to the student as something new, the student presents just one point from each research.

Slide 4: Where have I seen "My Word" in the real world practice around me: For this the student scans the real marketing world in his country and identifies just two shining examples of say "differentiation", articulates why he feels that the brand is well differentiated and explains the meaningful differentiation aspects of the brand.

Slide 5: How I have internalized "My Word" - My Photo Essay:

What is Photoessay: A photoessay is a group of photographs with a common theme, used as instruction through its presentation, accompanied by narration. Through a qualitative study embedded within an action research process, photoessays have been found to aid knowledge construction through reinforcement of understanding, feedback, cognitive efficiency, reflection, creativity, motivation, and emotional resonance. These learning dimensions also serve to aid students' transfer abilities. To achieve this, photoessays must reflect theory, capture emotions, provide perspectives, allow for students to abstract theory, and participate in the discovery of information (Ng, Irene C L. 2006).

In this slide the student presents a set of photographs (collage) with which he can associate the given word and processed it. It is important to understand that each student depending on the personal background, exposure and creativity will produce different photoessays for the same word. This gives a peek into the mind of the student as to how the learning process takes place in his world. For example a student with interest in Music may present a photoessay on how Michael Jackson differentiated his Magical Power Packed Musical Entertainment Shows that can be watched instead of just listening to music. On the other hand a student of Natural Science may bring to the class different types of photos of seeds that have propellers or wings or special appendages for a specific purpose and explain how the differentiated parts with specific advantage serve a specific purpose for survival - propellers to get planted deep in the ground or wings to glide away from the parent tree or float away. A student of mechanical engineering may bring in the example of BMW and show photo collage of the differentiated features that add unique value to the brand like double front grill, logo, the sound branding of door closure, safety etc.

This part of the presentation of internalisation will show the class how the concepts are universally valid and how each student has processed in his own creative way “my word” and made it relevant to his own personal life and experience offering interest and engagement to the entire class.

Student engagement is crucial to the learning process (Steven et al 2011)

Professor’s Role: It is generally observed that students put enormous effort and make an enthusiastic presentation in just five minutes. The class encourages one amongst them pairing with the Professor in the class. With the structured thinking process the presentation by the student sounds interesting and educative. Here comes the important role of the teacher who will encourage the student, build his confidence, elaborate some of the points with enthusiasm and raise the bar by explaining merits, demerits, when does it work best, some shining examples in local context etc thereby indirectly demonstrating his own command over the subject. It is a known fact that students respect teachers who have knowledge and also make the class interesting with enthusiasm and energy. Enthusiasm, high energy level, positive attitude, and passion raise students' enjoyment for being in a professor's classroom and their ability and willingness to learn (Ross 1984).

Result

The author experienced that this learning process which has been tried over 20 classes of about 50 students in each class increases the students' enthusiasm and engagement, leading to an increase in their own self esteem as told by

them. The participating students also had a better appreciation for Marketing as a subject and began to seriously consider Marketing as one of their elective subjects in the second year. Interestingly this pedagogy tactic also demonstrated a dramatic increase in positive faculty feed back. The qualitative comments given by the students confirmed that they were inspired to learn and they gained with regard to awareness about access to knowledge, superior learning process, structured thinking and improvement in coherent and confident presentation skills. Just sharing five minutes in every class with a student presentation on ‘My Word’ delivered a bundle of benefits including improvement in student’s self esteem.

Implication: This method brings an innovative approach to teaching and generates students' enthusiasm to learn Marketing and makes every class interesting. Education innovations is a practice which is worthy of emulation and has not yet been put into use by a significant number of colleges. In other words, innovation is, in a sense, a function of both desirability and diffusion. So an activity was considered innovative if the technique was potentially of value but not commonly employed by faculty. In other words, the technique was considered "more innovative" if few people had adopted the activity partly or fully (Nancy D et al 2001). Adopting this method in to regular course delivery will help the Marketing Majors increase their own marketability by gaining and improving skills in the areas most desired by employers. This prescriptive pedagogy tactic can be put to further research and refined for greater following.

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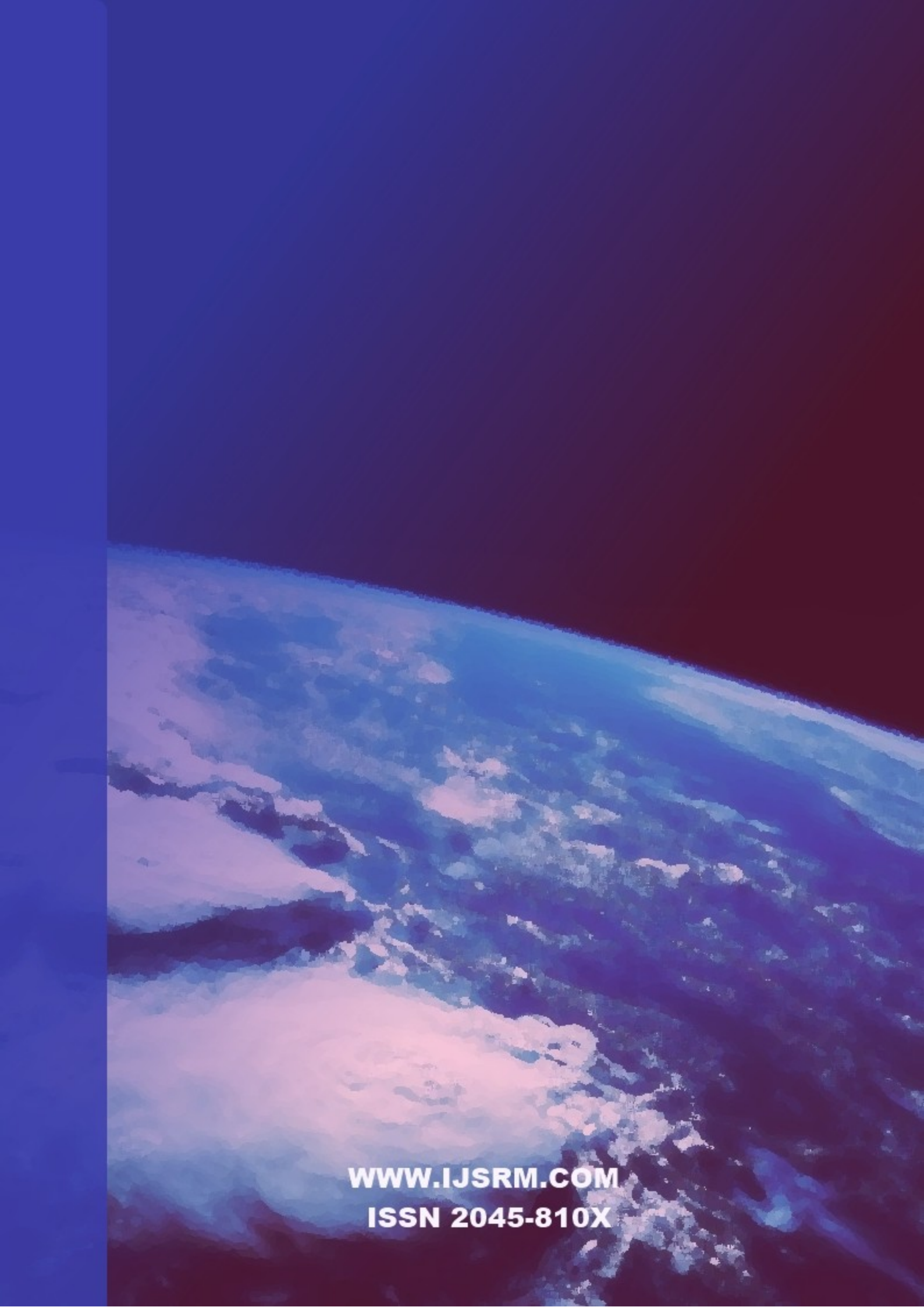
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