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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONALITY AND CONSUMER BEHAVIOR BUYING PATTERNS WITHIN THE AUTOMOBILE INDUSTRY

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ABSTRACT

The automobile industry is an enormously competitive and complex landscape. Auto dealerships compete to gain new customers, and advertise heavily to retain existing customers for repeat purchases. Differing forms of advertising are used for dealerships to achieve an advantage over the competition including, television, radio, print, outdoor, and word-of-mouth communications. Persuading a customer to become, and remain brand loyal, to a specific make, or model of a car, is challenging, but this continued cash stream back into the dealership is a profitable source of revenue that derives from these repeat customers. This paper examines the Big Five personality traits taken from the Mini-International Personality Item Pool (Mini-IPIP) (Donnellan et al., 2006) within a 33-item automotive questionnaire that examines the overall buying experiences of the participants such as the likelihood to recommend a brand, the likelihood to repurchase a brand, type of ownership (purchase versus lease), and includes prior brand repeat ownership information. Demographic variables are additionally accounted for in the overall automobile buying experience, which includes age, gender, level of education, marital status, number of children, and the annual household income of survey respondents. Significant statistical analysis was found in all areas.

JEL: M30, M31

KEYWORDS: Consumer Research, Marketing, Brand Preference

INTRODUCTION

The automobile buying experience is an occurrence that involves comparison-shopping through local car dealerships, automobile websites, and word-of-mouth communications. Communicating with car dealer sales representatives on which type of vehicle to buy can result in a tedious buying experience. Moreover, buying a car is an important decision that consumers make several times during their lifetime. During the car buying process many questions come up such as which brand of car to purchase, what type, make, or model of vehicle to purchase, and whether or not, to lease or own the car (Caribbean Business, 2013). This paper analyzes consumer behavior buying patterns within the automobile industry, specifically looking at the likelihood to recommend a brand, the likelihood to repurchase a brand, previous brand ownership, and type of ownership; also, the authors investigate whether specific demographic variables and the individual personality characteristics of conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism, openness to new experiences, and extraversion. The demographic information collected contained a wide variety of information regarding the characteristics of participants, which included age, level of education, marital status, ethnicity, gender, family size, and annual household income. All data collected in this study was in years 2012 – 2014 with 488 working professional participants in the Houston, Texas area.

To define the variables more in detail, demographic variables were also taken into consideration. Information was collected on the demographic characteristics of participants. Age was categorized as 18-25, 26-35, 36-45, 46-55, 56-65 and 65+ years; however, only 9 respondents were ages 65+ so the latter two

categories were combined for this analysis. Level of education was collected using the categories some high school, high school diploma, some college, four-year college degree, and graduate degree. Only 5 respondents had some high school, so the first two categories were combined into a single "high school" category. Marital status was collected as single, married, divorced, widowed, and in a relationship. Only 5 respondents were widowed so this group was combined with divorced for analysis purposes. A number of children were collected as; none, 1-2, 3-4 or 5+ but only 3 respondents had 5 or more and so this was combined with the previous category to give 3+. Demographic information was also collected on gender, ethnicity (White, Hispanic, Asian, African- American or Other), and annual household income (< $35,000, $35,000-$74,999. $75,000-$124,999, $125,000-$199,999 or $200,000+). Personality was assessed using the *Mini-International Personality Item Pool (Mini-IPIP)* (Donnellan et al., 2006), which comprises of 5 domains, including conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism, openness to new experiences, and extraversion. Automotive ownership behavior was assessed using 4 different items. Type of ownership was categorized as purchase, or lease. The likelihood of recommending, or repurchasing the current brand, was assessed using a 10 point scale where 0 = not likely at all and 10 = extremely likely. The number of previous automobiles of the same brand previously owned, or leased was categorized as none, 1, 2 or 3+.

The results of the analysis revealed differences in each of the following areas: (1) personality characteristics and likelihood of recommending a brand; (2) demographic characteristics and likelihood of recommending a brand; (3) personality characteristics and likelihood of repurchasing a brand; (4) demographic characteristics and likelihood of repurchasing a brand; (5) personality characteristics and type of ownership; (6) demographic characteristics and type of ownership; (7) personality characteristics and previous brand ownership; and (8) demographic characteristics and previous brand ownership. The results of the analysis showed differences in demographic characteristics, and type of ownership; personality characteristics, and type of ownership; demographic characteristics, and likelihood of recommending a brand; personality characteristics, and likelihood of recommending a brand; demographic characteristics, and likelihood of repurchasing a brand; personality characteristics and likelihood of repurchasing a brand; demographic characteristics, and previous brand ownership; and personality characteristics, and previous brand ownership. The remainder of this document is organized into the following sections including, literature review, data and methodology, results, concluding comments, references, acknowledgements, and biography of authors.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Although there were no exact matches in the literature on what specifically this study was about, there were several articles found that had similar research areas including consumer attitudes, brand loyal customers, customer satisfaction, customer relationship commitment, personality in buying patterns, repeat customer analysis, and relationship marketing. Bodey and Grace (2007) analyzed personality characteristics on consumer attitudes. Consumer's attitude towards complaining about a product had positive effects on the tendency of the consumer to complain. Li et al., (2012) found that customer loyalty is a huge component to a company's overall success. Faithful customers are less price sensitive, and more likely to purchase regularly. Loyal customers provided a steady revenue stream for companies. Relationship quality reduced buyer's remorse, and reinforced the relationship between the shopper, and the dealer.

Trust, price deals, commitment, and education level were positive predictors of word-of-mouth communications. Customer satisfaction, commitment, and price deals were positive predictors of purchase intentions. Likewise, trust, commitment, and price deals, were significant influences on customer loyalty. Customer satisfaction was also a positive influence towards customer purchase intentions (Li et al., 2012). Srivastava and Owens (2010) discovered that new brands entering the market, increased use of sales promotions, unconventional forms of distribution, and a decrease in advertising made maintaining brand commitment progressively difficult. Repeat customers could give a vital competitive advantage to organizations. Loyal customers lower a firm's acquisition cost (Armstrong & Kotler, 2000). Customer

loyalty is defined as the relationship between relative attitude, and repeat patronage (Heere & Dickson, 2008). Commitment to a relationship is a relatively stable, robust, and passionate psychological state, or approach, towards maintaining that relationship (Chakraborty, Srivastava, & Marshall, 2007).

Affective commitment existed when one had the yearning to maintain that association based on a generalized sense of positive regard for, or liking of, and a gratification within that relationship (Matilla, 2006). Calculative commitment occurred when one needed to maintain a relationship due to the anticipated costs associated with leaving that relationship (Matilla, 2006). Consumers' commitment to a brand tended to be more affective than calculative (Matilla, 2006; Evanschitzky et al., 2006). Bator and Cialdini, (2006) showed that preference for consistency, or coherence, of a person is the desire to be consistent within his/her own responses internally, the desire to be perceived as consistent publicly among others, and the desire that others be consistent. Cialdini et al. (1995) found a positive correlation between low-preference for consistency, and the personality trait of openness to new experiences. High-preference for consistency folks weighed commitments, choices, and previous expectations greater than low-preference for consistency individuals. The personality traits of agreeableness, and conscientiousness were found to have a positive relationship with a preference for consistency. Resistance to change and brand commitment were positively related. True loyalty is commitment based. Constancy measures, such as repeat purchases, can be disingenuous due to overlooking such factors as listlessness, and habit (Srivastava & Owens, 2010).

Since the early 1990s, there has been a growing awareness of the importance of ongoing relationships in such assorted areas as marketing channels, and relationship marketing (Hewett & Bearden, 2001; Hakansson & Snehota, 1995). Young and Albaum (2003) found that Americans feel that direct selling techniques were more risky over Australians. Direct selling can be defined as personal contact between a salesperson, and a consumer, away from fixed business locations, as within the Internet. In the United States trust in general in direct sellers was more conspicuous. Loyalty is the extent to which the customer desires to sustain a long-term relationship with the firm (Fullerton, 2003). One stimulus for customers to engage in relational exchanges is to save money (Peltier & Westfall, 2000). Companies habitually rewarded loyal customers with a distinctive price offer, however, competitors could easily match this, and therefore, it did not become an ongoing competitive advantage. Structural bonding tactics increased the switching costs, and this level of relationship marketing, which pertained to both partners desiring to partner in order to achieve something, ranked highest in the relationship bonding tactics, and conferred the largest likelihood for firms to create a long-term competitive advantage (Ibrahim & Najjar, 2008).

Relationship bonding tactics are helpful in improving customers' loyalty, and relationship marketing tactics could efficiently increase the awareness of customers' trust, and commitment to the brand and/or firm (Armstrong & Kotler, 2000; Gruen et al., 2000). Homburg and Giering (2001) asserted that customer's personality tempered the expansion of a relationship strategy, and it also demonstrated that the strength of a relationship between fulfillment, and customer constancy, was influenced by the individual's personal characteristics. McAdams suggested (2001) that an individual's personality predisposition should encompass a three-tier effect, including personality traits, personal concerns, and life stories. Baumgartner (2002) suggested the factors that make up an individual's consumer personology were a person's disposition, goal-striving initiatives, and narrative entities.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

The current research aimed to examine the relationship between personality, and consumer buying behavior patterns within the automobile industry. The authors administered a 33-item questionnaire in person and digitally. The subjects were working professionals in the Houston, Texas metropolitan area. The sample size was 488 subjects and the data was collected over the years 2012 – 2014. Consumer buying behavior was assessed using 4 different items. Type of ownership was categorized as purchase or lease. The likelihood of recommending, or repurchasing the current brand, was assessed using a 10 point scale where

0 = not likely at all and 10 = extremely likely. The number of previous automobiles of the same brand previously owned, or leased, was categorized as none, 1, 2 or 3+. The personality assessment instrument used was the *Mini-International Personality Item Pool Mini-IPIP* (Donnellan et al., 2006) that measures the *Big Five* (Costa & McCrae, 1992) personality traits, which included conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism, openness to new experiences, and extraversion. Information on the demographic characteristics of respondents was also obtained (age, gender, level of education, marital status, number of children, and annual household income). The responses to each section of the questionnaire (e.g. buying behaviors, personality traits, and demographic characteristics) were summarized as frequency (percentage) for categorical variables, and median (interquartile range [IQR]) for scales.

Within the univariable analysis, the relationships between the likelihood of recommending the brand, the likelihood of repurchasing the brand, and each of the five personality traits were assessed using Spearman's correlation coefficient (*r*). Each personality trait was compared between those who purchased, and those who leased their vehicles using the Mann-Whitney-U test, and by number of vehicles previously owned using the Kruskall-Wallis test. To determine which factors were independently associated with vehicle buying behaviors, stepwise multivariable regression models were used. For all four behaviors, only variables significantly associated with the behavior were entered into the model with all models based on the same linear predictor:

$$u = \alpha + \beta X + \varepsilon \tag{1}$$

where X was a matrix of all demographic and personality variables selected into the models and β a vector of the corresponding regression coefficients.

For type of ownership, a binary outcome, logistic regression models was applied in the form of

$$Logit(P(Y)) = u$$

where P(Y) was a probability, or leasing a vehicle.

For likelihood of repurchase, or recommending a brand, linear regression models were used where u in the equation (1) was the likelihood of repurchase, or recommendation. Finally number of previous brand vehicles owned, or leased, was treated as ordinal (as the final category was collapsed at the time of data collection as "3+"), and so a cumulative logistic (proportional odds) model was used. The model takes the form of

$$Logit(P(Y > j)) = u$$

where Y was the number of vehicles previously owned, and j was the level of Y.

P-values of variables not included in the models were calculated by adding each factor; one at a time, to a model containing all the factors included in the model and was displayed in the tables alongside the significant results.

All tests were 2-sided and the notation ***,**, and * showed significance at the 1, 5 and 10 percent levels respectively. All analysis was conducted using IBM SPSS Statistics.

The characteristics of all respondents are displayed in Table 1. The respondents in this survey consisted of 488 working professionals. Sample subjects were 51% female, and 49% male, with 39% White, 33% Hispanic, 12% Asian, 13% African-American, and 3% were classified as Other. The highest age percentage group was 35% within the 26 – 35 years old category, 53% had only completed an associate degree, while

31% had a bachelor's degree. The biggest marital status group was 41% married, with 37% single. Regarding the number of children, 57% had no children, whereas, 32% had 1-2. The highest income level range was $35,000 - $75,000 at 35%. The majority of respondents (91%) purchased their current vehicle, while just over a third (36%) had no prior ownership, or leased a vehicle of the same brand.

Table 1: Summary of Respondent Characteristics, Personality Traits, and Buying Behavior

Variable		Variable	
All, N	488	Number of children, N(%)	
Age, N(%)		None	278(57.3)
18-25 years	157(32.2)	1-2	159(32.8)
26-35 years	171(35.1)	3 or more	48(9.9)
36-45 years	74(15.2)	Annual household income, N(%)	
46-55 years	54(11.1)	less than $35,000	113(23.3)
56 or older	31(6.4)	$35,000 - $74,999	170(35.1)
Ethnicity, N(%)		$75,000 - $124,999	128(26.4)
White	190(39.3)	$125,000 - $199,999	40(8.2)
Hispanic	158(32.6)	3 or more	
Asian	59(12.2)	Ownership type, N(%)	
African-American	61(12.6)	Lease	42(8.6)
Other	16(3.3)	Purchase	446(91.4)
Gender, N(%)		Recommendation likelihood, median (IQR)	9(7-10)
Female	248(51.2)	Repurchase likelihood, median (IQR)	9(8-10)
Male	236(48.8)	Number previously owned, N(%)	
Level of education, N(%)		None	176(36.1)
High school	25(5.2)	1	116(23.8)
Some college	261(53.8)	2	98(20.1)
4-year college degree	155(32.0)	3 or more	97(19.9)
Graduate degree	44(9.1)	Mini-IPIP domain, median (IQR)	
Marital status, N(%)		Conscientiousness	15(13-17)
Single	184(37.9)	Agreeableness	15(13-17)
Married	201(41.4)	Neuroticism	13(11-15)
Divorced/ Widowed	29(6.0)	Openness	15(12-17)
In a relationship	71(14.6)	Extraversion	13(11-16)

This table summarizes the distribution of demographic characteristics, personality traits, and vehicle buying behaviors across all survey respondents.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The unadjusted relationship between buying behaviors, and the *Big Five* (Costa & McCrae, 1992) personality traits utilizing the *Mini-International Personality Item Pool (Mini-IPIP)* (Donnellan et al., 2006) are summarized in Table 2. Type of ownership was significantly associated with the extraversion domain. Those who lease their vehicle scored higher with a median (IQR) of 15(13-17) compared to those who purchased (13(12-17)) ($p = .008***$). The likelihood of recommending, or repurchasing the current automobile brand, both showed a significant correlation with the conscientiousness domain ($r = .128$, $p = .005***$; and $r = .123$; $p = .006***$), respectively. There was no association between number of vehicles previously owned, and personality.

Table 2: Univariable Association between the Personality Traits and Vehicle Buying Behaviors

Mini-IPIP Domain	Conscientiousness	P	Agreeableness	P	Neuroticism	P
Ownership type, median (IQR)						
Lease	16(14-18)	0.184	14(13-17)	0.650	11(9-13)	0.860
Purchase	15(13-17)		15(13-17)		11(9-13)	
Recommendation likelihood, r	0.128	0.005***	0.037	0.412	0.005	0.905
Repurchase likelihood, r	0.123	0.006***	0.031	0.497	-0.022	0.628
Number previously owned, median (IQR)						
None	15(13-17)	0.383	15(13-17)	0.348	11(9-13)	0.723
1	15(13-17)		14(12.25-17)		11(9-13)	
2	15(13-17)		14(12.75-16.25)		11.5(9-13)	
3 or more	16(13-18)		15(13-17)		11(8-13)	
	Openness	P	**Extraversion**	P		
Ownership type, median (IQR)						
Lease	15(13-17)	0.266	15(13-17)	0.008***		
Purchase	15(12-17)		13(12-17)			
Recommendation likelihood, r	-0.002	0.957	0.026	0.569		
Repurchase likelihood, r	-0.034	0.458	-0.027	0.549		
Number previously owned, median (IQR)						
None	14(12-16)	0.309	14(11-16)	0.809		
1	15(13-16)		13(11-15)			
2	15(12-17)		13(11-16)			
3 or more	11(8-13)		14(11.25-15)			

This table summarizes the relationship between personality traits, and buying behaviors. Scores in each personality trait summarize across ownership type, and number of vehicles previously owned, as median (IQR) and compares using Mann-Whitney-U tests, and Kruskall Wallis tests. The relationship between likelihood of recommending current brand, repurchasing current brand, and each of the personality traits is summarized using Spearman's correlation coefficient (r).

The relationships between ownership type and number of vehicles of the same brand previously owned are broken down by demographic characteristics in Table 3. Type of ownership varied significantly only by ethnicity ($p = 0.020$**) with the highest rate of leasing observed among Hispanic respondents (14.6%) and the lowest in Asian (3.4%), though annual household income was borderline significant ($p = 0.074$*) with those with $200,000+ in annual household income more likely to lease their vehicle. The number of vehicles previously owned differed with the age of the respondent with those in the older age group the most likely to have owned 3 or more of the same brand previously ($p < 0.001$***).

There were also differences by ethnicity ($p = 0.047$**) with 27.1% of Asian respondents previously owned 3 or more of the same brand compared to 8.2% of African Americans. Respondents with graduate degrees were also the most likely to have owned 3 or more of the same brand with re-ownership increasing with education level ($p = 0.004$***). There were also significant differences by marital status ($p = 0.005$***), number of children ($p < 0.001$***) and household income ($p < 0.001$***), with those who were married, with higher levels of education and more children likely to have owned the largest number of vehicles by the same brand.

Table 3: Univariable Association between Demographic Characteristics Broken Down by Ownership Type and Number of Vehicles Previously Owned

	Ownership Type			No Previous Vehicles of Same Brand				
	Purchase, N(%)	Lease, N(%)	p-value	None, N(%)	1, N(%)	2, N(%)	3 or more, N(%)	p-value
All	446(91.4)	42(8.6)		176(36.1)	116(23.8)	98(20.1)	97(19.9)	
Age								
18-25 years	139(88.5)	18(11.5)	0.149	64(40.8)	53(33.8)	29(18.5)	11(7.0)	<0.001***
26-35 years	156(91.2)	15(8.8)		71(41.5)	33(19.3)	35(20.5)	32(18.7)	
36-45 years	72(97.3)	2(2.7)		20(27.0)	15(20.3)	20(27.0)	19(25.7)	
46-55 years	48(88.9)	6(11.1)		15(27.8)	10(18.5)	10(18.5)	19(35.2)	
56 or older	30(96.8)	1(3.2)		6(19.4)	5(16.1)	4(12.9)	16(51.6)	
Ethnicity								
White	180(94.7)	10(5.3)	0.020**	71(37.4)	38(20.0)	36(18.9)	45(23.7)	0.047**
Hispanic	135(85.4)	23(14.6)		66(41.8)	41(25.9)	26(16.5)	25(15.8)	
Asian	57(96.6)	2(3.4)		13(22.0)	15(25.4)	15(25.4)	16(27.1)	
African-American	56(91.8)	5(8.2)		23(37.7)	16(26.2)	17(27.9)	5(8.2)	
Other	15(93.8)	1(6.2)		3(18.8)	4(25.0)	4(25.0)	5(31.2)	
Gender								
Female	230(92.7)	18(7.3)	0.333	92(37.1)	60(24.2)	47(19.0)	49(19.8)	0.922
Male	213(90.3)	23(9.7)		84(35.6)	54(22.9)	50(21.2)	48(20.3)	
Level of education								
Some high school - High school diploma	22(88.0)	3(12.0)	0.825	12(48.0)	7(28.0)	2(8.0)	4(16.0)	0.004***
Some college	240(92.0)	21(8.0)		103(39.5)	73(28.0)	42(16.1)	43(16.5)	
4-year college degree	142(91.6)	13(8.4)		49(31.6)	28(18.1)	43(27.7)	35(22.6)	
Graduate degree	40(90.9)	4(9.1)		12(27.3)	7(15.9)	10(22.7)	15(34.1)	
Marital status								
Single	169(91.8)	15(8.2)	0.864	73(39.7)	52(28.3)	35(19.0)	24(13.0)	0.005***
Married	184(91.5)	17(8.5)		65(32.3)	36(17.9)	43(21.4)	57(28.4)	
Divorced/Widowed	27(93.1)	2(6.9)		9(31.0)	6(20.7)	6(20.7)	8(27.6)	
In a relationship	63(88.7)	8(11.3)		28(39.4)	22(31.0)	13(18.3)	8(11.3)	
Number of children								
None	253(91.0)	25(9.0)	0.762	118(42.4)	75(27.0)	52(18.7)	33(11.9)	<0.001***
1-2	147(92.5)	12(7.5)		45(28.3)	30(18.9)	33(20.8)	51(32.1)	
3 or more	43(89.6)	5(10.4)		12(25.0)	11(22.9)	12(25.0)	13(27.1)	
Annual household income								
less than $35,000	102(90.3)	11(9.7)	0.074*	41(36.3)	36(31.9)	25(22.1)	11(9.7)	<0.001***
$35,000 - $74,999	157(92.4)	13(7.6)		68(40.0)	43(25.3)	31(18.2)	28(16.5)	
$75,000 - $124,999	116(90.6)	12(9.4)		50(39.1)	26(20.3)	24(18.8)	28(21.9)	
$125,000 - $199,999	40(100)	0(0)		9(22.5)	6(15.0)	10(25.0)	15(37.5)	
$200,000+	28(82.4)	6(17.6)		8(23.5)	4(11.8)	7(20.6)	15(44.1)	

This table displays the demographic characteristics of respondents broken down by ownership type and number of vehicles previously owned. Comparisons were made using the Chi-squared test or Fisher's exact test, as appropriate.

The distribution of scores representing the likelihood of recommending or repurchasing the brands broken down by demographic characteristics is displayed in Table 4. The only characteristic by which likelihood of recommending the brand significantly varied was age ($p = 0.006***$) where the oldest respondents, i.e. those 56 years or older, reported a median likelihood of 10 (9-10) while in all other age groups the median (IQR) was 9 (8-10). The likelihood of repurchasing the vehicle also varied significantly only with age ($p = 0.003***$) with the likelihood increasing with age. In 18-25 year olds the median (IQR) was 8 (7-9), rising to 10 (8-10) in those ages 56 or older. Annual household income was significant at the 10% p-levels for both outcomes ($p = 0.078*$ and $p = 0.080*$) with a trend towards those who had higher incomes being more likely to recommend or repurchase the same brand again.

Table 4: Univariable Association between Likelihood of Recommending and Repurchasing the Current Brand and Demographic Characteristics

| | Likelihood of Recommendation | | | Likelihood of Repurchasing | | |
	Median	IQR	P-Value	Median	IQR	P-Value
All	9	7-10		9	8-10	
Age						
18-25 years	9	8-10	0.006***	8	7-9	0.003***
26-35 years	9	8-10		9	7-10	
36-45 years	9	8-10		8	7-10	
46-55 years	9	8-10		9	7-10	
56 or older	10	9-10		10	8-10	
Ethnicity						
White	9	8-10	0.122	9	7-10	0.456
Hispanic	9	8-10		9	7-10	
Asian	9	8-10		8	8-10	
African-American	9	7-10		8	6-10	
Other	7.5	5-10		7.5	4.25-10	
Gender						
Female	9	8-10	0.636	9	7-10	0.982
Male	9	8-10		9	7-10	
Level of education						
Some high school -High school diploma	9	7-10	0.845	8	6-9.5	0.828
Some college	9	8-10		9	7-10	
4-year college degree	9	8-10		9	7-10	
Graduate degree	9	8-10		8	7-9	
Marital status						
Single	9	8-10	0.562	9	7-10	0.506
Married	9	8-10		9	7-10	
Divorced /Widowed	9	7-10		8	7-10	
In a relationship	9	8-10		9	6.75-10	
Number of children						
None	9	8-10	0.257	8	7-10	0.086
1-2	9	8-10		9	7-10	
3 or more	9	8-10		9	8-10	
Annual household income						
less than $35,000	9	8-10	0.078*	8	7-9	0.080*
$35,000 - $74,999	9	8-10		9	7-10	
$75,000 - $124,999	9	8-10		9	7-10	
$125,000 - $199,999	9	7-10		9	7.25-10	
$200,000+	10	9-10		9	8-10	

This table provides the median (IQR) scores on the scales used to rate the likelihood of repurchasing and of recommending the current brand by demographic characteristics. Comparisons between groups were made using the Mann-Whitney-U test of Kruskall Wallis test, as appropriate.

To determine which personality traits influence buying behaviors, after adjusting for, and demographic characteristics were considered, multivariable stepwise regression models were used, the results of which are presented in Table 5. Among demographic characteristics, ethnicity was the only factor that was significantly associated with all four buying behavior indicators. Asian respondents were the least likely to lease their vehicles, and Hispanic respondents were over 3 times more likely to lease than White respondents (OR = 3.166 (1.450 - 6.914)). Respondents of Other ethnicity were the least likely to indicate that they would recommend, or repurchase their current vehicle, but were the most likely to have previously owned vehicles of the same brand. Speculating, based on the overall demographics of the respondents, we believe Other to represent the Middle Eastern community. Age was also a significant predictor of likelihood of repurchasing, and having previously owned the same brand, with those in the oldest age category most likely to indicate they would repurchase, and most likely to previously own more vehicles within the same brand. Number of children were a significant predictor of the number of vehicles previously owned by participants who had no children the least likely to report previous ownership.

Level of education and annual household income were both significant predictors ($p = < 0.10$) of the number of vehicles previously owned by those with higher incomes, and higher levels of education tending to be more likely to have previously owned a greater number of the same vehicle. After adjusting for significant demographic variables, extraversion was associated with ownership type ($p = .021**$). For every one-point

increase in the extraversion score, the odds of leasing a vehicle, rather than purchase, increased by 12.6% (OR=1.126 (95% CI 1.018-1.245)). Level of conscientiousness was associated with how likely a respondent was to recommend their current brand (p = .027**). For every one-point increase in the conscientiousness score, the mean score on the recommendation scale increased by 0.059 (0.007 - 0.111). Agreeableness and openness to new experiences were both significantly associated with the odds of having previously owned vehicles of the same brand (p = .008*** and p = .001***), respectively. For a one-point increase in the agreeableness domain, the odds of having previously owned one additional vehicle increased by 8.1% (OR = 0.919 (0.863 - 0.978)). Conversely a one-point increase in the openness to new experiences domain was associated with a 10.6% increase in odds (OR = 1.106(1.042 - 1.173)). None of the personality traits were associated with the likelihood of repurchasing the same vehicle. The R^2 values associated with the models were 0.138, 0.101, 0.091 and 0.137 for ownership type, likelihood of recommendation, likelihood of repurchase and number previously owned, respectively. Therefore, although the above factors are significantly associated with buying behavior they only explain up to 14% of the variation in buying behavior suggesting that other unmeasured factors also play a part.

Table 5: Multivariable Associations between Vehicle Buying Behaviors, Personality Dimensions, and Demographic Characteristics

	Ownership Type		Likelihood of Recommendation	
	or (95% ci)	p	beta (95% ci)	p
mini-ipip domain				
conscientiousness		0.339	0.059 (0.007-0.111)	0.027**
agreeableness		0.407		0.839
neuroticism		0.510		0.679
openness		0.843		0.367
extraversion	1.126(1.018-1.245)	0.021**		0.841
age		0.156		0.117
18-25 years				
26-35 years				
36-45 years				
46-55 years				
56 or older				
ethnicity				
white	1	0.021**	ref	0.005***
hispanic	3.166(1.450-6.914)		0.236(-0.139-0.612)	
asian	0.756(0.159-3.597)		0.140(-0.378-0.657)	
african-american	1.648(0.536-5.063)		-0.175(-0.0687-0.337)	
other	1.334(0.158-11.292)		-1.485(-2.391- -0.580)	
gender		0.560		0.531
level of education		0.739		0.441
high school				
some college				
4-year college degree				
graduate degree				
marital status		0.854		0.901
number of children		0.720		0.364
none				
1-2				
3 or more				
annual household income		0.133		0.217
less than $35,000				
$35,000 - $74,999			\	
$75,000 - $124,999				
$125,000 - $199,999				
3 or more				
r^2	0.138		0.101	

This table displays the demographic characteristics and personality traits that were independently associated with buying behavior. Logistic regression was used to model the odds of leasing the current vehicle and results summarized as odds ratios (OR). Linear regression was used to explore associations with the likelihood of recommending or repurchasing current brand of vehicle. Cumulative logistic regression models were used for a number of vehicles previously owned. The ORs indicates the odds of having previously owned an additional vehicle.

Table 5 (Cont'd): Multivariable Associations between Vehicle Buying Behaviors, Personality Dimensions, and Demographic Characteristics

	Likelihood of Repurchase		Number Previously Owned	
	Beta (95% CI)	P	OR (95% CI)	P
Mini-IPIP domain				
Conscientiousness		0.148		0.579
Agreeableness		0.973	0.919(0.863-0.978)	0.008***
Neuroticism		0.764		0.882
Openness		0.433	1.106(1.042-1.173)	0.001***
Extraversion		0.262		0.648
Age				
18-25 years	Ref	0.003***	1	0.007***
26-35 years	0.501(0.012-0989)		1.251(0.825-1.897)	
36-45 years	0.162(-0.463-0.788)		2.023(1.153-3.548)	
46-55 years	0.414(-0.303-1.131)		2.167(1.108-4.237)	
56 or older	1.649(0.770-2.529)		4.148(1.835-9.375)	
Ethnicity				
White	Ref	0.029**	1	0.007***
Hispanic	0.529(0.040-1.019)		0.879(0.586-1.318)	
Asian	0.308(-0.352-0.968)		2.118(1.226-3.660)	
African-American	-0.175(-0.833-0.484)		0.829(0.482-1.4290	
Other	-0.984(-2.135-0.168)		2.335(0.901-6.051)	
Gender		0.947		0.280
Level of education		0.460		
High school			1	0.069*
Some college			1.147(0.024-3.152)	
4-year college degree			2.183(0.999-3.177)	
Graduate degree			1.510(0.595-3.850)	
Marital status		0.587		0.944
Number of children		0.581		
None			1	0.018**
1-2			1.941(1.281-2.942)	
3 or more			1.491(0.784-2.835)	
Annual household income		0.711		
less than $35,000			1	0.081*
$35,000 - $74,999			0.857(0.535-1.340)	
$75,000 - $124,999			0.714(0.424-1.204)	
$125,000 - $199,999			1.758(0.858-3.644)	
3 or more			1.619(0.745-3.515)	
R^2	0.091		0.137	

This table displays the demographic characteristics and personality traits that were independently associated with buying behavior. Logistic regression was used to model the odds of leasing the current vehicle and results summarized as odds ratios (OR). Linear regression was used to explore associations with the likelihood of recommending or repurchasing current brand of vehicle. Cumulative logistic regression models were used for a number of vehicles previously owned. The ORs indicates the odds of having previously owned an additional vehicle.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

Upon reviewing the analysis of this study, it is determined that demographic features, and personality dimensions do play a significant role in whether a buyer will recommend, repurchase, have prior brand ownership of a particular brand, and will either purchase or lease a vehicle within the automobile industry landscape. This information is important to car dealership owners, managers, sales teams, and staff in a variety of ways. Dealers typically have demographic data of their customers on hand. This information is found internally through the customers' application process, and service appointments. Dealers could seek using a personality survey to gain more of an insight into their customers' personality dimensions, and then tailor dealership marketing efforts to reach out to those particular customers that are more inclined to recommend, repurchase, be on-going repeat buyers, and purchase or lease through these identified personality dimensions. Utilizing the customers' demographic information from having customers complete a brief demographic questionnaire could likewise do this.

With the dealers conducting both a spontaneous personality analysis on their customers, as well as, having access to customer demographic characteristics, whether documented or observed, this could allow the dealership to modify their sales and marketing approaches to gain repeat customers, specific repeat car brand buyers, as well as, those particular customers who are more likely to recommend a brand could be besought for family and friend contacts to further market to, as well. The goal of this paper was to identify which personality and demographic characteristics were more likely than not to indicate a car buyer's likelihood to recommend a brand, repurchase a brand, purchase a car versus lease a car, and the likelihood for the car buyer to be a repeat customer of the same brand. Identifying these personalities and demographic significant areas could help car dealership tailor their marketing efforts towards these certain groups of customers either by way of developing a questionnaire to give new car buyers and current clients within the service department that would identify these customers that did in fact contain significant personality and demographic traits. The data were collected over a period of two years (2012-2014) from working professionals in the Houston, Texas area with total participation of 488 participants. The methodology that was used to identify the personality and demographic statistical traits and characteristics were univariable analysis, stepwise multiple regression analysis, Spearman's correlations, logistic and linear regression models, cumulative logistic (proportional odds) model, Mann-Whitney-U test, and the Kruskall-Wallis test.

A summary of the primary findings includes that the participants who scored higher in extraversion are more likely to lease a car versus outright purchase a car. Customers who are more conscientiousness are more likely to recommend or repurchase their current automobile brand. Hispanics are more likely to lease their cars, and Asians are the least likely to lease a vehicle. Those in the older age group (e.g. 56+) are more likely to have owned 3 or more of the same brand, and more likely to recommend and repurchase their current car brand. Asians are more likely to own 3 or more of the same brand, with African-Americans owning the least amount of the same brand overall. Respondents with higher incomes, and higher levels of education (e.g. graduate degrees) tend to be more likely to have previously owned a greater number of the same vehicle. Those who are married, with higher levels of education and more children are more likely to have owned the largest number of vehicles within the same brand. Additionally, those with higher incomes are more likely to recommend or repurchase the same brand.

Hispanic respondents are more likely to lease a car, 3 times more than Whites, while Asians are the least likely to lease. The Other ethnicity group (speculative to be Middle Eastern responders) are more likely to have previously owned vehicles of the same brand, however, they are the least likely to recommend or repurchase their current vehicle. Participants with no children are least likely to have prior brand ownership. The more extroverted the participants, the more likely to lease over purchase a car. The more conscientious the participants are, the more likely to recommend their current car brand. The more agreeable and more open to new experiences the participant is, the more likely to have previously owned vehicles from the same brand. A limitation to this study includes the fact that specific brands were not identified more clearly that the participants were most likely to recommend and repurchase. Although specific brand questions (e.g. Ford, Honda, Chevrolet, Cadillac) were asked in the survey, this information was not used to further give diagnosis to this study. A direction for a future study would be to examine which brands within the automobile industry are the most recommended and repurchased.

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A COMPARISON OF USER PERCEPTIONS AND FREQUENCY OF USE OF SOCIAL MEDIA TO USE OF SOCIAL MEDIA

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ABSTRACT

Social media has increasingly become a place consumers go to for interpersonal communication, information gathering and sharing, and recreation. Understanding social media user perceptions in relation to how they use social media can benefit marketers in developing social media strategies and content, as well as selecting the specific social media networks to use. This research examined user perceptions and frequency of use of social media in relation to the uses of selected social media – Facebook, Twitter, and Pinterest – among undergraduate university students 18 to 23 years old. The findings indicate the importance of frequency of use, perceived usefulness and enjoyment, and showed a relevant though lesser role of enjoyment on the uses of social media

JEL: M31, M38

KEYWORDS: Social Media, Perceived Ease of Use, Perceived Usefulness, Frequency of Use, Enjoyment

INTRODUCTION

Social media has changed the ways consumers share, evaluate and use information (Smithee, 2011; Xiao, Zhang, Xue & Yue, 2013) through allowing consumers to engage directly with the organization therefore becoming active participants in the communication process (Thackeray, Neigerm Hanson & McKenzie, 2008). This enhanced consumer ability to interact with one another has shifted the traditional power base between businesses and consumers towards consumers (Christodoulides & Jevons, 2011) and significantly changed the methods organizations use to communicate with their constituencies (Lai & Li, 2005; Mangold & Faulds, 2009). Social media offers organizations the opportunity to interact with consumers in new ways and enhanced engagement between business and customers increases the chances that customers will become more involved with a company and its brands (Smith & Zook, 2011). Social media is important because it lets customers communicate with each other and organizations two-way communication with customers (Smith & Zook, 2011). This type of digital communication between firms and their audiences is important for marketers as an increasing number of consumers desire such connectedness any time and any place (Karaatli, Ma & Suntornpithug, 2010). Social media platforms have allowed the Internet to move from primarily an information medium to a source of influence to consumers (Hanna, Rohn & Crittenden, 2011). Due to this ability to engage consumers while at relatively low costs compared to other media, social media is relevant for organizations of all sizes – small, medium and large (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010).

While traditionally thought of as the face-to-face passing of information from one person to another, WOM can be passed thorough other methods as well in both offline and online environments (Brown, Barry, Dacin & Gunst, 2005). One significant aspect of WOM delivered through online methods is its wider distribution beyond small circles of family and friends (Kiecker & Cowles, 2001). This wider personal online information distribution has been enhanced through personal publishing – social networks – available over the Internet (Gruhl, Guha, Liben-Nowell & Tomkins, 2004). Social media allows word-of-mouth

communication to be distributed to large numbers of consumers – be it organization to consumers or consumer to consumers (Mangold & Faulds, 2009; Sago, 2010; Evans, 2012). Positive online brand interactions lead to increased brand satisfaction (Kim, 2005) and a stronger level of brand relationship (Veloutsou, 2007). Ghose, Ipeirotis and Li (2009) found consumer generated online content an important information source in other consumers' purchase decision process. In fact, digital WOM has become a dominant influence in buying decisions (Cheng, Lee & Thadani, 2009). Word-of-mouth (WOM) communication is an important influence on purchase choices by consumers (Brown & Reingen, 1987; Herr, Kardes & Kim, 1991; Reingen & Kernan, 1986). Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955) found that WOM is seven times more effective than print advertisements while Harrison-Walker (2001) showed WOM is four times more effective than personal sales pitches related to changing consumer attitudes and behavior One benefit of positive WOM is that it can reduce perceived social and financial risks related to purchase buying decisions (Schimmel & Nicholls, 2005). WOM can also be a multiplier of advertising impact and increase the pace of brand growth (Bond & Kirshenbaum, 1998).

Laczniak, DeCarlo and Ramaswami (2001) found that negative WOM, if strong and compelling, can negatively impact brand evaluations. However, a limited amount of negative WOM among a majority of positive WOM was shown to be not critically harmful (Doh & Hwang, 2009). Consumers impacted by an unsatisfying brand experience often use WOM communication to share their dissatisfactions with others (Brown & Reingen, 1987; Richins, 1983; Swan & Oliver, 1989). This article examines the use and user perceptions of social media concentrating on perceived ease of use, perceived usefulness, and enjoyment. After a literature review, the framework of the research methodology including 3 research questions related to comparing these user perceptions to uses of social media is given and research results presented and discussed. The final section gives concluding comments and limitations of the study.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The Technology Acceptance Modal (TAM) has been one of the most tested and widely adopted acceptance models since its introduction by Davis in the 1980s (Teo, 2009). TAM has been supported by theoretical and empirical research (Pipers, Bemelmans, Hemstra & van Montfort, 2001; Legris, Ingham & Collerette, 2003; Olson & Boyer, 2003; Pederson, 2005; Yang, 2007) and has been shown to successfully model technology acceptance and use across organizational types and technologies (Saade, 2003; Seyal, Rahmin & Rahm, 2002; Martins & Kellermanns, 2004; Landray, Griffeth & Hartman, 2006). Research has shown TAM to be a method to predict the acceptance of technology products (Pagani, 2004; Yang, 2005) and offer an understanding of user intention to use a current or new technology. Research has also shown the validity of using TAM to predict acceptance of a variety of information technology-related products (Segars & Grover, 1993; Chin & Todd, 1995; Igbarra, Zinatelli, Cragg & Cavaye, 1997; Hu, Chau, Sheng & Tam, 1999; Venkatesh & Davis, 2000; Horton, Buck, Waterson & Clegg, 2001; Hong, Thong, Wong & Tam, 2002). Perceived usefulness (PU) and perceived ease of use (PEOU) are key components that have made the Technology Acceptance Model an influential research model related to understanding information technology usage (Chau, 2001). Davis, Bagozzi and Warshaw (1989) defined PU as "the prospective user's subjective probability that using a specific application system will increase his or her job performance within an organization" (p. 985) and PEOU as "the degree to which the prospective user expects the target system to be free of effort" (p. 985). PU and PEOU were found to be primary factors in adoption in the early days of personal computers in organizational settings (Davis, 1986). PU and PEOU impact attitudes toward a technology, which in turn impact adoption and use of a new information technology (Davis, 1989).

Research has shown that PU and PEOU are indicators of adoption and use across a range of technology aspects. Lee, Kozar and Larsen (2003) found PU and PEOU foundational conditions needed in the adoption of technology. PU and PEOU have a significant positive impact on attitudes towards website use (Tseng, Hsu & Chuang, 2012). PU and PEOU have a positive impact on consumer online shopping as related to future plans to use online shopping (Koufaris, 2002), overall attitude and behavior towards online shopping

(Hsieh & Liao, 2011) and attitudes and behavior intention (Hung, Ku & Chang, 2003). Adoption of Facebook has been shown to be positively impacted by perceived usefulness and ease of use (Mazman & Usluel, 2010). Additionally, PU and PEOU have been found to influence use of mobile marketing. PU and PEOU were shown to have positive impact on the use of mobile coupons (Venkatesh & Davis, 2000; Han, Yoon & Cameron, 2001; Hsu, Wang & Wen, 2006; Jayasingh & Eze, 2010). Amin (2007) found that PU and PEOU were key predictors of customer adoption of mobile phone credit cards. The two variables have been shown to positively impact the consumer usage intention of mobile advertising (Shen & Chen, 2008) and the adoption of e-prescriptions and automated medication management systems (Escobar-Rodriquez, Monge-Lozano & Romero-Alonso, 2012). PU and PEOU have been found to impact the adoption and acceptance of online learning. Lee, Hsieh and Hsu (2011) found that PU and PEOU had a significant positive impact on behavioral intention to use online learning systems. Joo, Lim and Kim (2012) found that academic achievement in online environments was influenced to such a degree by PU and PEOU that "the design of the learning environment should be centered around learners so that every feature and function of the online system is useful and easy to use" (p. 323).

Learning achievement and user satisfaction in online MBA programs can be predicted by the level of PU and PEOU by students (Arbaugh & Duray, 2002). The positive influence of PU and PEOU on the behavior intention to use university blended learning systems – a mixture of traditional and online learning – has been shown (Tselios, Daskalakis & Papadopoulou, 2011). PU alone has been shown to also be a significant determinant of technology adoption and acceptance. PU has been found to be a key determinant of attitude towards and intention to use technology (Hu, Chan, Sheng &Tam, 1999). Lee (2010) found a significant positive relationship between PU and ecommerce adoption. Research has shown PU to be an important factor in the intention of health care educators to use social media (Hanson, West, Neiger, Thackery, Barnes & McIntyre, 2011). The expectation for PU in a technology was stronger for men and younger workers (Venkatesh, Morris, Davis & Davis, 2003). However, usefulness of a technology should be promoted regardless of gender (Goh, 2011). Research has found PU to have a significant impact on user adoption and satisfaction levels across a range of technologies. PU was related to the adoption of computers (Davis, Bagozzi & Warshaw, 1989), online banking (Lee, 2009) and mobile coupons (Jayasingh & Eze, 2010). PU was found to be a significant predictor of user satisfaction of an ecommerce website (Green & Pearson, 2011). Mazman and Usluel (2010) stated the PU had a significant impact on the high rate of adoption and number of users of Facebook. The impact of prior experience with technology on PU of technology conflicted. While Venetesh, Morris, Davis and Davis (2003) research indicated previous experience with technologies is positively associated the PU of new technologies, Guo and Stevens (2011) found that the previous use of Facebook or MySpace had a significant negative impact on the PU of wikis.

Davis, Bagozzi and Warshaw (1992) found that technology is rejected by users due to the lack of perceived usefulness even if the technology was easy to use. PEOU plays a major role in the development of attitudes towards a range of technologies (Burton-Jones & Hubona, 2005; Childers, Carr, Peck & Carson, 2001; Davis, 1989; Davis, Bagozzi & Warshaw, 1989; Lim & Ting, 2012; Selamat, Jaffar & Ong, 2009; Teo, 2001; Yulihasri & Daud, 2011). PEOU impacts user perceived enjoyment and perceived usefulness (Lee, Xiong & Hu, 2012). Green and Pearson (2011) found PEOU had a significant impact on how users view the usefulness of online retail websites. PEOU had such a positive effect on attitudes toward online shopping that "consumers would only develop favourable attitudes toward online shopping if online shopping sites are easy to use" (Lim & Ting, 2012, p. 54). PEOU was found to have a significant positive role in the adoption of mobile coupons (Jayasingh & Eze, 2010), ecommerce (Lee, 2001) and the adoption and use of cellular phones (Kwan & Chidambaram, 2000). However, research by Parra-Lopez, Bulchand-Gidumal, Gutierrez-Tano and Diaz-Armas (2011) found the tendency of social media users related to plan vacation trips was not significantly influenced by perceived ease of use.

Control, intrinsic motivation and emotion are key determinents in user formation of PEOU related to technology acceptance (King & He, 2006). Maholtra and Segars (2005) found that a significant behavior

change needed to adopt the perceived complexities of the wireless web inhibited the speed of adoption of mobile commerce. The attractiveness of PEOU has been found to be stronger for women, older workers and users with limited experience with a technology (Venkatesh, Morris, Davis & Davis, 2003).

User enjoyment plays a significant role in the success of certain technologies. Research has shown that user perceptions of entertainment provided by the technology are associated with the adoption and satisfaction levels of information systems and products (Kim, Choi & Han, 2009; Kim & Han, 2009). Curran and Meuter (2007) found adoption of self service technology is significantly influenced by enjoyment.The level of enjoyment resulting from use of a technology has an important role in the actual use of web-based information systems (Yi & Hwang, 2003) and online shopping (Shen & Eder, 2011). Both consumer usage intention and actual use of sports websites were significantly determined by the level of enjoyment the user gained from the website (Hur, Ko & Claussen, 2012). User enjoyment was also an important indicator of the intention to use blogs and similar hedonic systems (Hsu & Lin, 2008; Hsu & Lu, 2007; Lin & Bhattacherjee, 2010; Van der Heijden, 2003; Van der Heijden, 2004; Wang, Lin & Liao, 2010). The most popular reason for the adoption of e-books by university students was for enjoyment from pleasure and leisure reading over academic purposes (Abduullah & Gibb, 2006). Lee and Tsai (2010) found enjoyment to be a key to usage of online gaming.

The impact of enjoyment is powerful enough that the adoption of a somewhat unproductive system might increase due to high levels of perceived user enjoyment (Davis, Bagozzi and Warshaw, 1992). Mathwick (2002) found that users often appreciated that online shopping often offers enjoyment. And that variable was an important influence on users returning to on online retailer (Koufaris, 2002). The strongest factor influencing the intention to recommend social media sites was enjoyment (Curran & Lennon, 2011). Younger men newer to a technology have been found to be more motivated by enjoyment benefits attained from the technology (Venkatesh, Thong and Xu, 2012). The combination of enjoyment and PU has been shown to have significant positive impact on technology usage intention. Davis, Bagozzi and Warshaw (1992) stated that "usefulness and enjoyment together represent a simple yet powerful explanation of what influences computer usage intentions" (p. 1125). The use of instant messaging (IM) and text messaging (TM) is positively influenced by user perceived usefulness and enjoyment (Lee, Li & Merrier, 2010). A main reason for using social media include the user benefits derived from usefulness and hedonic aspects (Parra-Lopez et al., 2011). The continued user's usage intention of social networking services have been shown to be predicted by user PU and perceived enjoyment (Kim, 2011). Davis, Bagozzi and Warshaw (1989) found that an increase of output quality and ease of use provided by a technology would have positive effects on both perceived usefulness and enjoyment of the information system.

Gender differences exist for technologies already adopted (Selwyn, 2007) and among genders aged 16 to 25 year olds (Goh, 2011). Sohn and Lee (2007) found females more likely to adopt text messaging than males. First year college female students were found to be less confident using computer technology than their male counterparts (Madigan, Goodfellow & Stone, 2007). Females were found to have lower levels of satisfaction with and desire more training with enterprise planning software (Bradley & Lee, 2007). Males displayed a higher level of confidence regarding using software successfully (Hartzel, 2003). However, Lee (2010) stipulates that gender differences might be receding as research found no significant difference between gender and ecommerce adoption.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

This study examines the user perceptions and frequency of use related to social media network services (SMNS) and various uses of the social media network services. The SMNS used in this research included Facebook, Twitter and Pinterest. User traits related to SMNS included overall awareness and knowledge levels of SMNS, frequency of use, level of enjoyment from the SMNS, the perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness of the SMNS. These variables were analyzed against actual use of the SMNS features

such as using the SMNS to contact friends, play games, post information about themselves, find information about another person, find information about a store, find information about a product, post information about a product, and post information about a store.

The following research questions (RQ) were investigated among current university students:

> RQ1: What was the relationship between user Facebook perceptions and frequency of use to uses of Facebook?
>
> RQ2: What was the relationship between user Twitter perceptions and frequency of use to uses of Twitter?
>
> RQ3: What was the relationship between user Pinterest perceptions and frequency of use to uses of Pinterest?

The research instrument used was a self-administered questionnaire that yielded 195 completed surveys from 107 females (55%) and 88 males (45%) ages 18 to 23 years old. The mean age for the overall sample was 22.23 years (SD 1.324). All in the sample were undergraduate university students. Surveys were collected over 3 consecutive days from students in 36 of the institution's 55 majors in addition to undeclared majors.

Figure 1: Levels of Strength of Correlation for Use with Tables 1, 2 & 3

Correlation	Strength of Correlation
≤ -.9, ≥ .9	near perfect
≤-.7 to -.89, ≥ .7 to .89	very high
≤-.5 to -.69, ≥ .5 to .69	high
≤-.3 to -.49, ≥ .3 to .49	medium
≤-.1 to -.29, ≥ .1 to .29	low
≥-.09 to ≤ .09	very low

This figure shows the strength of correlations (for Pearson r values) in tables 1, 2 and 3. The levels were developed by Cohen, 1988. Typically, values in the ranges of "medium", "high", "very high" and "near perfect" are deemed of significant strength for consideration.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results addressing Research Question 1 (RQ1) identified the strength of relationship and statistical significance between traits and perceptions of Facebook users and their uses for Facebook. Table 1 shows the level of relationship strength between user traits and Facebook uses by gender. While various significant strength of correlations and levels of significance of Pearson r are spread throughout the table, several relationships between user Facebook traits and Facebook uses that include both genders are noteworthy. These tended to be grouped in the user traits of frequency of use, enjoyment, and perceived usefulness combined with the Facebook uses of contact with friends, post information about myself, and find information about another person.

As categorized by Cohen (Figure 1), these relationships are at a medium or high strength of correlation and, as indicated in Table 1, were statistically significant at the .01 level. RQ1: What was the relationship between user traits and perceptions of Facebook and uses of Facebook? The results related Research Question 2 (RQ2) showed the strength of relationship and statistical significance between traits and perceptions of Twitter users and their uses for Twitter. Table 2 shows the level of relationship strength between user traits and Twitter uses by gender. Various significant strength of correlations and levels of significance of Pearson r are found throughout the table. However, 3 user Twitter traits – frequency of use, enjoyment, and perceived usefulness – share significant levels across the 2 Twitter uses of contact with friends and post information about myself. These relationships are at a medium or high strength of correlation (refer to Figure 1) and, as displayed in Table 2, were statistically significant at the .01 level.

Table 1: User Facebook Traits and Perception to Uses for Facebook

Uses Frequency Of Use / Perceptions	Contact with Friends	Play Games	Post Information About Myself	Find Information About Another Person	Find Information About a Store	Find Information About a Product	Post Information About a Product	Post Information About a Store	Get a Coupon
Frequency of use									
Female	0.378***	0.269***	0.391***	0.289***	0.0277***	0.223**	0.193**	0.211**	0.220**
Male	0.441***	0.109	0.480***	0.300***	0.019	(0.025)	(0.004)	0.015	0.040
Enjoyment									
Female	0.297***	0.164*	0.264***	0.223**	0.192**	0.133	0.109	0.176*	0.165*
Male	0.465***	0.046	0.411***	0.355***	0.349***	0.283**	0.283**	0.256**	0.146
Perceived ease of use									
Female	0.170*	0.004	0.301***	0.042	0.123	0.036	0.047	0.134	0.060
Male	0.107	0.137	0.053	(0.022)	0.015	(0.009)	0.061	0.081	0.096
Perceived usefulness									
Female	0.364***	0.155***	0.250***	0.328***	0.245**	0.220**	0.041	0.159	0.222**
Male	0.528***	(0.111)	0.561***	0.439***	0.259**	0.155	0.331***	0.288***	0.185*

*This table shows correlations (Pearson r value) between frequency of use of Facebook / various perceptions of Facebook and various uses of Facebook. Correlations are further segmented by gender. *, **, *** indicate significance at the 1, 5, and 10 percent levels respectively.*

RQ2: What was the relationship between user traits and perceptions of Twitter and uses of Twitter?

Table 2: User Twitter Traits and Perception to Uses for Twitter

Uses Frequency Of Use / Perceptions	Contact with Friends	Play Games	Post Information About Myself	Find Information About Another Person	Find Information About a Store	Find Information About a Product	Post Information About a Product	Post Information About a Store	Get a Coupon
Frequency of use									
Female	0.655***	0.225	0.712***	0.360**	0.090	0.204	0.264	0.277*	0.655***
Male	0.667***	(0.043)	0.597***	0.442**	0.382**	0.542***	0.438**	0.549***	0.667***
Enjoyment									
Female	0.271*	0.108	0.475***	0.179	0.491***	0.567***	0.551***	0.573***	0.271*
Male	0.849***	0.056	0.631***	0.384**	0.339*	0.372*	0.274	0.340*	0.849***
Perceived ease of use									
Female	0.150	0.081	0.374**	0.195	0.166	0.173	0.163	0.163	0.150
Male	0.211	(0.170)	(0.004)	0.009	0.293	0.065	0.148	0.148	0.211
Perceived usefulness									
Female	0.457***	0.118	0.510***	0.219	0.306*	0.482***	0.564***	0.485***	0.457***
Male	0.677***	0.086	0.600***	0.450**	0.394**	0.369*	0.369*	0.264	0.677***

*This table shows correlations (Pearson r value) between frequency of use of Twitter / various perceptions of Twitter and various uses of Twitter. Correlations are further segmented by gender. *, **, *** indicate significance at the 1, 5, and 10 percent levels respectively.*

The results dealing with Research Question 3 (RQ3) identified the strength of relationship and statistical significance between traits and perceptions of Pinterest users and their uses for Pinterest. Table 3 shows the level of relationship strength between user traits and Pinterest uses for females only as the sample included only 1 male Pinterest user. Multiple significant relationships that were statistically significant between user Pinterest traits and Pinterest uses among females are also shown. The user trait frequency of use held 4 medium strength correlations with the uses of contact with friends, find information about another person,

find information about a product, and post information about a product. Perceived usefulness (with contact with friends and post information about a product) and enjoyment (with find information about another person) had limited significant relationships with uses that fell in the medium strength correlation at statistically significance at the .01 level RQ3: What was the relationship between user traits and perceptions of Pinterest and uses of Pinterest?

Table 3: User Pinterest Traits and Perception to Uses for Pinterest

Uses							
Frequency Of Use / Perceptions	**Contact with Friends**	**Post Information About Myself**	**Find Information About Another Person**	**Find Information About a Store**	**Find Information About a Product**	**Post Information About a Product**	**Post Information About a Store**
Frequency of use Female	0.420***	0.287**	0.406***	0.192	0.427***	0.384***	0.200
Enjoyment Female	0.297**	0.304**	0.365***	0.110	0.062	0.167	0.216*
Perceived ease of use Female	0.305*	0.254*	0.207*	(0.050)	0.059	0.245*	0.147
Perceived usefulness Female	0.398***	0.210	0.303**	0.143	0.316**	0.385***	0.159

*This table shows correlations (Pearson r value) between frequency of use of Pinterest / various perceptions of F Pinterest and various uses of Pinterest. Correlations for males omitted due to only 1 male Pinterest user in sample. *, **, *** indicate significance at the .10, .05, and .01 levels respectively.*

The objectives of this research were to understand the roles of multiple user related variables on the uses of social media. Specifically, the study examined the impacts of frequency of use, enjoyment, perceived of use, and perceived usefulness on a range of social media uses including contact with friends, playing games, posting personal information, finding information about other people, finding information about a store, finding information about a product, posting information about a product, and posting information about a store. All of the findings relate to data displayed in tables 1, 2 and 3. A finding of this research is the positive relationships between frequency of use and multiple uses for social media in both females and males. Significant relationships between frequency of use of social media and the uses of social media exist across genders. Among males, frequency of use was shown to play a positive role across the majority (76.46% at either the .05 or .01 significance levels) of possible uses for the three social media networks. For females, frequency of use was a positive influencer on 37.50% of possible social media uses.

Another finding of this research shows the positive correlations between perceived usefulness (PU) and social media uses. Between the .05 and .01 levels of significance, perceived usefulness had a relationship in 39.02% of the entire sample's social media uses – 47.06% and 29.67% among males and females, respectively. An additional finding ran contrary to other findings as perceived ease of use (PEOU) was shown to have limited impact on the uses of social media among both females and males. Overall, only 2.44% of social media uses tested were shown to have a significant level of correlation with PEOU at either the .05 or .01 levels of significance (4.17% among females and 0.00% among males). The final finding dealt with the relationships between enjoyment and social media uses. Over thirty-one percent (31.70%) of total social uses examined had a positive correlation of significant strength among the .05 or .01 significance

levels. Results showed more such correlations between enjoyment and uses among males (41.18% of the tested uses versus females at 25.00%).

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

This research compared the relationships between various user traits and perceptions of social media including frequency of use, enjoyment, perceived of use, and perceived usefulness and uses of social media. The sample of traditional age university students were administered a self-administered questionnaire. Survey results showed multiple significant relationships between enjoyment, perceived usefulness and frequency of use to various common uses of social media. Accordingly, social media strategists and site designers should take steps to develop methods to ensure users find enjoyment in using their sites, consider the site useful in accomplishing desired tasks, and develop methods to encourage frequency in the usage of the social media site. A limitation of this research includes the limited geographic representation of the sample of college students as the sample was drawn from a university that primarily attracts students from one geographic portion of the United States. This limitation could be minimized by including samples from colleges across various regions of the nation. Future directions of this research include geographic domestic and international dispersion of samples, broader age group samples, and examining social media networks beyond Facebook, Twitter and Pinterest.

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THEORETICAL DRIVERS OF EARLY CAREER SUCCESS FOR NEW ENTRANTS TO THE JOB MARKET

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ABSTRACT

This research proposes a new model of early career success based on both individual characteristics and environmental features. The model contends that individuals discover their unique aptitudes, abilities, and values which in conjunction with environmental conditions, helps them create goals. This leads to a choice of organizations. Once there, the degree to which employees fit in their new firms and the type of socialization used by those employers differentially affects the implementation of their goals. Both the success and failure of the implementation of these goals then leads to an evaluation of how well it has promoted their careers.

INTRODUCTION

Research on career management has primarily focused on cyclical, evolutionary processes that continue throughout the course of adult life. Although important, more attention to career strategies for new market entrants could prove useful. This transition stage from student to employee is critical to career success but that success is increasingly dependent on proactive and deliberate steps taken by new entrants. By integrating research on adult-life development and career management theories, this author introduces a four-stage model that identifies the major drivers of early career success. The proposed model explores both individual and organizational levels of early career development. The model integrates theories of the self-concept and environmental conditions, and helps explain how individuals develop and implement goals related to job selection, gain entry to organizations and experience early career success.

This paper provides an iterative approach to career success for new entrants to the job market. It is important to note that the author defines success both in subjective and objective terms. In other words success, for the purpose of this paper, can be defined as both something employees feel (e.g., a sense of satisfaction with the opportunity to continuously learn, time for self and family, social relationships, or job security) and something tangibly measureable (e.g., salary, rank, or number of promotions)(Greenhaus, Callanan, & Godshalk, 2010; Eby, Butts, & Lockwood, 2003). Early models of career management generally focus on a broad set of behaviors. For example, Hall (1971) developed a model that involved a continuous cycle of goal setting, performance and goal resetting. Several other contemporary researchers, (e.g., Greenhaus and colleagues as well as Arthur, Hall and Lawrence, 1989), proffered similar cyclical approaches that focus on problem-solving and decision-making processes. These types of career models connote ongoing shifts in organizational structure, volatility in labor markets, and increasing employee turnover (both voluntary and involuntary). The resulting models of individual responsibility for job-related decision-making constitute "boundaryless" careers (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). These reflect broad economic and socio-cultural shifts that have occurred in the past few decades (Ashkenas, Ulrich, Jick, & Kerr, 1995). Contemporary career research, generally, assumes that employment is increasingly contractual

rather than relational (Herriot & Pemberton, 1966). Accordingly, individuals cannot expect to work a lifetime within one organization or steadily climb the corporate ladder. Rather careers are increasingly punctuated by turnover and lateral moves within a firm's hierarchy (Eby et al., 2003). Although there has been substantial research conducted on success in the boundaryless career, relatively less has been done on the subject of early careers. Our work focuses on the career entry process by integrating research on career management and adult-life development theories. Several theorists on adult-life development, particularly Donald Super (1957), have recognized the changes that occur as individuals mature over time. Super's (1957) emphasis on the self-concept and proposed developmental stages provide theoretical drivers helpful for understanding the individual level of career planning (Gould, 1979). Further, this research proposes that understanding career planning, especially in its early stages, can be enhanced by integrating theoretical and empirical evidence of the importance of appropriate career goal setting and implementation for new entrants. In this research, the authors briefly review she literature on career management and adult-life development theories of success, then discusses the limitations of these early conceptualizations and presents an alternative model of career success specific to new labor market entrants.

LITERATURE REVIEW

This research discusses the literature on career management and adult-life development theories in two steps. First, it considers the traditional and modern perspectives of careers and their impact on individual and organizational levels of career development. It also explores two key theories of modern careers known as the *boundaryless* and *protean* concepts. Second, it examines the research conducted on adult-life development theories and the correlation that exists between the career management and developmental perspectives.

Traditional vs. Modern Perspectives

Traditional perspectives on careers have typically been characterized by an "individual's relationship to an employing organization" (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). This uni-dimensional direction of upward progression suggested high levels of commitment between the employee and the employer is referred to as a psychological contract (Rousseau, 1995). Employees expected job security and advancement in exchange for commitment to the organization (Baruch, 2004a). This perspective presupposes a limited view of career success in which achievement is defined by a steady progression up the corporate ladder, and assessed in terms of personal income or other extrinsic factors (Zaleska & Menezes, 2007). This view on careers played a dominate role in the popular imagination as well as the academic literature on careers because most organizational structures supported it (Sullivan, 1999).

Over the last thirty years, the effects of globalization, massive corporate downsizings, and loss of job security has led to changes in this traditional perspective (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). One major change is the shift that involves a move away from long-term psychological and relational contracts to more short-term transactional contracts. A transactional contract alters the relationship between the employee and employer drastically (Herriot & Pemberton, 1966). Instead of employees exchanging commitment for security, they must maintain flexibility and continue to develop their skills to fit the needs of the organization (Herriot & Pemberton, 1966; Baruch, 2004a). With this change in career structure, new perspectives on career management emerged. Two contemporary theories that are widely recognized are the *boundaryless* and *protean* concepts (Greenhaus et al., 2010).

The boundaryless career defies traditional perspectives by emphasizing that careers take on a "range of forms" and are not characterized by a single type (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). More specifically, boundaryless careers are not bounded or linked to a single organization and are punctuated by less hierarchical coordination and stability (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). Thus, the boundaryless career places the ownership of careers primarily in the hands of individuals rather than organizations and involves

frequent intra and inter-organizational mobility (Parker & Arthur, 2000). Concomitantly, Parker and Arthur (2000) suggested that conceptualizations of career success have been altered by de-emphasizing extrinsic and objective measures. Objective career success is defined as verifiable attainments, such as pay and promotions, and has been viewed in the past as the dominate metric of success across the majority of countries (Nicholson, 2000). On the other hand, Hall and Foster (1977) suggested that the new focus of career advancement is predicated on psychological success, which emphasizes the subjective view of careers, thus, eschewing any one measure of achievement. To assist in predicting success in the boundaryless career, Arthur and colleagues proposed three classes of variables, referred to as career competencies. These career competencies consist of career motivation and identification (knowing-why), marketability (knowing-how), and career-related networking (knowing-whom) (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994). Further, employees in the boundaryless career should maintain a high degree of flexibility in managing their careers and should strive to make decisions based on their value system (Arthur, Hall, & Lawrence, 1996). The concept of the protean career is similar to that of the boundaryless career (Hall, 1996). However, the protean orientation reflects a broader paradigm; specifically, a mindset related to careers based on individuals' values and their concomitant career behaviors (Briscoe & Hall, 2006). The boundaryless career, in contrast, involves boundary-crossing behaviors. The protean career takes an approach that is self-directed and values-driven (Briscoe & Hall, 2002). Self-directed individuals take responsibility for planning and managing their careers and take the initiative in making decisions and evaluating career options (Hall & Mirvis, 1996). The protean careerist's choices and search for self-fulfillment are the essential drivers of psychological success. Protean success occurs by accumulating skills and experiences learned in a variety of settings across different jobs and organizations (Hall, 1971; Baruch, 2004a).

Developmental Perspectives

Developmental perspectives of careers typically present a series of stages that link closely to chronological periods or age. Donald Super (1957), a pioneer of adult-life development theories, emphasized the importance of developing and implementing a self-concept. The self-concept is the mental and conceptual image one develops of oneself (Super, 1957). Derived from personality traits, it encompasses abilities, interests, needs, values and aspirations (Gibson, 2003; Super, 1957). Super (1957) argued that individuals pass through stages that span the course of adult life. He identified the following stages: growth (birth to mid-teens), exploration (age 15-24), establishment stage (age 25-30), maintenance stage (age 45-62), and disengagement (age 65+). The exploration and establishment stages are of particular importance to this research because they are most proximal to those newly entering the labor market.

The exploration stage is comprised of a turbulent period where individuals make career choices based upon self-examination, role tryouts, and investigating various occupations (Gould, 1979). There are three components of the exploration stage: tentative appraisal (age 15-17), the crystallization of preference (age 18-21), and the specification of vocational preference (early 20's). First, tentative appraisals are made by incorporating needs, interests, capacities, values, and opportunities where the individual can attempt to identify work roles. Next, individuals begin to make specific choices based on their preferences by implementing their self-concepts. By the third phase, individuals have usually explored and chosen an appropriate occupation, which they believe, could be a viable long-term avenue for work. However, individuals' commitment in this stage is still relatively conditional. If they ultimately determine that the chosen occupation is not suitable, they may start the process of crystallizing, specifying and implementing a new preference over again (Super, 1957).

In the establishment stage, individuals seek to achieve stability in life. Finding one's niche for instance, leads to expectations of securing permanent and appropriate work in which to advance. Super (1980) considered these the most productive in the span of an adult's life. The establishment stage is broken down into two component parts: trial/stabilization (age 25-30) and advancement (age 31-43). The

trial/stabilization stage involves the individual settling down and making use of their abilities. If they lack satisfaction in the current job, they may make changes until the right one is found. The advancement phase directs the individual's efforts at securing a position, developing skills and demonstrating superior job performance. Ultimately, a sense of stability should begin to emerge in this stage (Super, 1957; 1980). Although Super (1957) initially presented these stages in a sequential manner, he later added that individuals cycle and recycle throughout the life span as changes occur in the self-concept and in the work place. Individuals' abilities to adapt to these changes affect the developmental process. Understanding these age and related stages of career development helps the individual in the decision-making process.

The research of Erik Erikson and Daniel Levinson also warrants discussion. Erikson's theory of psychosocial development (1963) involves the progression through eight distinct stages, wherein successful completion of each stage results in increased growth and successful interaction with others. Conversely, individuals who fail to successfully complete a stage may suffer a reduced ability to transition through to the remaining stages, thereby limiting development. Erikson's (1963) sixth stage, intimacy vs. isolation, is particularly important for young adults (age 18-40) and directly applicable to new labor market entrants. In this stage, individuals begin exploring mature physical and emotional relationships and search for intimacy with others (Erikson, 1963). Successful completion of this stage results in caring and trusting relationships. However, if individuals fail to complete this stage, they may develop a sense of isolation that leads to loneliness and depression. Although successfully completing each stage does not ensure absolute stability, failing to complete an early stage alters one's full development in later stages (Erikson, 1963).

This adversely affects new entrants in early career stages because these shortcomings may act as outside distractions to job performance or barriers to the creation of strong network association within work organizations. Levinson's research on adult life development also plays a significant role in the evolution of career and live stages. Levinson's (1978) approach includes four eras of development: pre-adulthood, early adulthood, middle adulthood, and late adulthood. Two of Levinson's (1978) main theoretical contentions suggest that each era contains a stable period and a transitional period. The stable period represents a crucial time where individuals make choices, pursue goals and attempt to create a desired lifestyle. The transitional period constitutes the end of one stage and the beginning of another. Individuals often reexamine their goals, and question the value of their accomplishments. This reflection promotes development because it pushes individuals to consider useful changes in certain areas of their lives (Levinson, 1978). Like the early stages of development proposed by both Super (1957) and Erikson (1963), Levinson's early adulthood (age 17-45) sheds light on issues pertaining to employees entering the labor market. Levinson's conceptualization of early adulthood era can be divided into four developmental periods: early adult transition (age 17-22), entering the adult world (22-28), age thirty transition (28-33), and settling down (33-40). Individuals passing out of adolescence and beginning to separate from their parents characterize the early adult transition. As young people withdraw, both financially and emotionally, from their parents and homes they are expected try out more adult roles.

These role tryouts raise potential questions and conflicts. Should they explore adulthood by trying out different career options or settle down and gain some stability? Similar to Erikson's (1963) theory (i.e., intimacy vs. isolation stage), this stage presents potential role conflicts which, if left unresolved, inhibit the development of meaningful interpersonal relationships. Each course of action presents potentially different conflicts and likely outcomes. For example, if individuals choose to explore career options, there is a possibility they will question whether they want to develop important amorous relationships due to time constraints, a preoccupation with time spent at work, or the perception that family life carries with it a penalty (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000). On the other hand, individuals who choose to settle into a domesticated existence may feel overly bound to their outside commitments. As individuals transition into their thirties, more changes may occur. The outcome of these changes can range from moderate to severe. They include the possible dissolution of marriages or restricted career mobility due to having forgone prior

opportunities (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000). Nevertheless, once individuals reach the end of the early adulthood era, they have generally reached a stable period in their lives (Levinson, 1978).

<u>Alternative Approach for New Job Entrants</u>

Traditional and contemporary perspectives of career management and adult-life development theories have proven useful in understanding the fundamental process of career development over a lifespan (Baruch, 2004a; Greenhaus et al., 2010). However, there are certain limitations in the application of these theories; they do not focus specifically on new entrants to the job market. By integrating career management and adult-life development theories, we provide entrants an alternative approach to career management that seeks to provide insight to new entrants who are transitioning from the role of student to employee. This alternative perspective, the early career success model, is composed of four stages (see Figure 1 for an overview of the model): goal development, selection and entry, goal implementation, and career evaluation.

Figure 1: The Early Career Success Model
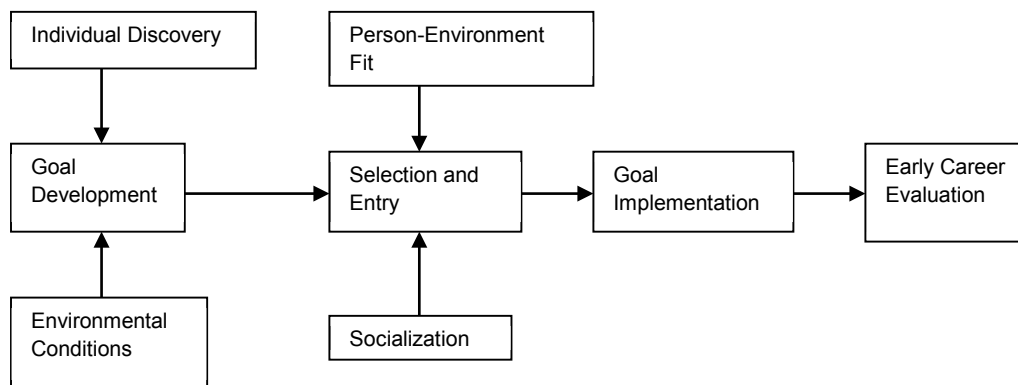
The model contends that individuals discover their unique aptitudes, abilities, and values which in conjunction with environmental conditions, helps them create goals. This leads to a choice of organizations. Once there, the degree to which employees fit in their new firms and the type of socialization used by those employers differentially affects the implementation of their goals. Both the success and failure of the implementation of these goals then leads to an evaluation of how well it has promoted their careers

Contemporary models, such as Greenhaus and colleagues' (2010) career management model provide a description of cyclical processes that continue throughout adult life. However, the linear model proposed in this research applies to individuals in the early career years that generally lack tenure organizational positions, face looming career plateaus and may have not benefited from the succession of promotions and opportunities more common to employees in their middle or late career years (Greenhaus et al., 2010; Ference, Stoner, & Warren, 1977). This research argues that new entrants can effectively predict career success by utilizing a sequential, programmed approach.

<u>Stage 1 – Goal Development</u>

This proposed model of early career success for new entrants to the job market begins with goal development. The researcher contends that two variables predict the creation of useful, career enhancing goals: individual discovery and environmental conditions. Prior research noted "a career goal can clarify thinking, motivate and direct behavior, help in the development of a career strategy and serve as a monitoring device to assess progress and identify obstacles to future satisfaction" (Greenhaus, Callahan, & Kaplan, 1995). Specifically, goals can motivate and regulate human behavior. In order for goal setting to be effective for new entrants, they should adhere to established guidelines. Studies on goal-setting theory (Locke & Latham, 1990, 2002) suggested that individuals should set specific, difficult goals that offer relevant, timely feedback in order to optimize performance levels. Vague, abstract or immeasurable goals

lead to lower levels of performance and delay or derail future career development. If individuals are committed to their goals, have the knowledge, skills, abilities, and aptitudes to attain them, and do not have other conflicting objectives, they greatly improve their chances of successful obtainment (Locke & Latham, 2006). Furthermore, career goals should be flexible and compatible with the individuals' values, and non-work interests (Greenhaus et al., 1995).

Career goals can be both conceptual and operational in nature (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2006). Conceptual goals describe the career ambitions individuals have and reflect their preferences, values, aptitudes and ambitions (Schreduer & Coetzee, 2006). Conceptual goals encapsulate individuals' preferred work, the kinds of relationships they would be required to have with others, and the physical and organizational environments in which they would be employed (Greenhaus et al., 2010). They reflect a kind of end state. Operational goals, on the other hand, are more proximal. They describe individuals' attempts to secure a specific job in a desired firm, which then allows them take the first step towards achieving their conceptual career goals (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2006; Greenhaus et al., 2010). It is important for new employees to create both kinds of goals but to focus, up front, on the operational components because if they are not met first, their conceptual aspirations may never materialize.

Career goals also have a short and long-term dimension (Greenhaus et al., 2010). Although this distinction is somewhat arbitrary, short-term goals (if achieved) are likely to come to fruition within one to three years (Greenhaus et al., 2010). As such, short-term goals are likely to be mostly operational in nature (e.g., manage office material procurement within two to three years). Long-term goals, although not long relative to one's entire working life, are those which one could reasonably hope to attain within five to seven years (Greenhaus et al., 2010). These are often conceptual in nature but do not necessarily have to be. For example, if one's short-term goal were to manage procurement at the office within three years, a long-term goal could be to manage procurement for the entire company with seven years. This long-term goal still has operational components but if its achievement allows that person to establish his/her own stand-alone procurement company; it could also serve as a conceptual goal. Before new employees set goals for early career success, certain conditions should be met. Specifically, individuals entering the job market for the first time should enhance their self-awareness and analyze salient environmental conditions. Doing so augments the quality of the established goals.

Individual Discovery

Effective career planning begins with the individual and requires a willingness to develop greater self-awareness. As previously noted, this is a principle component of the individual's self-concept (Super, 1957). For example, potential employees might be asked, "how would you describe yourself in five words?" Frequently, recruits have difficulty answering this question if they have not explored and identified their core abilities, values and interests. That understanding is one intended outcome of individual discovery. It also aids in setting clear, realistic, goals. Of particular interest in this proposed model are individuals' personality dimensions, values, interests, abilities and lifestyle preferences (Greenhaus et al., 2010). Prior research (e.g., Goldberg 1981; Schein, 1996) developed methods to tap that information.

Personality: Companies often test employees' personalities because it has a bearing on commitment to the organization and performance on the job (Colquitt, LePine, & Wesson, 2011). As new entrants begin the process of discovery, they could benefit greatly from a basic assessment of their personality dimensions. McCrae and Costa (2000) describe personality traits as "endogenous dispositions that follow intrinsic paths of development essentially independent of environmental influences." This suggests that personality is a relatively stable trait only minimally influenced by environmental factors (Digman, 1989). Some researchers challenge this assumption citing alleged changes in personality over time (Roberts, Walton, & Viechtbauer, 2006). Nevertheless, due to the relatively short focal period (the first few years after high

school or college graduation) considered in this model, the researcher contends personality dimensions substantially influence early career development (Baruch, 2004a; Greenhaus et al., 2010; Roberts et al., 2006). Previous research concluded that five broad traits or "super factors" best describe the notion of personality (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Often called the "Big Five," these personality dimensions are extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness to experience (Goldberg, 1981). Extraversion describes the degree to which individuals seek social stimulation. Individuals scoring high in extraversion display traits such as sociability, talkativeness and assertiveness. Those with low scores are described as introverted and reticent (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Prior research indicated that extraversion, although not universally predictive of job performance and career advancement, does predict success in a limited respect. Specifically, extraversion enhances the probability of success where interaction and influence proffering (e.g., sales positions) are required (Barrick & Mount, 2005; Barrick, Mount, & Judge, 2001). Agreeableness refers to a characteristic likeability, kindness and feeling sympathy for others. Individuals scoring high on this dimension are amicable and caring whereas, those low in agreeableness are self-centered (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Like extraversion, agreeableness is a "niche trait" (Hogan & Holland, 2003). It is relevant most in jobs or organizations that prioritize helping and collegiality. The author believes that as business around the globe move toward more group assignment of work (e.g., Devine, Clayton, Philips, Dunford, & Melner, 1999) this trait is likely to become increasingly important. Indeed, according to Mount, Barrick and Stewart (1998), agreeableness in team conditions might be the most important personality dimension for predicting success.

Conscientiousness refers to self-control and the active process of planning, organizing and carrying out tasks (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Those high in conscientiousness are as dependable, strong-willed and organized. Further, conscientious individuals are achievement oriented (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002). Various researchers (e.g., Tett, Jackson, & Rothstein, 1991; Barrick & Mount, 1991) noted that conscientiousness has a high correlation with job performance, which suggests that conscientious individuals are better performers regardless of occupation. Neuroticism refers to a tendency to experience negative emotions such as fear, sadness, guilt, jealousy, anxiety and disgust. High levels of neuroticism predict irrational ideas, a lack of impulse control, and an inability to cope effectively with stress. Those low in neuroticism tend to be emotionally stable and relaxed. Research on neuroticism concluded it has potentially lasting career implications. However, running counter to conscientiousness, high levels of neuroticism predict poor performance evaluations, lower job performance and less career advancement (Barrick & Mount, 2005; Judge, Higgins, Thoresen, & Barrick, 1999).

Openness to experience refers to an individual's tolerance for the unfamiliar. Those high in openness tend to be curious, imaginative and unconventional. In contrast, those low in openness have narrow interests and maintain conservative views. Openness to experience has limited generalized applicability to career success but can predict achievement in some limited circumstances. For example, openness is an important predictor of tolerance for change (a current economic reality), creative ability and potential international/expatriate managerial success (George & Zhou, 2001; Le Pine, Colquitt, & Erez, 2000; Caligiuri, 2000). Holland (1997) proposed another more comprehensive framework related to the interaction of personality with socially constructed value systems. Holland's (1997) theory of vocational choice assumes that most individuals have one of six personality orientations: realistic (practical and task oriented), investigative (research oriented and scientific), artistic (creative and impulsive), social (generous and helpful), enterprising (ambitious and domineering), and conventional (efficient and conscientious). These orientations define individual's distinctive patterns of values, abilities, interests, and needs (Feldman, Ethington, & Smart, 2001). Holland's (1997) theory proffers three secondary assumptions that have important implications for new entrants (Latack, 1981). Holland (1997) proposed that some personality types (e.g., social and enterprising) are more likely to work well together than others (e.g., investigative and conventional). A further contention is that individuals maintain a strong preference for work activities and vocational because they have a more clearly defined occupational self-identity. The final assumption

is that personality and values, in combination, incline potential employees to seek organizations that have congruent orientations (Holland, 1997; Latack, 1981).

Several other personality assessment inventories (e.g., MBTI,) also provide new entrants with the opportunity to identity their character traits and explore their strengths. Utilizing these tools enhances the prospects of success for would-be new labor market entrants.

Abilities: Mental, Physical and Emotional. Like the personality variables noted above, abilities (e.g., mental and physical) are largely stable, initially hereditary, attributes that describe the capabilities individuals possess to perform a range of discrete but related tasks (Fleishman, Costanza, & Marshall-Mies, 1999). Of interest in this work is general mental ability (GMA). Sometimes referred to as the intelligence quotient (IQ), GMA is an amalgam of several different cognitive abilities: verbal, quantitative, spatial, reasoning, and perceptual (Johnson & Cullen, 2002). Fleishman et al. (1999) summarized the dimensions of GMA and their applications to specific occupations as follows: verbal ability describes an understanding of both spoken and written languages and the capacity to make oneself understood by others in the same fashion. It is relevant to almost every occupation and is broadly considered the most important component of GMA (Carroll, 1993). Quantitative ability involves performing both basic math operations quickly and correctly and properly selecting the appropriate methods of analysis. It is pertinent to occupations in financial planning, statistics, and mathematics. Reasoning ability describes anticipating when something might go wrong, developing new ideas, and the proper use of both deductive and inductive logic. It is useful in medicine, leadership in business, law and police work. Spatial ability includes a propensity to know where one is relative to other objects and to be able to anticipate how something would look if rearranged. Certainly, this would be important for not only pilots, drivers, and ship captains, but for artists. Perceptual ability involves being able to find patterns in information as well as comparing objects with remembered information. This ability is useful to musicians and police investigators.

GMA is one of the more useful and historically prominent study variables in the social and organizational sciences (Judge, Klinger, & Simon, 2010; Schmidt & Hunter, 2004). The demonstrated relationship between GMA and job performance (Schmidt & Hunter, 1998), is of salient interest here. Prior research indicated that GMA is generalizable across both jobs (Schmidt, 2002) and cultural boundaries (Judge et al., 2010; Salgado & Anderson, 2002). In addition to its impact on job performance, GMA also predicts other potentially important job and career related outcomes (Judge et al., 2010). In general, it augments appraisals of leadership ability (Judge, Colbert, & Ilies, 2004), creativity (Kuncel, Hezlett, & Ones, 2004), and job satisfaction (Ganzach, 1998). Conversely, GMA tends to mitigate counter-productive work behaviors (Dilchert, Ones, Davis, & Rostow, 2007). Given performance in a series of specific jobs constitutes a major driver of career advancement and development (Greenhaus et al., 2010) properly assessing GMA is of great importance. Unsurprisingly, in a meta-analysis conducted by Ng, Eby, Sorensen and Feldman (2005), researchers lent further credence to the assumption that GMA lent to higher salaries. Furthermore, the influence of GMA on the level of education attained is substantial and promotes career advancement (Deary, Taylor, Hart, Wilson, Smith, Blane, & Starr, 2005).

In addition to its influence on jobs, GMA also affects non-work-related aspects of life. Higher levels of GMA promote marital and familial stability, health and longevity (Gottfredson, 1997; Gottfredson & Deary, 2004). Based on findings relative to the changes from the traditional to modern forms of careers (e.g., Baruch, 2004; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009), some of the distinctions between work and non-work aspects of life are blurring. It is possible that GMA's demonstrated ability to promote marital and family stability, could actually promote job performance. Baruch (2004b) noted that many contemporary employees seek to work from home (e.g., "tele-commute") in order to be more involved in family life. GMA could promote, in a sense, home life and work life simultaneously with the help of applicable technologies. Physical abilities have been a topic of interest in the field of Industrial – Organizational (I/O) Psychology from its inception and have long been used in personnel selection decisions (Hough, Oswald, & Polyhart, 2001). Occupations that are physically demanding make up a significant portion of the labor market (Courtwright,

McCormick, Postlewaite, Reeves, & Mount, 2013). This is particularly true of developing economies (Courtwright et al, 2013). Recent data suggested about 28% of the U.S. labor force works in physically intensive jobs in public safety, construction, maintenance and repair, and the military (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2011). In these kinds of jobs, tests of physical ability are commonly used in selection, placement and retention decisions (Salgado, Viswesvaran, & Ones, 2001). The implications of poor performance on these exams have serious ramifications in that it predicts lower performance, more injuries, higher absenteeism and higher rates of, sometimes fatal, accidents (Courtwright et al., 2013; Gebhardt & Baker, 2010). Physical ability tests might benefit not just organizations but society as a whole when public safety concerns like safe operation of public transit and the apprehension of criminals are addressed (Gebhardt & Baker, 2007). Physical abilities can be grouped into five general categories: strength, stamina, flexibility/coordination, psychomotor, and sensory (Fleishman et al., 1999). Strength is the ability to both singularly and repeatedly lift, push, and pull heavy objects. It is useful, for example, in firefighting where moving heavy gear and rescue victims is common (Kazmi, 2005). Stamina refers to extent to which a person's cardiovascular conditioning can hold out over prolonged physical strain. It is particularly useful for athletes, performers and commercial under-sea divers (Fleishman et al., 1999).

Flexibility and coordination connote the speed and degree to which one can bend and flex as well as maintain balance and coordinate the use of all limbs simultaneously. Naturally, athletes benefit from this ability as well as structural iron and steel workers (Fleishman et al., 1999). Psychomotor abilities include having steady hands, manipulating small objects, make precise adjustments to machinery while operating it, and quickly responding to signals with correct body moves. Physicians, pilots and athletes benefit from this ability greatly (Fleishman et al., 1999). Sensory ability includes seeing objects both near and far, colors, at night as well as hearing, judging relative distances, recognizing speech, and being able to identify sounds in the presence of ambient noise. This ability applies directly pilots, commercial drivers (e.g., busses, taxis, and trucks), and musicians (Fleishman et al., 1999). Over the past several decades, researchers have debated the prospects of another type of ability: an emotional intelligence (EI) which, largely independent of GMA, allows some to move more effectively in social situations than others (Bar-On, 1997). The field has largely agreed that such a construct exists and bears consideration when examining job performance and career advancement (Farh, Seo, & Tesluck, 2012).

A prominently cited theory of EI is Mayer and Salovey's (1997). Their model is comprised of four emotional competencies. The first is emotional perception (keen awareness both one's own emotions as well as those of others). Second is emotional facilitation (using emotions to enable thinking). Third is emotional understanding (understanding emotions, signals, and the use of emotional language). The final component is emotional regulation (controlling emotions in order to achieve specific goals). These correlated dimensions are theorized to fall along a hierarchical continuum, from those which enable basic psychological functions (perceiving emotions) to those which allow individuals to manage themselves and achieve goals (regulating emotions)(Mayer, Roberts, & Barsade, 2008). Essentially, individuals with higher EIs are better suited to navigate emotionally charged situations and interactions (Farh et al., 2012). EI is particularly useful for functioning in two organizational contexts; jobs that require a lot of teamwork and those high in managerial work demands (MWD). High-MWD jobs require that managers direct a diverse set of individuals, functions, and lines of business (Farh et al., 2012). This requires working with or around others to accomplish tasks and achieve goals (Dierdorff, Rubin, & Morgeson). Because the common denominator of all interpersonal encounters is human emotions (Barsade & Gibson, 2007), those who understand them best are best at gaining from their proper use.

A major tenet of EI research contends that activated traits and abilities influence job performance, particularly in group or team situations, due to individual utilization of more effective work behaviors (Tett & Burnett, 2003). Indeed, according to Côté and Miners (2006), working well with others is the most important means by which highly emotionally intelligent employees achieve better job performance. Specifically, research suggested that the EI components of perceiving and responding appropriately to the

emotional states and needs of important others in organizations is one of the most important drivers of task performance in interdependent work settings (Marks, Mathieu, & Zaccaro, 2001; Stewart, Fulmer, & Barrick, 2005). This ability is likely to increase in importance to new employees enter the 21st century due to the increased utilization of group and team based systems of work across occupations (National Research Council, 2001).Understanding personal abilities is vital to successfully transitioning into, and establishing oneself in, the workforce. Abilities allow individuals to perform a wide array of tasks but also constitute a set of constraints and may affect employees' potential accomplishments (Greenhaus et al., 2010). Fortunately, new entrants can make use of career planning methods that assess their own strengths and weaknesses before they choose an occupation that may not be appropriate.

Values. Another aspect of individual discovery involves identifying individuals' value systems. Values are concepts or beliefs that pertain to desirable end states or behaviors, transcend specific situations, guide selection or evaluation of behavior and events, and denote a relative rank ordering of importance (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987). Values are culturally conditioned and, along with personality dimensions, are central to the creation of job relevant attitudes, intentions to follow through with seeking them, and ultimately gaining the desired employment (Fishbein & Azjen, 1975).

Early on, Eduard Spranger (1928) suggested six core values individuals possess to differing degrees but which act as basic motivators and drivers of behavior. Individuals' behaviors, according to Spranger (1928) are driven by a preference selecting conditions that allow for the expression of values. Those with strong theoretical values have a passion for creating knowledge. Utilitarian values predict practicality and a strong appreciation of money. Aesthetic values describe a drive to create and appreciate beauty in the world. Social values incline individuals to seek opportunities to help others. Those with strong individualistic values seek autonomy and positions in which to gain power and control of situations and others. The last of Spranger's (1928) values he calls traditional. Those with strong traditional values have an almost religious zeal for finding meaning in life.

More recently Brown's (1996) presented a model of career development that stresses the incorporation of cognitive, behavioral, and affective components by which individuals evaluate their own behaviors and those of others (Brown, 1996; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2006). The central premise of this model is that individual behaviors occur due to a more holistic sense of well-being that incorporates the interactions of differing roles across the life space (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2006). Brown's (1996) model has six components. The first postulate is that values are culturally derived and, subsequently, individuals develop a set of priorities that addresses a portion of them. Second, individuals attempt to deal with the most important of these values first provided they have a choice in deciding which life roles they assume. The third component acknowledges that gender, cultural background, socio-economic circumstances promote value systems and, as such, they differ between societal subgroups. Next, Brown (1996) contended that life satisfaction comes from appropriately attending to these roles.

The fifth component describes the movement of individuals between roles. The significance of a role is determined by the extent to which that role satisfies the prioritized value, but that will change as individuals shift between roles (e.g., between manager and parent). Finally, success in any role is determined (as noted above) by the aptitudes and abilities of those to perform them. Brown's (1996) model garnered varying degrees of empirical support (Niles & Hartung, 2000). Nevertheless, it is important for new labor market entrants to understand their own values when developing goals, and early career aspirations. Research indicated that the misalignment of values with the actual experience of work resulted in dissatisfaction (Niles & Hartung, 2000). This dissatisfaction could be directed at pay, promotion opportunity, supervisors, coworkers or the work itself (Locke, 1976). Schein's Career Anchor Model. Edgar Schein's (1978; 1996) career anchor model provides new entrants with a more global, conceptual, view of how personality, values, interests and abilities interrelate. Schein (1978; 1996) defines career anchors as a collection of self-perceived talents, motives and values that form an individual's self-concept and serve as the basis for career

aspirations. These individually rank ordered anchors serve to not only direct but to stabilize and reinforce chosen career paths (Schein, 1996; Baruch, 2004b). Schein (1996) identified the following eight career anchors: technical/functional competence, general managerial competence, autonomy/independence, security/Stability, entrepreneurial/ creativity, service/dedication, pure challenge, and lifestyle integration. Technical/functional competence refers to employees' primarily seeking to achieve in and remain in one functional area of a company (e.g., marketing, human resources, operations, etc). The general managerial competence describes those who seek line authority more than functional specialization and seek to organize and integrate the efforts of others across organizational boundaries. The autonomy/independence anchor refers to a preference for being able to free oneself from most organizational restrictions related to how and when to work. Individuals who value autonomy highly might pass up a promotion (1978; 1996) in order to remain relatively independent (Schein, 1996; Greenhaus et al., 2010). Security/stability anchors emphasize the need for long-term career predictability. This likely includes a desire to stay in the same company, position and geographical areas for extended periods of time (Schein, 1990; Greenhaus et al., 2010). Entrepreneurial creativity indicates a drive to create something novel and useful.

They are typically not risk averse, assume responsibility and build companies to their specifications (Schein, 1996; Greenhaus et al., 2010). Some employees anchor their work in service and dedication. For them helping others is of more importance than money or promotion (Schein, 1996; Greenhaus et al., 2010). The pure challenge anchor drives some to seek out difficult, seemingly unsolvable problems and work them out. Typically, this involves working in novel ways that provide variety. The final anchor is lifestyle integration. Those who rank this most highly seek balance in various aspects of life, particularly the integration of family and career (Schein, 1996; Greenhaus et al., 2010).

Naturally, not all scholars subscribe to the theory that relatively stable anchors guide careers or that they come from initial aspirations. March and March (1977) went so far as to contend that career success is almost random and providential. Doubtless, good and bad fortune occurs. Nevertheless, Igbaria, Greenhaus and Parasuraman (1991), concluded an employee's career anchor or career orientation still significantly influences the selection of specific occupations and work settings, and it affects the employee's reactions to his or her work experiences. Ultimately, this research contends that taken together, abilities, values and career anchors, influence the development individuals' career goals, their attempts to gain entrance to organizations that allow them to implement these goals and evaluate how successful their efforts have been.

Environmental Conditions

Career entry requires investments from would be participants that are partly conditioned by a job market realities. These can be fraught with the juxtaposition of high expectations with potential lack of employment opportunities, disappointment and self-questioning (Fournier & Pelletier, 1996). For decades, many new employees took for granted that, after obtaining a diploma or receiving specialized training, they could step into a career with relative ease. That economic and organizational reality changed substantially in the past three to four decades (Fournier & Pelletier, 1996). Economic recession, (particularly the deep one triggered by a meltdown in the subprime mortgage lending industry in 2008), increasing technological development and investment, as well as the questioning of traditional social expectations (e.g., lifelong employment) influenced how labor markets function and raised the required level of academic training required to gain an early foot hold (Brown, 1990). This could change the shape of contemporary career goals and, unfortunately, dissuade some from making them.

However, new entrants can now feel encouraged. Despite the potentially daunting tasks facing new labor market entrants, macro-economic conditions are currently improving. The U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics reported in June of 2014 that unemployment rates were lower in May than a year earlier in 357 of the 372 metropolitan areas, higher in 11 areas, and unchanged in 4 areas. The national unemployment rate in May 2014 was 6.1 percent, not seasonally adjusted, down from 7.3 percent a year ago at that time and

approaching the level of joblessness the country experienced just prior to the beginning of the recession in 2008 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014). Macro-economic conditions and the process of individual discovery are vital to potential success for new entrants although they only represent a part of the puzzle. It is important for new entrants to realize careers are a combination of jobs, subsequent occupations and the organizations in which employees conduct them. It is through interaction with the work environment that individuals utilize their capacities and seek to satisfy their values. Greenhaus et al. (2010) suggest four facets of the environment that are of particular importance to career management: occupations, jobs, organizations and families. A complete review of all theories of occupational choice goes well beyond the scope of this work. Instead, this research focuses on common themes derived from them. On one hand, individuals choose occupations they believe will meet their needs and on the other firms choose employees they believe meet theirs (Greenhaus et al., 2010). Occupations are groups of similar jobs that exist in several similar establishments (Crites, 1969). Individuals look at occupations and decide which to seek based on their task activities, financial rewards, security, (potentially dangerous or not) physical settings, and other lifestyle considerations (Callanan, 2003). Given the opportunity, they then set goals to obtain these desires. Organizations offer individuals a venue in which to attempt their self-discovered goals but they also act as co-creators of goals once they are members. Industry trends, the financial health of a particular firm, its business strategies, abundance of lack of definable career paths, flexibility, the size and structure of a firm and the influence of its competition could all affect individuals' career goals (Greenhaus et al., 2010). There are many reasons individuals seek the jobs they do.

Prior research identified task variety, task significance, ability and training requirements as principle drivers (e.g., Hackman & Oldham, 1976). The Job Characteristics Model (Hackman & Oldham, 1976) postulated that jobs requiring greater abilities are inherently more interesting and important. Furthermore, those jobs allow employees to do several different things with relative autonomy (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Ultimately, those jobs are intrinsically attractive, motivational, and satisfying (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Herzberg, 1964). This research contends, to the extent that organizations can offer these types of positions and new market entrants are aware of their prospects, individuals create career goals to secure such jobs. Their families influence individuals entering the labor market.

At the minimum, social learning theory posited that family background and interaction had a pervasive influence on what individuals find rewarding and influence their career choices and aspirations (Bandura, 1977; Krumboltz & Jacobs, 2006; Jepson, 2006). Certainly, this influences the goals they make (and those they will not make) related to securing a job. Furthermore, if married, a spouse's career aspirations, children's emotional needs, and the family's financial needs, may all differentially affect the kinds of career goals individuals make (Greenhaus et al., 2010). In addition to minding general market trends, one source of information that new market entrants might find particularly useful in developing career goals is the occupational information network of the United States' Department of Labor (O*Net). Based on standard occupational classifications (SOC), O*Net provides detailed information related to occupations and existence of virtually all jobs in them. It notes the kinds of skills necessary to perform a job, the job's environment and the types of tools employees must use. Furthermore, O*Net uses Bureau of Labor Statistics data to project the growth of all legitimate industries.

Stage 2- Selection and Entry

The selection process is pivotal to early career success. New labor market entrants can neither grow nor develop their careers if they fail to find jobs. This research focuses primarily on occupational choice as a process of matching occupations and people. Foundational research conducted by Holland (1997) and Super (1957) proposed that individuals select occupations based on their self-concept. New entrants who select occupations based on their values, abilities, and interests are likely to experience better initial job performance and, thus, enhance early success (Schein, 1996; Schmidt, 2002; Judge et al., 2010). From the perspective of organizations, based on job analysis, selection attempts to match the qualifications and

characteristics of applicants with jobs available and seeks to choose the most competent candidate (Schreuder & Coetze, 2006). Typically, organizations recruit from both internal (i.e., current employees) and external sources (Schreduer & Coetze, 2006). The external labor market (i.e., outsiders seeking employment), is of primary concern here. Once a suitable list of candidates for a job is created, organizations grant preliminary interviews, issue application blanks (i.e., forms filled out by job seekers), administer employment tests, interview further, check references, and, if applicable, give a physical exam (Schreuder & Coetze, 2006). Primarily, firms seek to fit applicants to positions due to its demonstrated positive impact on job performance (Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1990; Greenberg, 2002).

New market entrants can be proactive. In this author's proposed model, the process of individual discovery is foundational. Courses in career development are available in business schools. Communities, states and universities often have career placement services. These can be helpful particularly in terms of employment testing, résumé coaching, and mock interviews. If potential applicants are diligent, they can measure their own interests using common tests of personality, values, and abilities like those noted above. Individuals might, thus, already possess knowledge of what best suits them and select themselves into jobs and organizations where their own prior test results predict achievement. Assuming organizations use similar (or identical) valid and reliable measures, the chances for selection success go up.

As newcomers move from the selection stage to entry, they may experience some shock or disequilibrium (Hughes, 1958). This experience comes from the unrealistic expectations entrants had prior to entering the organization. It stems from misconceived notions about organizational culture and climate (Jones, 1986). Although new employees might have engaged in a lot of individual discovery, some of these misgivings are almost inevitable (Schneider, Goldstein, & Smith, 1995). As a result, new entrants might be forced to reevaluate their assumptions by taking on a more active role in learning the new culture and work processes (Jones, 1983). The attraction-selection-attrition model (e.g., Schneider et al., 1995) predicts that in order to achieve in an organization, new employees must either become fully socialized and "fit" with the firm's culture, or seek membership elsewhere (Schneider et al., 1995).

Individual Level: Person-Environment Fit

The general notion of person-environment fit, or congruence, is an important precursor of success for new entrants. One approach to person-environment fit focuses on the match between individual skills and job requirements, and the relationship between individual characteristics and organizational climate (O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). Furthermore, individuals choose careers that "match" or "fit" their unique set of values, interests, and needs (O'Reilly et al., 1991). Similarly, Lofquist and Dawis (1969) proposed that satisfaction results from "a harmonious relationship between the individual and his environment, suitability of the individual to the environment and vice versa." Another aspect of environmental fit is person-organization fit (P-O fit). The notion comes from the interactionist perspective, which contends that the way employees behave at work and function in their jobs is a combination of both individual and situational characteristics (Chatman, 1991; George, 1992; Erdogan, Kraimer, & Liden, 2002). Fit occurs if individuals' characteristics are in line with situational characteristics and, thus, results in more positive attitudes and outcomes (Erdogan et al., 2002).

Value congruence is a significant form of fit because beliefs tend to remain relatively stable over time and are instrumental in guiding individuals' actions, developing and maintaining attitudes, and judging behaviors (Rokeach, 1968). Value congruence occurs through both proper employee selection and socialization and is typically associated with lower levels of turnover and higher levels of satisfaction (Kristof, 1996). Furthermore, Erdogan et al. (2002) found that higher levels of career satisfaction occurred with a high degree of congruence between individual and organizational values even for employees who were not the most liked or favored by their supervisors. These finding again underscore that new employees

enhance their prospects of early career success when they engage proactive behaviors aimed at aligning themselves with not just suitable jobs, but also the right employers (Erdogan & Bauer, 2005).

Organizational Level: Socialization

Socialization focuses on how individuals learn the beliefs, values, orientations, behaviors and skills necessary to perform new role behaviors and function effectively in an organizational context (Van Maanen, 1976). Socialization eases adjustment for new entrants into the organization. Properly socialized employees are desirable because they more rapidly learn their new roles, master new tasks, and become socially integrated (Cooper-Thomas, Anderson, & Cash, 2012). Furthermore, proper socialization is associated with greater job satisfaction, higher levels of organizational commitment, better person-organization fit and lower turnover intentions (Cooper-Thomas et al., 2012; Kammeyer-Mueller, Wanberg, Glomb, & Ahlburg, 2005; Kramer, Callister, & Turban, 1995; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992).

Researchers typically approached socialization as a sequential event. Stage model theories of socialization (Schein, 1978; Van Maanen, 1976) focused on the phases through which new associates transition to becoming fully integrated members of an organization. Much of the research on stage models has indicated that entrants will progress through at least three stages (Reichers, 1987). The first stage represents the time prior to organizational entry. During this period, individuals often have misconceptions about what their career s that do not adequately depict reality. The second stage represents the entry phase into the organization, which may cause the new entrants to reevaluate their previous expectations about the job. During this stage, individuals begin to increase their focus on making an impact on the group or organization (Schein, 1978). In the final stage, Schein (1978) suggested that newcomers become either more or less conforming to essential standards of behavior in response to the various socialization tactics employed by the organization. Van Maanen and Schein (1979) offered six socialization tactics (see Table 1), that they hypothesized significantly affected newcomer responses. These dimensions run along a continuum from individualized to institutionalized (Chow, 2002; Jones, 1986). Table 1 provides a synopsis.

Table 1: Tactics of Organizational Socialization

Tactic Involving Mostly:	Institutionalized:	Individualized:		Measures:
Context	Collective	Individual	⟶	Provision of common learning experience
	Formal	Informal	⟶	e.g. set training program
Content	Sequential	Random	⟶	Structured career program
	Fixed	Variable	⟶	Timetable for career progression
Social	Serial	Disjunctive	⟶	Provision of role models
	Investiture	Divestiture	⟶	Support from experienced org. members

This table presents the dimensions of organizational socializations as well as the tactics available to firms. It melds Van Maanen and Schein's (1979) work on the social, content, and context aspects of socialization with Jones' (1986) continuum of institutionalized to individualized approaches.

Context refers to the social space or background under which socialization occurs. The collective versus individual distinction denotes the choice organizations make to socialize individuals separate from others or to bring them onboard as a cohort (Jones, 1986; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Formal versus informal distinctions reflect the existence of a set program of socialization training or weaker informal lack of it (Jones, 1986; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Content describes the progression of roles that individuals adopt throughout their time in an organization (Chow, 2002). Sequential socialization is the

organizationally planned and managed path on which employees develop their careers.   Random socialization, or a largely unpredictable or non-existent path, is more common in the modern conceptualization of the boundaryless career (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996).   The difference between the socialization choices of fixed and variable is the difference between specifying how long an employee is expected to serve in a given capacity (i.e., fixed) and leaving that timeline vague (i.e., variable) (Jones, 1986; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979).

The social dimension denotes the degree to which established members of organizations (e.g., leaders, managers, and mentors) act as role models and remind new employees that they are members of a distinct group and that it helps define who they are (Jones, 1986; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979).   The serial/disjunctive is the degree to which a new member's direct supervisor once held the position he/she currently occupies. Serial relationships offer a new member good role models with a specific understanding of the technical requirements and role obligations of that employee's position (Chow, 2002).   The last dimension, investiture versus divestiture describes the degree to which managers in a firm require that new employees abandon previous values and identities and replace them with new ones prescribed in the socialization process (Jones, 1986; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979).   The more an organization requires debasing activities, the higher it is on investiture (Chow, 2002).

In addition to Van Maanen and Schein's (1979) six tactics of socialization, Table 1 also notes Jones' (1986) continuum of institutional to individual socialization.   The institutional dimension includes collective, formal, sequential, fixed, serial, and investiture. These tactics connote a regimented and planned set of activities that provide new members with an objectively clear set of socialized expectations and an enhanced understanding of the firm's culture. The individualized dimension includes individual, informal, random, variable, disjunctive, and divestiture. The individualized approach to socialization places the burden of acquiring the content material of socialization squarely on the shoulders of the new employee. Generally, the institutionalized approach creates a conformist employee, whereas, individualized approaches tend to foster employee creativity (Vanous, 1992). Empirical work on employee career satisfaction indicated that institutional approaches strongly, negatively, predicted satisfaction (Orpen, 1995). Furthermore, Orpen (1995) found that individualized approaches, when utilized upon organizational entry, positively predicted career satisfaction later in life. Under no circumstances did either of these dimensions predict career success as defined by promotions and salary growth over the initial three years of employment (Orpen, 1995). In light of the dual (i.e., objective and subjective) nature of career success (e.g., Baruch, 2004b), the author contends organizations that take individualized approaches to socialization are more attractive to new employees because individuals increasingly subjectively define success (e.g., in terms of a work/life balance), not just by making more money and gaining more authority.

Stage 3- Goal Implementation

As new entrants progress through the selection and entry stage, they continue to work towards their goals. Despite honest intentions, many goals go unmet (Dalton & Spiller, 2012; Webb & Sheeran, 2006). The disappointing discrepancy between what people want to do and what they actually accomplish garnered considerable research attention on the subject of goal pursuit (Dalton & Spiller, 2012; Fishbein & Azjen, 1975) and the strategies used to complete them (Gollwitzer & Sheeran, 2009). Planning is essential to goal completion (Dalton & Spiller, 2012). In general, research on goal achievement and the intentions that foster it, focused on the completion of a single goal (Dalton & Spiller, 2012). Fundamentally, even distinguishing conceptual from operational goals indicates that new employees juggle the completion of multiple objectives. Unfortunately, strategies that apply to the completion of a single goal do not easily translate to the attainment of multiple goals (Austin & Vancouver, 1996). Attending to the specific actions required for achievement of multiple goals is difficult. Research indicated that planning for multiple goals in complex environments like contemporary work environments, is very tenuous (Dalton & Spiller, 2012). These researchers found that when individuals face multiple, often competing, goals, the perceived

difficulty of executing actions related to goal obtainment becomes salient, and their commitment to them weakens. Without persistent, high levels of commitment, individuals typical fall short of their stated objectives (Dalton & Spiller, 2012). Despite the aforementioned difficulties, individuals can work towards the completion of multiple objectives with the proper use of career strategies. These are behaviors, activities, or experiences designed to help individuals meet goals (Callanan, 2006). Callanan (2006) described a process for implementing career strategies. First, new entrants should reexamine their long-term goals and make sure they are compatible with what they value. Although, presumably, new entrants have done that during the process of individual discovery, it is possible that their job demands and organizational experiences have altered what they have come to value. Second, they should scan their organizations and identify the behaviors and experiences that will ultimately allow them to reach their long-term goals. Third, new entrants should explore the fit between their short and long-term goals and evaluate whether they conflict. Fourth, they should identify the behaviors or experiences that help in attaining short-term goals. Finally, new entrants should combine the lists of career strategies for short and long-term goal attainment. New entrants would benefit by familiarizing themselves with strategies that garnered empirical support in predicting goal achievement. These career strategies include attaining competence in the current job, working extended hours, securing a mentor, and developing new skills that extend beyond those required in the current position (Callanan, 2006). Developing and implementing career strategies enhances employees' chances of attaining their short and long-term career goals as well as coordinating their operation and conceptual goals.

Stage 4- Early Career Evaluation

The last stage in this model involves career evaluation. It requires individuals to assess the decisions made during all phases up to and including the evaluation of goals set prior to seeking employment. Career management is a flexible, adaptive, process that individuals can use to evaluate and negotiate the terms of their employment (Greenhaus et al., 2010; Baruch, 2004b). Herriot and Pemberton (1966), noted that in the absence of procedural (e.g., Rawls, 1971; Sheppard, Lewicki, & Minton, 1992) and distributive (e.g., Adams, 1965) justice (perceived fairness that occurs when the process utilized or actual work outcomes are seen as fair and reasonable respectively), individuals attempt to either renegotiate the work contract, or leave the organization. If individuals deem the process fair, they will deepen their relationships with their organizations. However, if individuals evaluate their circumstances in terms of both money and interactions within organizations and find them unfair, they are likely to make unfavorable judgments and (e.g., either voluntarily or involuntarily), look to a different track and/or employer for career satisfaction.

Career evaluation refers to the process by which career-related feedback is gathered and used. According to Greenhaus and colleagues (2010), the feedback obtained through career appraisal has two specific functions. First, it assesses the appropriateness of a particular career strategy. Does the strategy help the new entrant reach established goals? Second, feedback can test the appropriateness of a goal itself. Does the goal still fit the new entrant's career plan? Is the goal still attainable? If accomplished, did the completed goal bring the anticipated levels of satisfaction? With effective appraisal, new entrants can discover information that validates or invalidates their prior decisions and propel their choices over the following phases of their lives and careers.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

The author's aim in creating the model of career development laid out in this research was to provide new labor market entrants with a theoretically sound framework for enhancing the probability of early career success. As organizational structures continue to evolve, it is imperative that prospective employees plan better. This proposed model contends that individuals focus first on attaining greater self-awareness, which helps define and refine the self-concept. Next, the model suggests would-be applicants familiarize themselves with relevant environmental conditions (e.g., the macro economic conditions of the labor market

and the opportunities available in specific firms and occupations). This allows entrants to engage the first stage of the model: goal development. Properly prepared new entrants will be better able to set difficult, specific, obtainable, goals that guide their choices in occupational selection. Once they choose/gain entrance to appropriate organizations (Stage 2 of the model), they navigate organizational socialization tactics which help them (or not) adjust to their roles and "fit" with the organizational culture. Provided they are properly socialized, in the model's third stage they implement their goals and gather feedback (e.g., from supervisors, family, and coworkers) in order to evaluate the utility of prior decisions and plot a future course (the model's final phase-early career evaluation). New employees who successfully transition through these stages enhance their chances of early career success and set the stage for better outcomes throughout the rest of their working lives.

Naturally, the proposed model has inherent limitations and is fraught with potential methodological difficulty. Future research must empirically validate this model. However, doing so could prove demanding. For example, prior research in goal accomplishment (e.g., Austin & Vancouver, 1996) focused on the difficulties of commitment to, and achievement of, multiple goals. This proposed model requires the assessment of multiple, concurrent, goals that are both personal and organizational. Assessing their accomplishment would likely require dyadic data gathered from employees and supervisors as well as individual responses related to non-work aspirations. Such would be a very aggressive research agenda which could probably only be done in modest, stepwise chunks. The author anticipates difficulty obtaining dyadic samples and the potential for response bias. Despite the shortcomings and challenges germane to this model, future empirical research on early careers is inherently important because successful outcomes, both for individuals and organizations (e.g., individual accomplishment and growth, earning a living, firm well-being and profitability) are all of ubiquitous concern.

APPENDIX

The Model of Early Career Success: Phases, Objectives, Activities and supporting Literature

Phase of Early Career Success	Principal Objective	Prerequisite Activities and Conditions	Representative Supporting Literature
Stage 1	Goal Development	➢ Individual Discovery ❖ Environmental Scanning	➢ (Barrick & Mount, 1991) ➢ (Holland, 1997) ➢ (Schmidt & Hunter, 2004) ➢ (Fishbein & Azjen, 1975) ➢ (Schein 1978; 1996) ❖ (Hackman & Oldham, 1976) ❖ (Bandura, 1977) ❖ (Brown, 1990)
Stage 2	Selection and Entry	• Person/Environment Fit o Tactics of Organizational Socialization	• (Schreuder & Coetze, 2006) • (George, 1992) • (O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991) o (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979) o (Jones, 1986)
Stage 3	Goal Implementation	Completion of Stages 1 & 2	(Dalton & Spiller, 2012) (Gollwitzer & Sheeran, 2009) (Callanan, 2006)
Stage 4	Early Career Evaluation	Completion of Stages 1-3	(Herriot & Pemberton, 1966) (Baruch, 2004) (Greenhaus, Godshalk, & Callanan, 2010)

The above chart describes the flow of the model proposed in Figure 1. It describes the stages of model, describes what new labor market entrants attend to in each of them, notes what they need to accomplish in order to move to the next phase and lists the research drawn upon to conceptually justify each phase.

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DOES WINNING AN AWARD AFFECT INVESTORS' BRAND PREFERENCE AND PURCHASE INTENTION?

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ABSTRACT

Franklin Templeton Investments is a global leader in asset management serving clients for over 65 years in over 150 countries and is famous in Taiwan. This research takes Franklin Templeton Investments as an example. We investigate the relationships between brand image, perceived quality, brand preference, and purchase intention using questionnaire. The results show that brand image has a significantly positive effect on perceived quality and brand preference. Perceived quality has a significantly positive impact on brand preference. Brand preference also has a significantly positive influence on purchase intention.

JEL: G1, M1, M5

KEYWORDS: Brand Image, Perceived Quality, Brand Preference, Purchase Intention

INTRODUCTION

Mutual funds represent one of the most popular investment instruments today. Some institutions hold fund awards to recognize strong performing funds and fund groups that have shown excellent yearly returns relative to their peers - for example, TFF-Bloomberg Best Fund Awards, Morningstar Fund Awards, and Lipper Fund Awards. Many fund companies use awards they have won as advertising and marketing material, hence raising a few questions: Do investors think awarded funds have a better brand image or a better perceived quality? Does wining an award affect investors' brand preference and purchase intention? Most related studies on awarded funds target performance persistence by taking secondary data from the financial markets. In fact, there is limited research targeting investors' brand preference and purchase intentions of awarded funds directly through questionnaires. This study looks to fill this gap. The most popular fund awards in Taiwan include TFF-Bloomberg Best Fund Awards, Morningstar Fund Awards (Taiwan), Lipper Fund Awards, and Smart Taiwan Fund Awards.

Among these four fund awards, Franklin Templeton Investments respectively won a total of 19 and 13 awards in 2014 and 2013, ranking first in the fund industry in awards received. This research takes Franklin Templeton Investments as an example, because it has had such an outstanding performance in the last ten years, is a global leader in asset management serving clients for over 65 years in over 150 countries, and is famous in Taiwan. We investigate the relationships between brand image, perceived quality, brand preference, and purchase intention using questionnaires. This study's results can provide a reference for the fund industry and investors. The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 reviews previous research on brand image, perceived quality, brand attitude, brand preference, and purchase intention. Section 3 describes the data and method we employ. Section 4 reports the empirical results, and section 5 concludes the paper.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The American Marketing Association defines brand as "a name, term, sign, symbol, design or a combination of them, intended to identify the goods and services to differentiate them from the competition". Kotler (2000) claimed that "brand is a name, term, symbol, design or all the above, and is used to distinguish one's products and services from competitors". Keller (1993) defined brand image as "perceptions about a brand as reflected by the brand associations held in consumer memory". Accordingly, brand image does

not exist in the features, technology or the actual product itself.   It is something brought out by advertisements, promotions or users.   Brand image is often used as an extrinsic cue when consumers are evaluating a product before purchasing (Zeithaml, 1988; Richardson, Dick and Jain, 1994). Perceived quality is the consumer's judgment about a product's overall excellence and superiority, not the actual quality of a product (Zeithaml, 1988; Aaker, 1991).   Consumers often judge the product quality by various informational cues.   They form their beliefs based on these informational cues (intrinsic and extrinsic). Then they judge the quality of a product and make their final purchase decision based on these beliefs (Olson, 1977). Intrinsic attributes are physical characteristics of the product itself, such as a product's conformance, durability, features, performance, reliability, and serviceability. On the contrary, extrinsic attributes are cues external to the product itself, such as price, brand image, and company reputation (Zeithaml, 1988).   Garvin (1987) defined perceived quality to include five dimensions: features, performance, conformance, durability, reliability, serviceability, aesthetics, and brand image. Petrick (2002) developed a four-dimensional scale to measure the perceived quality of a product: consistency, reliability, dependability, and superiority.

Brand preference is important to companies, because it provides an indicator of customers' loyalty and the strength of their respective brands. Brand preference can be viewed as an attitude that influences consumers' purchase decisions, which then result in a behavioral tendency under which a buyer will select a particular brand, while disregarding another brand (Howard and Sheth, 1969; Ravi, Stephen and Steven, 1999). Consumers' preferences are often sensitive to particular tasks, context characteristics, and individual difference variables (Payne, Bettman, and Johnson, 1992). Purchase intention is the likelihood that a customer will buy a particular product (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975; Dodds, Monroe & Grewal, 1991; Schiffman and Kanuk, 2000). A greater willingness to buy a product means the probability to buy it is higher, but not necessarily to actually buy it.   On the contrary, a lower willingness does not mean an absolute impossibility to buy. Bagozzi and Burnkrant (1979) defined purchase intention as personal behavioral tendency to a particular product.   Spears and Singh (2004) defined purchase intention as "an individual's conscious plan to make an effort to purchase a brand".   Purchase intention is determined by a consumer's perceived benefit and value (Xu, Summers, and Bonnie, 2004; Grewal et al., 1998; Dodds et al., 1991; Zeithaml, 1988). Firms often try to establish favorable associations with a product through messages to consumers. Dodds, Monroe & Grewal (1994) pointed out that brand image can be viewed as a set of all information about a product, and so a consumer's perceived quality and overall evaluation about a brand will be higher when the brand image is better.

Brand image is often used as an extrinsic cue when consumers are evaluating a product before purchasing (Zeithaml, 1988; Richardson, Dick and Jain, 1994). A favorable brand image positively influences consumers' perceived quality (Dodds et al., 1991; Grewal, Krishnan, Borin & Baker, 1998) and brand preference (Chang and Liu, 2009; Mourad & Ahmed, 2012). Moreover, brand image and brand awareness affect consumers' evaluations and choices about a particular product (Keller, 1993).   Perceived quality has a positive effect on brand preference (Moradi & Zarei, 2011; Tolba, 2011) and on consumers' brand evaluation about a product (Metcalf, Hess, Danes, and Singh, 2012).   Brand familiarity also influences a consumer's confidence and attitude toward the brand, in turn impacting his purchase intention (Laroche, Kim, and Zhou, 1996). In other words, brand preference plays an important role in deciding consumers' purchase intention (Higie and Murphy, 1991; Chen and Chang, 2008; Wang, 2010). Thus, we note the following hypotheses.

Brand image has a significantly positive impact on investors' perceived quality

Brand image has a significantly positive impact on investors' brand preference

Perceived quality has a significantly positive impact on investors' brand preference

Investors' brand preference has a significantly positive impact on their purchase intention

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

According to the research framework, we design the items of the questionnaire for the four dimensions: brand image, perceived quality, brand preference, and purchase intention. These items are measured on Likert's five-point scale, ranging from 1 point to 7 points, denoting "strongly disagree", "disagree", "a little disagree", "neutral", "a little agree", "agree", and "strongly agree", respectively. Using random sampling, we administered the questionnaires to investors living in Taiwan from February 1, 2013 to May 1, 2013. A total of 600 responses were distributed, and 552 usable responses were collected, for an acceptable response rate of 92%. The gauging scales are selected from the literature.   Brand image is gauged by 4 items take from Park, Jaworski and Maclnnis (1986).   Perceived quality is measured by 8 items by means of Petrick (2002).   Brand preference is gauged by 4 items taken from Howard and Sheth (1969). Purchase intention is gauged by 3 items take from Zeithaml (1988) and Dodds et al. (1991).

ANALYSES AND RESULTS

We perform data analyses on SPSS 13.0 and AMOS 19.0, with the adopted methods including descriptive statistics analysis, reliability and validity analysis, correlation analysis, and structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis.   Through descriptive statistics analysis in Table 1, we found that the basic attributes of major group are female (55.4%), married (54.0%), 21-30 years old (48.0%), university education level (70.1%), live in central Taiwan (50.7%), work in service industry (29.0%), and monthly income NT$20,001-40,000 (49.6%).

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics Analysis of Sample

	Items	No. of Respondents	Percent (%)
Gender	Male	246	44.6
	Female	306	55.4
Marital status	Married	298	54.0
	Unmarried	254	46.0
	Younger than 20 years old	18	3.3
	21-30 years old	265	48.0
Age group	31-40 years old	104	18.8
	41-50 years old	130	23.6
	Older than 50 years old	35	6.3
	Junior high school	5	0.9
	Senior high school	113	20.5
Education level	University	387	70.1
	Graduate school	39	7.1
	PhD	8	1.5
	Northern Taiwan	117	21.2
	Central Taiwan	280	50.7
Residential area	Southern Taiwan	57	10.3
	Eastern Taiwan	96	17.4
	Others	2	0.4
	Financial industry	114	20.7
	Public servants and teachers	37	6.7
	Manufacturing industry	39	7.1
Occupation	Information and technology industry	19	3.4
	Service industry	160	29.0
	Students	94	17.0
	Others	89	16.1
	Below 20,000	114	20.7
	20,001-40,000	274	49.6
Monthly income	40,001-60,000	101	18.3
	60,001-80,000	33	6.0
	More than 80,000	30	5.4

This table shows descriptive statistics analysis of the sample.   The first two columns represent demographic variables and their items considered in this research.   The third and fourth column reports the number of respondents and its corresponding percent, respectively

Composite reliability (CR) is used as a measure of the reliability.   It is defined to have "internal consistency reliability" when CR has a value greater than 0.7 (Fornell and Larcker, 1981).   As presented in Table 2, all the dimensions have a CR value greater than 0.7, which indicates good internal consistency reliability.   Convergent validity and discriminant validity are commonly regarded as subsets of construct validity. This research conducts confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to measure convergent validity.

According to the results in Table 2, all CR estimates are greater than 0.7, all factor loadings are greater than 0.5, and all Average Variance Extracted (AVE) estimates are also greater than 0.5 in these five dimensions. This is consistent with the criterion of convergent validity proposed by Fornell and Larcker (1981) and Hair et al. (2009).

Table 2: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Dimension		Factor Loading	SMC	CR	AVE
Brand image	BI1	0.880	0.774		
	BI2	0.854	0.729	0.936	0.785
	BI3	0.912	0.832		
	BI4	0.898	0.806		
Perceived quality	PQ1	0.820	0.672		
	PQ2	0.843	0.711		
	PQ3	0.870	0.757	0.930	0.726
	PQ4	0.875	0.766		
	PQ5	0.852	0.726		
Brand preference	BP1	0.817	0.667		
	BP2	0.876	0.767	0.922	0.747
	BP3	0.926	0.857		
	BP4	0.834	0.696		
Purchase intention	PI1	0.851	0.724		
	PI2	0.911	0.830	0.912	0.776
	PI3	0.879	0.773		

This table shows confirmatory factor analysis on brand image, perceived quality, brand preference, and purchase intention. SMC, CR, AVE represents square multiple correlation, composite reliability, and average variance extracted, respectively.

Table 3 presents the results of discriminant analysis, with the values on the diagonal being AVE of our four dimensions (constructs): brand image, perceived quality, brand preference, and purchase intention. Values on the non-diagonal are the square of the correlation between two constructs. We note that the questionnaire has discriminant validity, because the AVE of each construct is greater than the square of the correlation between any two constructs (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). In addition, it also has content validity, because our scale and item contents are constructed according to the literature review and do pass the questionnaire pre-test.

Table 3: Discriminant Analysis

	Brand Image	Perceived Quality	Brand Preference	Purchase Intention
Brand image	0.785			
Perceived quality	0.679	0.726		
Brand preference	0.490	0.576	0.747	
Purchase intention	0.472	0.482	0.701	0.776

This table shows discriminant analysis of brand image, perceived quality, brand preference, and purchase intention. Values on the diagonal and non-diagonal are AVE estimates of each construct and the square of correlation between two constructs, respectively.

This research conducts structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis to test the fit of the factors (dimensions) of brand image, perceived quality, brand preference, and purchase intention. For a model with good fit, GFI (goodness of fit) should greater than 0.8 (Browne and Cudeck, 1993). AGFI (adjusted goodness of fit) should be greater than 0.8, and CFI (comparative fit index) should be greater than 0.9 (Doll, Xia, Torkzadeh, 1994; Hair et al., 2009; Gefen et al., 2000). RMSEA (root mean square error of approximation) should be under 0.08 (Brown and Cudeck, 1993), and the ratio of the chi-square value to degrees of freedom ($\frac{x^2}{df}$) should be no greater than 5 (Wheaton et al., 1977). The goodness-of-fit indices of the model are as follows: GFI is 0.905, AGFI is 0.70, CFI is 0.962, RMSEA is 0.078, and $\frac{x^2}{df}$ is 4.368. All these indices are within the acceptable range, meaning the overall model fitness is good.

Figure 1 presents the path analyses from SEM. According to the estimated values of the standardized parameters of the relationship model in Figure 1, we find that brand image has a significantly positive influence on both perceived quality (H1 is supported) and brand preference (H2 is supported). Perceived quality has a significantly positive impact on brand preference (H3 is supported). Brand preference also has a positive influence on purchase intention (H4 is supported).

Figure 1: Path Analysis from SEM
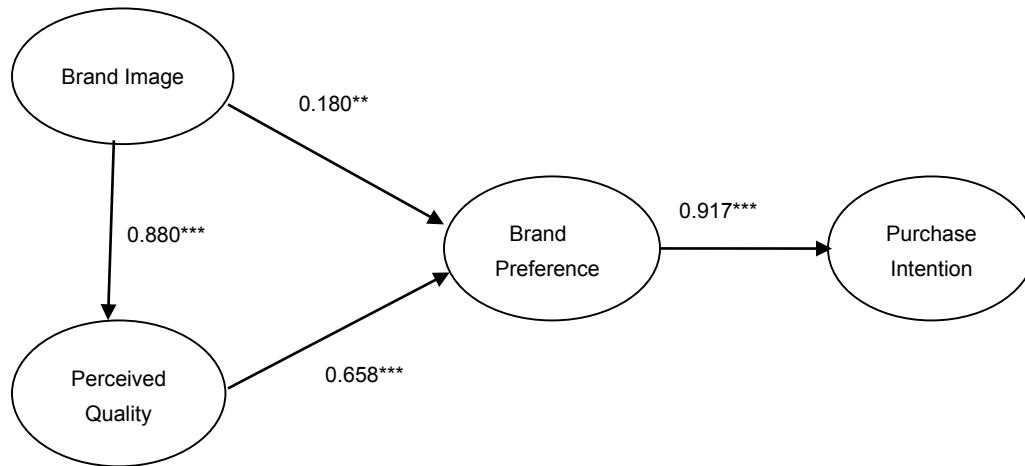
This figure shows the path analysis from structural equation modeling (SEM). Values beside the path represent the standardized regression coefficients. ***, ** and * indicate significance at the 1, 5 and 10 percent levels, respectively.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Mutual fund is one of the most popular investment instruments today. Many fund companies use awards they have won as advertising and marketing material, hence raising a few questions: Do investors think awarded funds have a better brand image or a better perceived quality? Does wining an award affect investors' brand preference and purchase intention? Franklin Templeton Investments is a global leader in asset management serving clients for over 65 years in over 150 countries, and is famous in Taiwan. Therefore, this research takes Franklin Templeton Investments as an example to investigate the relationships between awarded funds' brand image, perceived quality, brand preference, and purchase intention through a questionnaire format.

Using random sampling, we administered the questionnaires to investors living in Taiwan from February 1, 2013 to May 1, 2013. A total of 600 responses were distributed, and 552 usable responses were collected, for an acceptable response rate of 92%. We perform data analyses on SPSS 13.0 and AMOS 19.0, with the adopted methods including descriptive statistics analysis, reliability and validity analysis, and structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis. The research findings show that: 1) brand image has a significantly positive effect on both perceived quality and brand preference; 2) perceived quality has a significantly positive impact on brand preference; and 3) brand preference also has a significantly positive influence on purchase intention. The results mean that brand image not only increase consumers' brand preference directly, but also increases their brand preference indirectly via perceived quality, which in turn enhances their purchase intention. Therefore, we suggest that fund companies should put forth more efforts to improve their funds' performances and use awards won as advertising and marketing material to strengthen their brand image. Once a positive brand image is established, consumers' brand preference and purchase intention increase both directly and indirectly.

The first limitation of this study is that we take Franklin Templeton Investments as the sole example, potentially limiting generalizability to other fund companies. Second, we only considered brand image, perceived quality, and brand preference in this study. Third and finally, most of the respondents in our study are characterized by the following: 1) younger than 30 years old; 2) graduated from a university; 3) work in the service industry; or 4) have monthly income of NT$20,001-40,000. The results may be biased due to different behaviors among different age groups, education level, occupation, or monthly income. There are still other determinants of the purchase intention of mutual funds. Future research can include other variables in more comprehensive models that have possibly higher explanatory power. Naturally, the results of the study can be further strengthened by balancing and comparing different age, education

level, occupation, and monthly income groups.

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THE INFLUENCE OF REFERENCE GROUP VALUES AND RETAIL IMAGE ON SHOPPING PATRONAGE AT AIRPORTS

Nicholas W. Bodouva

ABSTRACT

Airport retailing is a relatively new and unique area of retail research. The development of this sector has been growing with the steady increase of passenger's and shopping mall type design settings within the airport terminals. As the mix of services becomes more diverse, airports as shopping malls appeal to a wide range of consumers. Knowing exactly what influences consumer shopping behaviors needs further investigation. This study was conducted to identify the relationship between reference group values and retail image as a predictor for shopping patronage at airports. The result of the analysis shows strong significance and support for reference group values and how they can influence shopping patronage decisions. Further support indicates a strong significance when testing similarities and difference, as they relate to personal values, which suggests that personal values can co-relate in understanding consumer behaviors and possibly predicting shopping patronage. When testing the relationship of shopping patronage and retail image, results further indicated a high level of significance among the majority of the variables (atmospherics, retail mix, and safety) and indicated a significant contribution to the prediction of shopping patronage.

INTRODUCTION

Shopping patronage for consumers has taken a dramatic shift from the traditional model of visiting a particular store or typical shopping mall. Consumers now have higher levels of retail choices in diverse locations and setting. This evolution has prompted an increasing need for management to understand consumer patronage behaviors in entirely new ways for particular trade markets (Ghosh and McLafferty 1987, Crawford and Melewar, 2003). These new retail formats have become more specialized and decentralized from the conventional shopping mall model and are interacting in our daily activities through many different venues, which have led to an increasing need to further understand the processes concerning how consumers make retail choice decisions (Fernie 1995; Clarke et al. 1997; Omar and Kent 2001, Lysonski and Durvasula, 2013). One retail format in particular, a*irport retailing* has undergone a major transition and now occupies a central position in revenue generating strategies and the need to identify determinants of shopping patronage.

Airport shoppers are now being recognized as a lucrative specialty market and airport retailing is evolving to understand the behavioral purchasing motivations of passengers (Crawford and Melewar, 2003). Airport authorities, retailers, and developers see retailing at airport as a means to derive more income from these commercial activities rather than from the aeronautical charges and fees. Retail and its related income has therefore become of paramount importance to the long-term survival of the airport industry (Freathy and O'Connell, 1998, Freathy and O'Connell, 2000). Each airport has a unique, distinctive set of passenger markets, all of whom use the airport differently, and have varying shopping motivations and characteristics.

This study will explore the determinants of shopping patronage at airports with the behavior variables within *reference group values* and *retail image.* Current research in this area has been neglected and been quantitatively driven with variables that lack in consumer behaviors. Therefore, further research is worthy of investigation to begin to understand the role that retail at airports has in affecting the shopping decisions of the consumer. This study will proceed to develop a theoretical framework with a review on the relevant literature in the areas of *reference group value*s and *retail image*. The next section provides an empirical study data and methodology, followed by research results. Concluding comments will summarize the research presented as well as the implications, limitations and future research suggested.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Airport retailers must develop effective strategies to gain a competitive advantage and increase shopping patronage. Patronage studies in the past have attempted to explore the determinants of shopping patronage using various descriptive and causal attributes. The objective of this study is to identify how *Reference Group Values* and *Retail Image* affect shopping patronage decisions at airports According to the study of choice sets conducted by Siggle and Sewall (1987), the retailer establishments that consumers patronize, form choice sets that share similar responses. Furthermore, they assert that prior knowledge, previous experiences, current information obtained from friends, advertisements, and other sources, influences the consumer's needs, motivations, and evaluation criteria to patronize particular retail outlets. Homer and Kahle (1988) found that people's personal values (i.e. self-actualization and social affiliation) were significantly related to shopping patronage. Telci (2012) concluded that shopping patronage has a direct effect on shoppers and provides a need for social recognition. Baltas et al. (2010) contend that a focused strategy of patronage can only be effective if consumers share in common characteristics and when correlated, can further predict targeting efforts of shopping behaviors.

Westbrook and Black (1985) find that shopping motivations and social interaction are affiliated with *affiliation theories*. They describe affiliation theory as: *"The motivation to affiliate directly or indirectly with other shoppers. Direct affiliation involves social interaction and communications, while indirect affiliation describes the process in which shoppers identify with particular reference groups through their patronage, dress, or mannerism in retail settings"* According to Rokeach (1973), *Value* is defined as: *"As an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence"……. Once a value is learned, it becomes part of a value system in which each value is ordered in priority relative to other values" (pp. 9-17).*

Pitts and Woods (1992, 1994) provided a strong argument between values and choice criteria. They verified a positive relationship exists between values and various aspects of consumer behavior and attitudes in determining shopping preference. Schwartz and Bilsky (1987) believe that what drives a person's decision stems from a value system rather than a single value. They argue that an individual's beliefs, attitudes, and behavior, as a whole, can provide more reliable information than a single value when understanding the consumer (Kamakura and Novak, 1992).

Much of the literature on in the area of store choice suggest that shopping patronage by retail image attributes has not been extensively explored and the majority of academic research has focused on the retail image of individual stores, but few have examined the image of shopping centers (Birtwistle et al., 1998, Frasquet et al., 2000, Arslan et al., 2010, Gudonaviciene and Alijosiene, 2013). Further research suggests that because shoppers are not homogenous in nature and are seeking different benefits from retail outlets, segmenting of shoppers by image attributes is important and can predict patronage (Dennis et al., 2001, Dubihlela, 2014). Consequently, there has been an on-going debate between research practitioners as to whether markets can be segmented in a reliable way using causal variables of purchasing behavior and patronage (Assael H. and Roscoe, M. 1976, Zimmer and Goldberg, 1988).

In 1958, Martineau defined retail store image as: *"...the way in which the retail store is interpreted in the shopper's mind partly by its functional qualities and partly by an aura of psychological attributes"*

Although store image has been defined in various ways, Hook (1989) concluded: *"Store image consists of a combination of tangible or functional factors and intangible or psychological factor that a consumer perceived to be present"*

An overview of retail image studies identifies: *atmospherics*, *merchandising* (i.e. retail mix), *accessibility* (i.e. safety) as part of the main attributes for shopping center image, and these characteristics have been used as the main focus of most studies in this area (Levy et al., 1998, Bell 1999, Berman et al., 2001, Frasquet et al., 2001). Although a recent study suggests that atmosphere, parking and professionalism are the distinguishing three attributes that resulted in their study (Gudonaviene and Alijosiene 2013). Mejia and Benjamin (2002) have studied the idea that non-spatial factors, particularly *image and mix*, are as important to shopping patronage as spatial factors. Grewal et al. (1998) suggest retail image is the consumer's perception of store attributes such as merchandise quality, service, and convenience. Chowhury, Reardon, and Srivastava (1998) found that structured and unstructured image ratings are comparable about effectiveness. Kirkup and Rafiq (1994) highlight that tenant mix affects the overall image of a shopping center. Anikeeff (1996) asserts that the retail mix is more important to shopping centers than to any other type of commercial property. Mejia and Benjamin (2002) concludes that non-spatial factors remain important because of the competitive environment; they promote brand identity as retail establishments increasingly have alternative non-physical store formats and represent a means of shopping center intangible value.

Atmospherics is revealed an important attribute for shopping patronage (Sit, Merrilees and Birch, 2003). Kotler (1973) originated the term *atmospherics* to describe the international control and manipulation of environmental cues. According to Wakefield and Baker (1998) and Nicholls (1995), atmospherics are environmental cues perceived by the consumer; atmospheric elements include the layout, interior architecture, décor, lighting, music, aromas, and cleanliness (Donovan and Rossiter 1982, Baker, 1986, Turley and Milliman, 2000, 2004). Past research contends that the physical environment of retail outlet centers affects store patronage (Bellenger et al., 1980, Donovan and Rossiter 1982, McGoldrick et al., 1992b, Bitner 1992, Turley and Milliman, 2000, 2004, Singh and Sahay, 2012). According to Mazursky and Jacoby (1986), and Smith and Burns (1996), environmental cues of retail outlets act as the lines of communication to the consumer's and act as determinants of the image perceived by the shopper, this image, whether good or bad affects a consumers patronage behavior. Milliman and Turley's (2000) article unveiled sixty studies on atmospherics and found all having some connection with shopping behavior.

The assortment of the retail mix has been widely recognized in the retail literature as an important element for consumers in determining the image of a shopping facility and in turn, store choice (Kirkup and Rafiq, 1994, Finn and Louviere, 1996, Wakefield and Baker 1998, Akir and Othman, 2010). Brown (1992) delineates the retail mix as the combination of stores occupying a shopping center. Anikeeff (1996) found that the retail mix is more important to shopping centers than to any other type of commercial property. Finally, in the Wakefield and Baker Study (1998), they conclude that the retail mix induces excitement among the consumers image of the facility and in turn influences patronage. Schiffman L. and Kanuk (1997) explain that many consumers are risk-averse and will not shop if there is perceived danger. Lee et al. (1999) believes that new attractive shopping facilities elicit a false sense of security to its shoppers and is attractive to criminals. He further explains that ecological based research and theory to crime causation can be explained with the combination of human ecology, rational choice, and deterrence concepts. Cohen and Felson (1979) argue that three social conditions must take place: (1) the availability of suitable targets to victimize, (2) the presence of motivated offenders to commit the crimes, and (3) the absence of capable guardians to deter potential deviant behavior. They state the occurrence of all three conditions presents the

highest time places of crime occur. Whereas at the lowest time places of crime occur is when these variables are not prevalent. While retail officials now have a new criminal, *terrorism* to contend with, security concerns at shopping facilities are of the utmost importance and effecting shopping choice behavior (Bilefsky et al., 2002). Despite its significance, there are very few studies that link safety to store choice; the most significant ones are Bellenger and Greenberg (1977), who researched *security* against the *quality of the center*. Wee (1986), found that a *safe place to be* was associated with the *facilities*; and finally Frasquet and Molla (2001) believe that personal security was associated with atmosphere/leisure attributes.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

A study conducted by Tauber (1972) on motivations underlying shopping behavior found that there are many psychological needs of the consumer beyond those relating to the product. Tauber identified both personal and social motives that influence shopping behavior, the main social factors included: (1) social interaction outside the home, (2) communication with others having similar interests, (3) affiliation with reference groups, (4) obtaining increases in social status, and (5) achieving success in negotiations.

The following hypotheses are developed: $H1_O$: Consumer behavior patterns of *shopping patronage* at airports are not influenced by *reference group values*. H1: Consumer behavior patterns of *shopping patronage* at airports are influenced by *reference group values*. Many studies have suggested that *atmospherics*, *merchandising* (i.e. retail mix), *accessibility* (i.e. safety) are among the factors that influence patronage behaviors of the consumer, (Levy et al., 1998, Bell 1999, Berman et al., 2001, Frasquet et al., 2001). For the purpose of this study, retail image will be empirically tested using these well-known attributes and their relationship to consumer shopping patronage in a retail airport setting. The following hypotheses are developed: $H2_O$: Consumer behavior patterns of *shopping patronage* at airports are not influenced by the *retail image* (i.e. atmospherics, retail mix and safety).

H2: Consumer behavior patterns of *shopping patronage* at airports are influenced by the *retail image* (i.e. atmospherics, retail mix and safety). Shopping patronage behaviors were measured using instruments already tested for good reliability and validity - *Reference Group Values: The Consumer Susceptibility to Interpersonal Influence Scale (Bearden, Netmyer and Teel, 1989) and List of Values (LOV)* (Kahle 1983) *scale. Retail Image: Consumer Image of Retail Stores* (Osgood et al., 1957, Dickerson and Albaum, 1977). However, to ensure for content and face validity as well as reliability of the questionnaires, pre-testing was conducted on a small sample at two airports and a small focus group evaluated the results before continuing with the main study (Nunnally 1978, 1994). Taking into account these factors and the number of passengers that pass through each airport a day, this study found a sample size of (N=375) three hundred and seventy five was adequate. A field-based study was employed over a two-week period on a random sample of departing passengers, at two airports, equal in size and distance, were asked to complete a self-administered written survey. Consequently, a total of all 375 surveys were filled out, only 334 completed questionnaires were analyzed for this study, after eliminating 41 incomplete surveys from the data analysis, for a response rate of 89%. ** Shopping Patronage = the number of visits to the airport in the last three months*

RESULTS

The following sample descriptive results were found from the survey: the majority of respondents were female (75.5%, n= 253), the largest group of respondents (n=145, 43.3%) were between 35-44 years old, the largest group is those that earned a high school diploma (n=89, 26.6%) and the largest group is Caucasians (n=168, 50.1%). In analyzing the relationship between consumer behavior of shopping patronage and the *influences of reference group values*, the following analysis is reported: Factor analysis extraction was performed to reduce the number of items (unrotated) in the measure that tested consumer's

willingness to conform to the expectation of others regarding purchase decisions. The 12 descriptives were entered for analysis Table 1.

Table 1: Factor Analysis – Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.180	43.166	43.166	5.180	43.166	43.166
2	2.170	18.086	61.252	2.170	18.086	61.252
3	1.197	9.973	71.224	1.197	9.973	71.224
4	0.932	7.770	78.994			
5	0.666	5.550	84.545			
6	0.566	4.719	89.263			
7	0.438	3.649	92.912			
8	0.344	2.867	95.779			
9	0.206	1.718	97.497			
10	0.175	1.454	98.951			
11	0.084	0.704	99.656			
12	0.041	0.344	100.000			

This Table shows the results of a Factor Analysis Extraction of 12 items that are used to test Consumer's Willingness to Conform to the Expectation of Others, Regarding Purchase Decisions. Components: 1. Want to be Like Someone, 2. Consult People, 3. Others Like Brands I Buy, 4. Observe What People Buy, 5. Friends Approval, 6. Identify With People, 7. Ask Friends, 8. Buy What Others Would Approve, 9. Know of Brands that Make Good Impressions, 10. Gather Information, 11. Others Seeing Me Use Product & 12. Achieving a Sense of Belonging

The Eigenvalues were examined for results greater than 1. The first two met these statistical criteria: *(1) If I want to be like someone, I often try and buy the same brands that they buy (eigenvalue = 5.18) and (2) I often consult other people to help choose the best alternative available from a product class (eigenvalue = 2.17).* Next, to examine the relative magnitudes, a scree test was conducted to further evaluate the extracted factors. It showed the same results, therefore the next stage, to obtain more meaningful results; a factor analysis rotation was conducted. The rotated factors were correlated and computed among the twelve factors. The results presented the first and second factors accounted for 39.51% and 14.09% of the variance of the ten variables. In total, the two factors accented for 53.60% of the variable variance. To further test these rotated extracted variables, a correlation analysis was conducted of the dependent and the two extracted independent variables. Table 2 shows that *Consulting Others* correlates with shopping patronage in an inverse position, r = -0.185, p<0.01. The magnitude of shopping patronage with the other measured variable *Want to be Like Someone*, showed no correlation or significance with *shopping patronage*.

A Chi-Square test was conducted to test whether the actual values are similar to the expected values. The two measurable factors used previously were used for testing. The first sample yielded significant differences with the two variables. The greatest discrepancy was with the question 1, *If I Want to be Like Someone, I Often Try and Buy the Same Brands That They Buy.* The actual N=134 to the expected N=66.8, with a residual = 67.2 that chose the answer, *I Agree.* The Chi-Squares were both significant at a 99% level (significance <0.01) and indicates the values are not independent of each other.

Next, a paired-sample t-test was conducted to evaluate the two measured factors (questions 1, and 2,) in pairs in order to understand the influence of *reference group values* on *shopping behaviors.* The results indicated that the mean concern for *Wanting to be Like Someone* (question 1) M=2.72, SD= 1.07, was significantly lower than the mean concern for Consulting Other People (question 2) M=3.21, SD= 1.17, t= -8.252, p<0.001. These results also indicates that a significant correlation exists between these two

variables r=0.525 and a significance level of p<0.001 indicating that those who *Want to be Like Someone* (question 1) *Tend to Consult Others* (question 2), Table 3.

Table 2: Correlation

		Frequency Traveled In Last 3 Months	Want to Be Like Someone	Consult Others
Frequency traveled in last 3 months	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	0.026	-0.185**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	0.638	0.001
	N	334	334	334
Want to be Like Someone	Correlation Coefficient	0.026	1.000	0.414**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.638	.	0.000
	N	334	334	334
Consult Others	Correlation Coefficient	-0.185**	0.414**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001	0.000	.
	N	334	334	334

*This Table shows the results of the Correlation Analysis of the Dependent Variable (Frequency Traveled in the Last 3 Months) with the two extracted Independent Variables: 1. Want to be Like Someone & 2. Consult Others. *p<0.05, **p<0.01 and ***p<0.001*

Table 3: Paired Samples T-Test and Correlation

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Want to be Like Someone	2.72	334	1.077	0.059
	Consult Others	3.21	334	1.175	0.064

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Want to be Like Someone & Consult Others	334	0.525***	0.000

*These Tables show the results of a Paired Samples t-Test and Correlation analysis between the two variables: 1. Want to be Like , Someone & 2. Consult Others. *p<0.05, **p<0.01 and ***p<0.001*

The second scale tested consumer's similarities and differences as they relate to personal values both internally and externally. A correlation analysis was conducted to summarize the strength and direction of association between the interval variables. All measured variables were highly correlated with each other with a range from r=0.973 to r=0.980. All the variable were significant p<0.001. Next a Chi-square was performed to test the observed frequencies/proportions to the expected frequencies/proportions of all the variables. All but seven results had large discrepancies between the actual and expected variables. The largest discrepancy being between *Self Respect and Sense of Accomplishment* with a residual= 50.9. The smallest being between *Warm Relation with Others and Fun and Enjoyment* with a residual =0.1. The results support high Chi-square values ranging from r=78.06 to r=225.29, significant where p<0.001. for all values and a cell count of 37.7% indicting that, the majority of measured variables are not independent of each other.

The finding from all the above data are statistically significant at the 99% level, so it can be concluded the null hypothesis can be rejected. The results for the first scale showed a strong correlation and significance p<0.001 between the three extracted variables, as well as small differences between the means, which ultimately supports how influential reference groups can be in making purchase decision. The results from the second scale also indicate significance p<0.001 for all variables and correlation outcomes that were

very strong, which indicated how these personal values can co-relate in understanding consumer behaviors and possibly predicting shopping patronage.

In analyzing the relationship between *consumer behavior of shopping patronage and the retail image,* the following analysis is reported: A correlation analysis was performed to measure the strength and association between the variables. The results showed that thirteen of the twenty variables indicated a high level of significance, $p < 0.05$, with strong magnitudes of correlation. The highest correlation between cleanliness/*dirty and safe/unsafe* with $r = 0.628$. To reduce the amount of variables and identify the variation among measures, an unrotated factor analysis was conducted. The test determined to extract six variables with eigenvalues greater than 1. The highest eigenvalue magnitude was with the measured variable *cleanliness/dirty* (5.18) and accounted for 25.93% of variance of the variables. The second measured variable extracted was *good lighting/poor lighting* (3.53), which accounted for 17.67% of variance among these variables, the third variable extract was *unattractive décor/attractive décor* (2.839)and accounted for 14.197% of variance, the forth variable was *dirty store/clean store*(1.38) and accounted for 6.93% of variance, the fifth variable was *easy to park/difficult to park* (1.31) and accounted for 6.59% of variance, and finally the sixth variable was nearby/distant (1.23) and accounted for 6.18% of the variance among the variables. Factor rotation was then used to analyze the correlations between each variable and the factors for a Varimax rotation to recognize interpretable outcomes.

The results of the factor loading matrix indicted correlations between each of the variables and the factors for a Varimax rotation. It showed that items 3 (0.832),4(0.541),7 (0.832),12 (0.717),17 (0.704), and 18 (0.520) are associated with Factor 1, items 13 (0.893),14 (0.501), and 15 (0.944) are associated with Factor 2, items 1 (0.602),10 (0.887), and 11 (0.902) are associated with Factor 3, items 2 (0.650),5 (0.361),6 (0.668),8 (0.569), and 9 (0.846) are associated with Factor 4, items 16 (.878), and 21 (.468) are associated with Factor 5 and lastly, item 19 (0.788) is associated with Factor 6. The factors were then associated and identified to form clusters. Factor 1: A*tmosphere* (Décor, Clean, Hours, Poor, Location, and Products). Factor 2: I*dentity* (Favorite, Friends, and Prices). Factor 3: V*isible* (Cleanliness, Safe, and Known). Factor 4: *CONVENIENCE* (Lighting, Parking, Proximity, Layout, and Drive). Factor 5: I*mpression* (Ads, and Class). Factor 6: L*ayout* (Spacious). The proportion of variance accounted for each of the rotated factors indicating the relative importance was reported to be 12.8% for the first, 19.91% for the second, 7.10% for the third, 6.20% for the fourth, 9.51% for the fifth and 12.92% for the sixth of the twenty variables. In total accounted for 68.49% of the variable variance.

A multiple regression analysis was conducted to evaluate the prediction of *shopping patronage* and *retail store image* (i.e., atmospherics, retail mix and safety), Table 4. All the independent variables were used to test this relationship against the dependent variable of n*umber of visits in the last three months (shopping patronage)*. From the results, all variables met the entry requirement to be included in the equation. The model represented significance and a good data fit ($p < 0.01$), with an F-value of (29.0), and represents that they are significantly related. Table 5 shows that the R-value = 0.812, which was a substantial correlation between the predictor variables and the dependent variable. The R^2-value = 0.660 indicated that about 66% of the variance in the dependent variable, the n*umber of visits in the last three months (shopping patronage),* was explained by the predictor variables. The β value that has the highest influence on shopping patronage was the variables of f*avorite stores* (1.1), followed by c*onvenience of location* (0.801), and then *frequency of ad seen* (0.770). The direction of influence for nine of the variables was positive and eleven were negative. Four of the variables significance values were indicated to be more than .1 and therefore, not reliable: Safe (0.757), Known (0.508), Prices (0.209), and Class (0.936). The seventeen remaining variables all indicated strong significance. Based on these results, the remaining *store image* measures appear to be better predictors of shopping patronage.

Table 4: Multiple Regression Analysis

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	390.065	20	19.503	29.022	.000(a)
	Residual	200.935	299	0.672		
	Total	591.000	319			

This Table shows a Regression Analysis to evaluate the prediction of Shopping Patronage and Retail Store Image. (a) Predictors: Upper/Lower Case Shoppers Attracted, Convenience of Loc., Fav. Store, Known Airport, Parking, Dirty/Clean Store, Spacious/ Crowded Layout, Drive, Decor, Prices, Quality of Products, Clean/Dirt, Lighting, Layout, Frequency of Ad Seen, Poor vs. Good Place to Shop, Proximity, Hours of Operation, Safe/ Unsafe Place to Park, Friends Shop Here. (b)The Dependent Variable: Frequency traveled in last 3 months.
*p<0.05, **p<0.01 and ***p<0.001

Table 5: R-Values

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.812(a)	0.660	0.637	0.820

This shows that the R-Value has a substantial correlation between the Predictor Variables and the Dependent Variable. The R Squared explains 66% of the variance in the Dependent Variable.(a) Predictors: Upper/Lower Case Shoppers Attracted, Convenience of Location, Favorite Store, Known Airport, Parking, Dirty/Clean Store, Spacious/ Crowded Layout, Drive, Decor, Prices, Quality of Products, Clean/Dirt, Lighting, Layout, Frequency of Ad Seen, Poor vs. Good Place to Shop, Proximity, Hours of Operation, Safe/ Unsafe Place, Friends Shop Here. The (b) Dependent Variable: Frequency traveled in last 3 months.

Based on these results, the individual variables make a significant contribution, Sig. F = <0.01, to the prediction of shopping patronage and therefore, the null hypotheses is rejected. This test also produced a high R^2-value = 0.66 indicating a strong use of these variables for explaining shopping patronage. Patterns of responses were also identified and clustered into groups that had similar needs, wants, and behaviors. Six groups were classified, and based on these clusters, profiles can be determined to define segments and target markets. Therefore, Based on the tests performed, it can be concluded that *retail* outlet image (i.e. atmospherics, retail mix, and safety) statistically can influence shopping patronage.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

Airport retailing is a new branch of retail activity and has become popular with the steady increase in passenger traffic throughout the world. Retail at airports, in terms of shopping, has a captive, restrictive, and unique mindset consumer and does not follow the traditional shopping mall patronage patterns. Therefore, understanding the thought process, needs, and preferences of consumers shopping at airports becomes of great interest to researchers and practitioners for theoretical and practical bases. This study's primary research was to explore the preferences and behaviors in regards to *reference group values* and *retail image* as a means to predict s*hopping patronage* within an airport setting.

With the association between *reference group values* and *shopping patronage*, two scales were used for this hypothesis. The first scale was reduced to two factors of the twelve, which accounted for the majority of variance among the variables. The first variable, *Want to Be Like Someone*, showed no association or significance. The second variable extracted, *Consulting Others,* indicated an inverse association with strong significance to *shopping patronage*. This first sample showed significant differences with both variables and were both significant and not independent of each other. Further testing was performed, and it was found that a significant association exists between these two variables. From the second scale, all variables indicated a strong association and significant levels. Large differences also existed between the measured variables, meaning they are not independent of each other. As a result, H1 was supported.

With the association between *retail image* (atmospherics, retail mix, and safety) and *shopping patronage*, there was a strong association with 13 of the 20 measured variables, as well as a high level of significance. Six factors were extracted and showed high levels of association and significance. From the Varimax rotation, the variables were associated and identified to form clusters, as a result the following clusters were formed from the factors, Factor 1: Atmosphere, Factor 2: Identity, Factor 3: Visible, Factor 4: Convenience, Factor 5: Impression, and Factor 6: Layout. In total, the proportion of variable variance also was reported to account for 68.9%. The current study suggests that segmenting consumers into homogenous clusters with similar behaviors and preferences can better predict s*hopping patronage.* As a result of the findings, H2 was supported.

The finding of this study concludes the impact of *reference group values and retail image* does have an influence on consumer shopping behavior within an airport retail setting. Particularly with internal and external retail image factors of the environment, which can play an important role in recognizing strategic opportunities in planning and positioning retail marketing mixes. Furthermore, the significant correlation outcomes regarding personal values indicate a co-related understanding of consumer behaviors and a possible predictor of shopping patronage. The overall research found strong support with the hypotheses and most relationships were found to be significant. Given the importance of retail placement, attempting to transition toward including consumer behavior variables and patterns would add value to researchers and practitioners when planning marketing strategies. These variables would provide a measure that is more complete in understanding shopping behaviors, as well as providing a model that can project revenues across the retail mix at a particular location. More specifically, the establishment of *reference group values and personal values* showed the formulation of judgments and patterns that can provide dominant shopping patronage influences. This information can then be integrated with behavior model variables to create a powerful target-marketing framework.

In addition, the association with *retail image* (atmospherics, retail mix, and safety) and *shopping patronage* has been established. The value to researcher's in understanding *retail image* factors is the ability to go beyond the simple delineation of a single retail outlet and incorporate the macro and micro variables of the whole travel process. Many studies to date either focus on the individual retail store to attract shoppers or the agglomeration of retail outlets to attract a broader segment of shoppers that want to maximize shopping costs. The merging of the macro and micro aspects may further delineate the different consumer groups into viable market segments that represent the suitable retail mix.

This study was also able to classify the retail image factors into sub-segment clusters to identify similarities among the samples. This technique is particularly beneficial and has an ease of application and interpretation for practitioners. Since the growth of airport retailing has provided opportunities for management and operation, which has become an integral part of the overall funding system for airports globally, new strategies will benefit airport retail operators and managers by giving them a new tool that can be practically applied and can evolve to meet the changing needs of airport users. There are certain inherent limitations associated with this study, one being the results of this research will not reflect the general nature of all passengers at all airports. In addition, the sample for this study was composed mainly of females (76%), which have limited the results to reflect a possible gender bias.Future research to replicate and extend this study should continue to be examined, perhaps using other unique shopping settings. Another area for future study should investigate the inclusion of other marketing factors that reflect the evolution of consumer behaviors, such as 1) customer value, (2) service quality, (3) satisfaction, and (4) loyalty to study shopping patronage.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE AND BURNOUT IN PROFESSIONAL LIFE: A RESEARCH ON POLICE OFFICERS

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ABSTRACT

Burnout, also called occupational exhaustion, affects the health and productivity of employees. Burnout is defined as emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and sense of low personal success. Burnout experienced by employees could be effected by the opinion of organizational justice. Opinion of organizational justice is one organizational factor affecting employees' attitudes and behaviors towards their work within the organization and their environment. This research identifies, in the scope of between organizational justice and burnout in professional life, burnout employees experience related to emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal achievement. To achieve this objective, data got from face-to-face surveys with 100 police officers were evaluated. The research part consists of an application to measuring burnout between organizational justice and burnout in work life. Findings show a significant correlation between the view of justice and burnout in work life.

JEL: M12

KEYWORDS: Organization, Organizational Justice, Occupational Exhaustion, Job Burnout

INTRODUCTION

Individuals face a life surrounded in stress that exerts its presence in any sphere. The struggle to adapt to this stressful life that has disturbed individual's psychological balance, and may make the individual helpless, vulnerable and weak, on one hand revealing the energy needed for survival. On the other hand it may leading to a paradox which may destroy individual's entire energy. Stress in working environments occurs. If the individual cannot find the opportunity to prove himself/herself and supported to cope with these needs, this may lead to long term stress and burnout. Burnout is a condition which needs prevention as it may lead to grave and serious outcomes for the organization and individual. With introducing technology into business, the use of computers has increased. This, as a result, creates pressure on employees to complete a job within a given time increasing the workload. Workload is one of the significant reasons behind burnout.

The most recognized studies on burnout were first described by Freudenberger in 1974 and then carried out by Maslach (1982). Maslach handled burnout in three categories, namely emotional exhaustion, personal achievement and depersonalization. Burnout which may lead to instances such as decreases in professional achievement, inadequate service, increased absenteeism, tendency for changing jobs and indifference to work creates major problems on individuals and professional life leading to major motivation loss. Until recently researches usually focused on industrial workers. Little attention was paid to social workers in the human service sector (Kristensen et al, 2005). Nevertheless in recent years, job burnout of employees in the services have begun to be the subject of academic research.

The rest of the paper organized as follows. The next section describes the relevant literature. Next, we discuss the data and method used in the study. The results presented in the following sections. The paper closes with some assuming comments.

LITERATURE REVIEW

This section summarizes previous studies that examine organizational justice and job burnout. The main objective of this section is to analyze and identify the relationship between organizational justice and burnout in professional life in business management by reviewing the literature for organizational justice and job burnout.

Organizational Justice in Business Organizations

Humanity has developed from consumer lifestyle to productive lifestyle, from nomadic life to permanent settlement, from individualism to socialization, from collective life to distribution of work and specialization, from equality to hierarchy. It has also evolved in different ways to culminate in rapidly changing, complicated and stressful atmosphere of our day.

Organizational justice is essentially based on the equity theory developed by Adams. Equity theory focuses on individuals' view of fairness about decisions of distribution within the organization, and on individuals' reaction to the unfair circumstances within the organization (Mowday and Colwell, 2003). According to Adams, individuals constantly and endlessly compare their own positions with other references that hold the same positions. They may believe, as a result, that they are treated unjustly. Such beliefs affect individuals' attitudes and may cause them to develop certain behaviors. These behaviors may developed towards other individuals as well as towards the organizations. Organizational justice is the perceiving of justice appearing in the mind of the employee regarding the practices in the workplace (Greenberg, 1990). Organizational justice is related with value credited to the employees in return for the contributions they make to the organization. Organizational justice concerns both viewing justice in sharing of and being independent and fair in, decision-making and social relations (Beduk, 2014).

Types of Organizational Justice

Organizational justice is expressed in three dimensions, including the Distributive Justice, Procedures Justice and Interaction Justice. Adams' equity theory, one of the leading theories of organizational behavior, has revealed the distributive justice idea which developed as a first dimension in the literature of organizational justice (Weick, 1966).

Distributive justice is a perceived justice of an employee that faces work related results like awards, duties and responsibilities. These results occur at the end of his work as a comparison of his contributions to work and the results of other employees (Greenberg, 1990). Distributive Justice perception relates to if earnings within the organization is suitable, right and moral (Folger ve Cropanzano, 1998). It is about results of fair distribution faced by employees (Andersson et al, 2007). The emphasis is on procedural justice, which contrasts with the emphasis on distributive justice in previous works (Nowakovski and Conlon, 2005). The effects of procedural justice is independent from distributive justice.

Interaction justice as a concept points to the nature of relations between an individuals. It is defined as a third type justice, different from procedural justice and distribution justice, showing that attitudes must be founded on moral and ethical values. It has been expressed that attitudes of this nature will bring mutual sensitivity along (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998). This type of the organizational justice is expressed as a communication criteria. (Bies and Moag, 1986)

Behaviors and attitudes employees develop are regarded because of two different views of justice developed for distributive and procedural justice. Distributive justice refers to the degree of fairness as noticed by individuals about the distribution, to the overall organization, of the organizational results such as income, premium, promotion and social rights (Folger and Konovsky, 1989; Dailey and Delaney, 1992; Cohen and Spector, 2001). These could generate within the organization as well as resources obtained from outside. These are sometimes financial advantages, promotions and physical opportunities. Decisions for distribution of these within the organization fall within the scope of distribution justice (Ozdevecioglu, 2006). Procedural justice on the other hand refers to views on the fairness employed in decision-making by the organization (Scandura, 1999). Organizational processes refer to the distribution methods of the organization (Cohen and Spector, 2001).

View of procedural justice is also called the reaction employees show to the decision-making method (Folger and Konovsky, 1989). The first factor that shapes the judgments individuals make on procedural justice is the attitude which decision-makers show to those affected by the decision. Attitudes of decision-makers such as honest and kind conduct against those affected by decisions, their timely feedback on the decisions made and respecting the rules are among the fundamental determinants of employees' appraisal on procedural justice in the organization (Greenberg, 1990). The second factor which shapes judgments about procedural justice is the explanations of the decision-makers concerning the decision they have made.

The sufficiency of explanations of decisions predicate on setting up a sincere communication with the employees. These explanations positively contribute to the perceiving of procedural justice (Bies et al., 1988). Thus, procedural justice is termed a signal of emotional, cognitive and behavioral reactions, such as organizational participation, to the organization (Cohen and Spector, 2001). So, the belief that individuals fairly benefit from existing resources of the organization gains importance at the heart of the views on distributive justice, and similarly to the perceiving of justice about the processes employed in distributive decisions gains importance at the heart of the views about procedural justice.

Job Burnout in Business Organizations

Burnout, which is defined as employees' being no longer interested in their clients and the profession's drifting away its core meaning and objective or as a reaction against excessive stress and dissatisfaction, mostly appears in fields where services are offered for people and the human factor in the quality of services has remarkable influence (Kacmaz, 2005). Burnout was introduced by Freudenberger to define the case among voluntary health workers characterized by exhaustion, disappointment and quitting the job, and was later developed by Maslach (1982) and Jackson (Kacmaz, 2005). Burnout is associated with negative organizational results such as reduced job performance, absenteeism, turnover intention, lower career satisfaction, and reduced quality of service (Hultell and Gustavsson, 2010). At the organizational level, the most important expressions of burnout are lack of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Salahian et al, 2012). Job satisfaction is defined as a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraising of one's job (Kumari and Pandey, 2001). If disrespectful attitudes and behaviors are perceived by employees, the seeming hypocrisy of the organization can lead to cynicism and burnout (Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003). Conversely, treating employees with respect has been shown to increase trust in management (Laschinger & Finegan, 2005), which could reduce burnout. Maslach (1982) defines burnout as a syndrome characterized by physical, emotional and intellectual exhaustion. It involves developing loss of self-respect, chronic fatigue, helplessness and hopelessness which lead to negative effects in individual's professional life and his/her relations with other people. She divided it into three subcategories as emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and lack of personal accomplishment (Taycan et al., 2006).

Emotional Exhaustion: represents individual stress of burnout. The individual feels emotionally worn, overburdened and drained, and he/she experiences emotional fatigue, and believes that he/she does not treat the clients of the organization as attentive and responsible as before. Depersonalization represents an

interpersonal level of burnout. Employees treat their clients like objects, and they utter humiliating words and act indifferently and mockingly. In fact, a sense of alienation and defense underlies these behaviors (Aydemir and Demirci, 2006). Personal Achievement is being able to overcome problems and seeing oneself self-sufficient status. In case of reduced personal achievement, the sense of self-insufficiency in individual's actions about the job and sense of failure in relations with the people in the workplace emerge because of negative characterization of individual's self-appraisal. Thus, feeling a waste of efforts and feeling of guilt decrease employee's motivation, and prevents him/her from engaging in actions to achieve accomplishment (Aydemir and Demirci, 2006).

Indeed, research shows that individuals who feel respected by their organizations are more likely to expend effort for the organization (Smith & Tyler, 1997). When the organization pays attention to employee welfare, the employee will respond it by more engagement and better performance (Eisenberger et al., 2001). The term psychological well-being multi-faceded is correlated with work performance and quality of work life (Daniels and Harris, 2000). To give a clear picture of the outcomes of the issue, burnout and other stress related costs are estimated to cost around $60 billion each year in the US (Wallis, 1983 as cited in Cephe, 2010).

METHODOLOGY

The main objective of this section is to analyze, through various statistical methods, the created hypotheses, and identify the relationship between organizational justice and burnout in professional life. Since there is no academic study about burnout that covers police officers, this study is considered exploratory research. The sample size of the research is 100. Judgment sampling method used to gather data and participation was voluntary. The survey conducted anonymously and no personal information was collected that could be used to identify any individual. All respondents are older than 18 years old.

The survey method used during implementation of this research was aimed at examining the level of burnout among police officers serving in Security Directorate of Ankara province. A purposive random sampling technique was used to select the study sample of 100 police officers serving in different districts of Ankara province during the period from March 2014 to May 2014. Survey forms were distributed and received instantly after the participants filled out the questionnaire sheet where they serve.

Each participant was fully informed of the purpose and nature of the study. Consent was obtained from participants who agreed to take part in the study. The researcher stressed that participation in the study was voluntary and confidentiality was assured through coding the data.

Model

The Organizational Justice Questionnaire Sheet developed by Colquitt et al. and Niehoff and Moorman and Maslach Burnout Inventory models was modified by the researcher for measuring police officers organization justice from his/her perspectives used in the study. Statistical analysis was done using SPSS 15.0 statistical software packages, and a 95% of confidence level employed in the study. For analysis of quantitative data mean and standard deviation were used. Spearman correlation analysis was used for assessment of various scales. Statistical significance was established at alpha (p) value ≤ 0.05.

We hypothesize the following:

Ha: There is a significant relationship between organizational justice and job burnout.

Decisions depend on the result of normality analysis. Statistical tests examine hypotheses like "H0: the distribution of variables is normal" and "H1: The distribution of variables is not normal" through sample

data corresponding to n units. Where the distribution of variables is compliant with normal distribution (H0 accepted), parametric tests are applied. Where the distribution of variables concluded that it is not complaint with normal distribution (H1 rejected) parametric tests are not applied. In such a case, the data were tested with compliant nonparametric alternative tests such as Mann-Whitney U Tests and Kruskal-Wallis H Tests. Mann-Whitney U Test (U) is a version of the independent samples test performed on ordinal (ranked) data. Is there difference between treatment A and treatment B group using alpha (*p)* value? Kruskal-Wallis Test (H) is a version of the independent measures (One-Way) ANOVA that performed on ordinal (ranked) data? Is there difference between groups 1, 2, and 3 using alpha (*p)* value?

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Personal Information

Table 1 shows summary statistics of 100 police officers who they took part in the survey. The ratio of male respondents in the survey is 91%. Some 49 percent of respondents were 36 years old and above. The marital status question shows that 82% of respondents were married. The ratio of those serving for 8 years and more is 67%. Those who work in shifts is 61% of the sample, and 65 percent were satisfied with their job. The ratio of those who would want to be a police officer again if given the chance is 67%.

Table 1: Distribution of Respondents According to Personal Information

Personal Information Items		N	%
Gender	Female	9	9.0
	Male	91	91.0
Age	30 and below	31	31.0
	31-35 ages	20	20.0
	36 and above	49	49.0
Marital Status	Unmarried	18	18.0
	Married	82	82.0
How many years have you been a police officer?	Less than 8 years	33	33.0
	8 years or more	67	67.0
Office hours?	Only day	39	39.0
	Shift work	61	61.0
Are you satisfied with your job?	Yes	65	65.0
	No	35	35.0
Would you want to be a police officer again if you were given the chance to choose?	Yes	33	33.0
	No	67	67.0
Grand Total		**100**	**100.0**

This table shows results of survey participants' personal information. The third column reports the results of number of the survey participants. Fourth column is report the ratio of respondents.

Analysis of the Correlation between Organizational Justice and Its Subdimensions

In Table 2 the results of analysis of the relationship between Organizational Justice and Its subdimensions presented. According to the results of the research, there is a strong positive correlation between fair distribution scores and fair procedure scores of the police officers ($r=0.738$ $p<0.01$). There is also a strong positive correlation between fair distribution scores and fair interaction scores ($r=0.701$ $p<0.01$). And, there is a strong positive correlation between fair distribution scores and organizational justice scores ($r=0.843$ $p<0.01$).

The results of the research also shows that there is a strong positive correlation between fair procedure scores and fair interaction scores of the police officers ($r=0.868$ $p<0.01$). Similarly, there is a strong positive correlation between fair procedure scores and organizational justice scores ($r=0.935$ $p<0.01$).

The results also prove there is a strong positive correlation between fair interaction scores and organizational justice scores of the police officers (r=0,955 p<0,01).

Table 2: Correlation Analysis between Organizational Justice and Its Subdimensions

Dependent Variables		Fair Distribution	Fair Procedure	Fair Interaction	Organizational Justice
Fair Distribution	r	1.000	0.738(**)	0.701(**)	0.843(**)
	p	.	0.000	0.000	0.000
Fair Procedure	r		1.000	0.868(**)	0.935(**)
	p		.	0.000	0.000
Fair Interaction	r			1,000	0.955(**)
	p			.	0.000
Organizational Justice	r				1.000
	p				.

*This table shows the results of regression correlation Analysis between Organizational Justice and Its Sub dimensions such as Fair distribution, Fair Procedure and Fair Interactions. **p<0,01.*

Correlation between Burnout and Its Subdimensions

Table 3 shows results of the relationship between Job Burnout and its Subdimensions. Organizational Justice and Burnout data is also presented. The results indicate an intermediate positive correlation between emotional exhaustion scores and depersonalization scores of police officers (r=0.562 p<0.01). There is also correlation between emotional exhaustion scores and personal achievement scores. Besides, there is a strong positive correlation between emotional exhaustion scores and burnout scores (r=0.798 p<0.01). There is weak positive correlation between depersonalization scores and personal achievement scores of the police officers (r=0.226 p<0.05). There is also a positive strong correlation between depersonalization scores and burnout scores (r=0.795 p<0.01). Finally, there is an intermediate positive correlation between personal achievement scores and burnout scores of the police officers (r=0.465 p<0.01). The results of the research demonstrate there is an intermediate negative correlation between organizational justice scores and burnout scores of the police officers (r= -0.437 p<0.01). Therefore, the more burnout score increases, the less organizational justice score becomes.

Table 3: Correlation Analysis between Organizational Justice-Job Burnout and Job Burnout Dimensions

Dependent Variables		Emotional Exhaustion	Depersonalization	Personal Achievement	Burnout
Panel A: Analysis between Job Burnout and Its Subdimensions					
Emotional Exhaustion	r	1.000	0.562(**)	-0.013	0.798(**)
	p	.	0.000	0.898	0.000
Depersonalization	r		1.000	0.226(*)	0.795(**)
	p		.	0.024	0.000
Personal Achievement	r			1.000	0.465(**)
	p			.	0.000
Burnout	r				1.000
	p				.
Panel B: Analysis between Organizational Justice and Job Burnout					
Organizational Justice	r				-0.437(**)
	p				0.000

*This table shows the correlation results between Organizational Justice-Job Burnout and Job Burnout-Subdimensions. Panel A shows results between Job Burnout and its subdimensions. Panel B shows the results between Organizational Justice and Job Burnout. Last Column report the analysis results of job burnout using alpha **p<0.01.*

Comparison Tests across Personal Information Groups

Table 4 shows results of Gender group comparisons using the Mann-Whitney U (U) Test. The results related with Organizational Justice and Job Burnout and their subdimensions are presented.

Table 4: Comparison of Gender Groups for Organizational Justice and Job Burnout

Dependent Variables	Independent Variables (Gender)	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Fair Distribution	Female	9	40.28	362.50	317.500	0.266
	Male	91	51.51	4,687.50		
Fair Procedure	Female	9	41.06	369.50	324.500	0.304
	Male	91	51.43	4,680.50		
Fair Interaction	Female	9	41.78	376.00	331.000	0.343
	Male	91	51.36	4,674.00		
Organizational Justice	Female	9	40.33	363.00	318.000	0.270
	Male	91	51.51	4,687.00		
Emotional Exhaustion	Female	9	51.61	464.50	399.500	0.904
	Male	91	50.39	4,585.50		
Depersonalization	Female	9	52.83	475.50	388.500	0.800
	Male	91	50.27	4,574.50		
Personal Achievement	Female	9	57.06	513.50	350.500	0.476
	Male	91	49.85	4,536.50		
Burnout	Female	9	56.61	509.50	354.500	0.507
	Male	91	49.90	4,540.50		

This table shows the analysis results by Gender for Organizational Justice and Job Burnout and theirs subdimensions through Mann-Whitney U Test. Fair Distribution, Fair Procedure, Fair Interaction, Organizational Justice, Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, Personal Achievement and Burnout scores do not vary depending on the gender using p>0.05.

In Table 5 the results of comparisons of age groups through Kruskal-Wallis H Tests (X^2) related with Job Burnout and Organizational Justice and their subdimensions.

Table 5: Comparison of Age Groups for Organizational Justice and Job Burnout

Dependent Variables	Independent Variables (Age)	n	Mean Rank	X^2	p
Fair Distribution	30 and below	31	54.32	2.024	0.364
	31-35	20	42.73		
	36 and above	49	51.26		
Fair Procedure	30 and below	31	55.24	2.216	0.330
	31-35	20	42.90		
	36 and above	49	50.60		
Fair Interaction	30 and below	31	57.23	3.694	0.158
	31-35	20	41.35		
	36 and above	49	49.98		
Organizational Justice	30 and below	31	56.06	2.922	0.232
	31-35	20	41.85		
	36 and above	49	50.51		
Emotional Exhaustion	30 and below	31	43.34	3.908	0.142
	31-35	20	59.60		
	36 and above	49	51.32		
Depersonalization	30 and below	31	45.90	4.234	0.120
	31-35	20	62.15		
	36 and above	49	48.65		
Personal Achievement	30 and below	31	51.85	5.258	0.072
	31-35	20	62.28		
	36 and above	49	44.84		
Burnout	30 and below	31	45.15	7.501	0.024*
	31-35	20	66.25		
	36 and above	49	44.46		

*This table shows results of the Age Groups comparisons through Kruskal-Wallis H Test for Organizational Justice and Job Burnout and theirs subdimensions using *p<0.05. Fair Distribution, Fair Procedure, Fair Interaction, Organizational Justice, Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, Personal Achievement and Burnout group scores do not vary depending on age (p>0.05). The result shows the burnout scores of police officers vary depending on age (p<0.05). Mean burnout score rank of the police officers aged 30 and below is 45.15, and for those aged 31-35 the result is 66.25, and for those aged 36 and above 47.46.*

Table 6 shows results of comparisons of Marital Status Groups through Mann-Whitney U (U) Tests for Job Burnout and Organizational Justice and their subdimensions presented.

Table 6: Comparison of Marital Status Groups for Organizational Justice and Job Burnout

Dependent Variables	Independent Variables (Marital Status)	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Fair Distribution	Unmarried	18	48.11	866.00	695.000	0.699
	Married	82	51,02	4,184.00		
Fair Procedure	Unmarried	18	54.61	983.00	664.000	0.505
	Married	82	49.60	4,067.00		
Fair Interaction	Unmarried	18	52.86	951.50	695.500	0.702
	Married	82	49.98	4,098.50		
Organizational Justice	Unmarried	18	52.39	943.00	704.000	0.760
	Married	82	50.09	4,107.00		
Emotional Exhaustion	Unmarried	18	47.11	848.00	677.000	0.584
	Married	82	51.24	4,202.00		
Depersonalization	Unmarried	18	48.39	871.00	700.000	0.732
	Married	82	50.96	4,179.00		
Personal Achievement	Unmarried	18	57.14	1,028.50	618.500	0.282
	Married	82	49.04	4.021,50		
Burnout	Unmarried	18	50.53	909.50	737.000	0.996
	Married	82	50.49	4,140.50		

This table shows results of the Marital Status Groups Comparisons for Organizational Justice and Job Burnout and their subdimensions through Mann-Whitney U Test using p<0.05. Fair Distribution, Fair Procedure, Fair Interaction, Organizational Justice, Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, Personal Achievement and Burnout scores do not vary depending on marital status (p>0.05).

Table 7 shows results of comparisons of Serving Period Groups through Mann-Whitney U (U) Tests for Job Burnout and Organizational Justice and their subdimensions presented.

Table 7: Comparison of Serving Period Groups for Organizational Justice and Job Burnout

Dependent Variables	Independent Variables How Long Have You Been a Police Officer?	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Fair Distribution	Less than 8 years	33	52.62	1,736.50	1,035.500	0.606
	8 years and more	67	49.46	3,313.50		
Fair Procedure	Less than 8 years	33	49.67	1,639.00	1,078.000	0.840
	8 years and more	67	50.91	3,411.00		
Fair Interaction	Less than 8 years	33	49.00	1,617.00	1,056.000	0.716
	8 years and more	67	51.24	3,433.00		
Organizational Justice	Less than 8 years	33	49.83	1,644.50	1,083.500	0.872
	8 years and more	67	50.83	3,405.50		
Emotional Exhaustion	Less than 8 years	33	44.02	1,452.50	891.500	0.116
	8 years and more	67	53.69	3,597.50		
Depersonalization	Less than 8 years	33	51.85	1,711.00	1,061.000	0.743
	8 years and more	67	49.84	3,339.00		
Personal Achievement	Less than 8 years	33	58.64	1,935.00	837.000	0.048*
	8 years and more	67	46.49	3,115.00		
Burnout	Less than 8 years	33	50.32	1,660.50	1,099.500	0.965
	8 years and more	67	50.59	3,389.50		

This table shows results of the Serving Period Groups comparisons for Organizational Justice and Job Burnout and their subdimensions through Mann-Whitney U Test using p<0.05. Fair Distribution, Fair Procedure, Fair Interaction, Organizational Justice, Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, Personal Achievement and Burnout scores do not vary depending on marital status using p>0.05. The results indicate that personal achievement scores vary depending on the period of serving as a police officer * p>0.05. The mean personal achievement score rank of police officers serving less than 8 years is 58.64, while that of those serving for 8 years and more is 46.49. So, personal achievement score of police officers serving less than 8 years is higher.

Table 8 shows results of comparisons of Working Type Groups through Mann-Whitney U Tests (U) for Job Burnout and Organizational Justice and their subdimensions presented.

Table 8: Comparison of Working Type Groups for Organizational Justice and Job Burnout

Dependent Variables	Independent Variables (What *n* Is Your Working type?)		Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Fair Distribution	Only day	39	61.01	2,379.50	779.500	0.004*
	Shift work	61	43.78	2,670,50		
Fair Procedure	Only day	39	56.46	2,202.00	957.000	0.099
	Shift work	61	46.69	2,848.00		
Fair Interaction	Only day	39	52.41	2,044.00	1,115.000	0.597
	Shift work	61	49.28	3,006.00		
Organizational Justice	Only day	39	55.95	2,182.00	977.000	0.133
	Shift work	61	47.02	2,868.00		
Emotional Exhaustion	Only day	39	47.06	1,835.50	1,055.500	0.343
	Shift work	61	52.70	3,214.50		
Depersonalization	Only day	39	49.15	1,917.00	1,137.000	0.710
	Shift work	61	51.36	3,133.00		
Personal Achievement	Only day	39	45.69	1,782.00	1,002.000	0.184
	Shift work	61	53.57	3,268.00		
Burnout	Only day	39	43.94	1,713.50	933.500	0.070
	Shift work	61	54.70	3,336.50		

This table shows results of the Working Type Groups comparisons for Organizational Justice and Job Burnout and their Subdimensions through Mann-Whitney U Test using *p<0.05. Fair Procedure, Fair Interaction, Organizational Justice, Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization and Burnout scores do not vary depending on the working type using p>0.05. Fair distribution score varies depending on the working type at p>0.05. Mean fair distribution score rank of police officers working only during the day is 61.01, while that of those working shifts is 43.78. So, fair distribution score of the police officers working only during the day is higher.

In Table 9 the results of comparisons of Working Type Groups through Mann-Whitney U Tests (U) for Job Burnout and Organizational Justice and their subdimensions presented. There is a difference between police officers satisfied with their jobs and those unsatisfied with their jobs for *fair distribution score* using p<0.05. Mean score rank of those satisfied with their job is 61.45, and that of those who unsatisfied with their job is 30.17. Therefore, we conclude fair distribution scores of police officers satisfied with their job is higher. There is a difference between police officers satisfied with their job, and those unsatisfied with their job with *fair procedure* score using p<0.05. Mean score rank of those satisfied with their job is 59.91, and that of those who unsatisfied is 33.03. So, fair procedure scores of police officers satisfied with their job is higher.

There is a difference between police officers satisfied with their job, and those unsatisfied with their job for *fair interaction* score using p<0.05. Mean rank scores of those satisfied with their job is 59.67, while that of those unsatisfied with their job is 33.47. Therefore, fair interaction score of police officers satisfied with their job is higher. There is difference between police officers satisfied with their job, and those unsatisfied with their job for *organizational justice* score using p<0.05. Mean rank scores of those satisfied with their job is 61.19, while that of those unsatisfied with their job is 30.64. So, organizational justice scores of police officers satisfied with their job is higher.

There is difference between police officers satisfied with their job, and those unsatisfied with their job for *emotional exhaustion* score using p<0.05. Mean rank scores of those satisfied with their job is 42.81, while that of those unsatisfied with their job is 64.79. Therefore, emotional exhaustion score of police officers unsatisfied with their job is higher. There is difference between police officers satisfied with their job, and those unsatisfied with their job in terms of *depersonalization* score using p<0.05. Mean rank scores of those satisfied with their job is 43.61, while that of those unsatisfied with their job is 63.30. So, depersonalization score of police officers unsatisfied with their job is higher.

There is difference between police officers satisfied with their job, and those unsatisfied with their job by *personal achievement* score using p<0.05. Mean rank scores of those satisfied with their job is 44.63, while that of those unsatisfied with their job is 61.40. So, personal achievement score of police officers unsatisfied with their job is higher. There is difference between police officers satisfied with their job, and those

unsatisfied with their job in terms of *burnout* score using p<0.05. Mean rank scores of those satisfied with their job is 39.96, while that of those unsatisfied with their job is 70.07. So, *burnout* score of police officers unsatisfied with their job is higher.

Table 9: Comparison of Job Satisfaction Groups for Organizational Justice and Job Burnout

Dependent Variables	Are You Satisfied with Your Job?	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Fair Distribution	Yes	65	61.45	3,994.00	426.000	0.000*
	No	35	30.17	1,056.00		
Fair Procedure	Yes	65	59.91	3,894.00	526.000	0.000*
	No	35	33.03	1,156.00		
Fair Interaction	Yes	65	59.67	3,878.50	541.500	0.000*
	No	35	33.47	1,171.50		
Organizational Justice	Yes	65	61.19	3,977.50	442.500	0.000*
	No	35	30.64	1,072.50		
Emotional Exhaustion	Yes	65	42.81	2,782.50	637.500	0.000*
	No	35	64.79	2,267.50		
Depersonalization	Yes	65	43.61	2,834.50	689.500	0.001*
	No	35	63.30	2,215.50		
Personal Achievement	Yes	65	44.63	2,901.00	756.000	0.006*
	No	35	61.40	2,149.00		
Burnout	Yes	65	39.96	2,597.50	452.500	0.000*
	No	35	70.07	2,452.50		

*This table shows the results of the Job Satisfaction Groups comparisons for Organizational Justice and Job Burnout and their Sub dimensions through Mann-Whitney U Test using *p<0.05. Last coloumn (p) shows the Fair Distribution, Fair Procedure, Fair Interaction, Organizational Justice, Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, Personal Achievement and Burnout scores do not vary depending on-the-job satisfaction using p<0.05.*

In Table 10 the results of comparisons of "Becoming a Police Officer Again." We examine groups related to Job Burnout and Organizational Justice and their subdimensions presented using the Mann-Whitney U Tests (U).

There is no difference, in *fair interaction and personal achievement* scores, among respondents who would want to become police officers again if they were given the chance, and those who would not do so using p>0.05. There is a difference, in *fair distribution score*, among respondents who would want to become police officers again if they were given the chance, and those who would not do so using p>0.05. Mean rank scores of those who would want to become a police officer again is 61.05, while that of those who would not do so is 45.31. So, *fair distribution* score of police officers who would want to become a police officer again if they were given the chance is higher. There is a difference, at *fair procedure score*, among respondents who would want to become police officers again if they were given the chance, and those who would not do so using p>0.05. The mean rank score of those who would want to become a police officer again is 59.61, while that of those who would not do so is 46.01. Fair procedure score of police officers who would want to become a police officer again if they were given the chance is higher.

There is a difference, in *organizational justice* score, among respondents who would want to become police officers again if they were given the chance, and those who would not do so using p>0.0. Mean rank scores of those who would want to become a police officer again is 58.95, while that of those who would not do so is 46.34. So, organizational justice score of police officers who would want to become a police officer again if they were given the chance is higher. There is a difference, at *emotional exhaustion score*, among respondents who would want to become police officers again if they were given the chance, and those who would not do so using p>0.05. Mean rank scores of those who would want to become a police officer again is 35.02, while that of those who would not do so is 58.13. So, emotional exhaustion score of police officers who would not want to become a police officer again if they were given the chance is higher. There is a difference, at *depersonalization score*, among respondents who would want to become police officers again

if they were given the chance, and those who would not do so using p>0.05. Mean rank scores of those who would want to become a police officer again is 42.29, while that of those who would not do so is 54.54.

Table 10: Comparison of "Becoming a Police Officer Again" Groups for Organizational Justice and Burnout

Dependent Variables	Would You Want to Be a Police Officer Again?	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Fair Distribution	Yes	33	61.05	2,014.50	757.500	0.010*
	No	67	45.31	3,035.50		
Fair Procedure	Yes	33	59.61	1,967.00	805.000	0.027*
	No	67	46.01	3,083,.00		
Fair Interaction	Yes	33	55.92	1,845.50	926.500	0.188
	No	67	47.83	3,204.50		
Organizational Justice	Yes	33	58.95	1,945.50	826.500	0.041*
	No	67	46.34	3,104.50		
Emotional Exhaustion	Yes	33	35.02	1,155.50	594.500	0.000*
	No	67	58.13	3,894.50		
Depersonalization	Yes	33	42.29	1,395.50	834.500	0.046*
	No	67	54.54	3,654.50		
Personal Achievement	Yes	33	47.12	1,555.00	994.000	0.412
	No	67	52.16	3,495.00		
Burnout	Yes	33	35.44	1,169.50	608.500	0.000*
	No	67	57.92	3,880.50		

This table shows results of the "wish to be a police officer again" groups comparisons related to Organizational Justice and Job Burnout and their subdimensions through Mann-Whitney U Test (*p<0.05). The last column (p) shows the Fair Distribution, Fair Procedure, Organizational Justice, Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Burnout scores do not vary depending on participants responses who would want to become police officers using p<0.05. Fair Interaction, Personel Achievement scores vary depending on the want to become a police officer again using p>0.05.

The depersonalization score of police officers who would not want to become a police officer again if they were given the chance is higher. There is a difference, in burnout score, among respondents who would want to become police officers again if they were given the chance, and those who would not do so using p>0.05. Mean rank scores of those who would want to become a police officer again is 35.44, while that of those who would not do so is 57.92. So, burnout score of police officers who would not want to become a police officer again if they were given the chance is higher.

CONCLUSION AND COMMENTS

It is certain that disagreement will appear in organizations where there are differences between the values of the organization and the values of employees or where no adherence is observed to the specified organization objectives. Such a disagreement between the values of the organization and those of employees usually leads to the circumstance where the individual wants to leave the organization. On the other hand, employees' view of fair application of the rules and procedures to everyone also bears a significant influence on their wish honored to work in that organization or to have the intent to quit the job. The study tries to identify the relationship between organizational justice and burnout in professional life yielding following findings.

Looking into the relationship between organizational justice and burnout in professional life, the ratio of male respondents to the survey is 91%, the ratio of those 36 years old and above is 49%, the ratio of those married is 82%, the ratio of those serving for 8 years and more is 67%, the ratio of those who work shifts is 61%, the ratio of those who satisfied with their job is 65%, and the ratio of those who would want to be a police officer again if he were given the chance to chose is 67%. The results of the study show a strong positive correlation between *fair distribution scores* and *fair procedure* and *interaction scores of police officers, and a strong correlation between fair distribution scores* and organizational justice scores.

There is strong positive correlation between fair procedure scores and organizational justice scores. A strong positive correlation between fair interaction scores and organizational justice scores of the police officers was evident in the data.

The survey results displayed an intermediate positive correlation between emotional exhaustion scores and depersonalization scores of police officers. No correlation was found between emotional exhaustion scores and personal achievement scores. There is a strong positive correlation between emotional exhaustion scores and burnout scores. The research also showed a weak positive correlation between depersonalization scores and personal achievement scores of the police officers. There is a strong positive correlation between depersonalization scores and burnout scores. On the other hand, an intermediate positive correlation is found to exist between personal achievement scores and burnout scores of the police officers.

Another part of the research examines the existence of an intermediate negative correlation between organizational justice scores and burnout scores of the police officers. Organizational justice score decreases as the burnout score increases. The results of the research displayed that fair distribution, fair procedure, fair interaction, organizational justice, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal achievement and burnout scores do not vary depending on the gender. It is also found that fair distribution, fair procedure, fair interaction, organizational justice, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal achievement scores do not vary depending on age.

These results point out an important implication for management. Studies carried out in any public and private sector organization must preserve and improve organizational image, efficiency and effectiveness. However, if failure occurs at the end of these efforts in paying attention to the managerial practices and setting up fair systems within the organization, this will mainly have a negative impact on employees' job satisfaction and their outlook on the business organization. If precautions are not taken, this may lead to burnout and quitting the job in the long run. In conclusion, setting up an organization environment and atmosphere where employees can freely express themselves, actively take part in social activities, and where a fair and calibrated scale of justice is properly extended across all processes of the business establishment will prove to be one of the efficient methods for employees to cope with long-term stress.

The research includes some limits. First, the sample population creates a limit. Respondents to the research are public servants. This does not allow the possibility of a comparison between the public and private sector. Moreover, choosing these servants from only a single occupational group (police officers) is a limitation. The correlation among different occupational groups may appear differently. Future researches will contribute to a better understanding of correlation among data earned by using a similar model in different occupational groups with long-term observations. The research was conducted on a sample population in a certain region. A similar study based on data from long-term observation in multiple regions, dominated by different environmental conditions, will help forming a better understanding the relationships among the variables.

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EVALUATION OF NEW GENERIC TOP LEVEL DOMAINS FROM A BRAND AND A TRADEMARK PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT

This study explains the positive branding effects and the trademark-related risks of the New Generic Top-Level Domain (NGTLD) program. It can be shown that Associative Network Memory Theory explains why the connection of the brand with a suitable generic NGTLD can increase brand awareness. Additionally, the Signaling Theory can explain why brand (and some generic) NGTLDs can be used as signals. Brand NGTLDs can be used to protect the brand from negative influences by third parties in the digital world. This study compares the chances and the risks of NGTLDs and recommends a strategy, which should minimize the trademark-related risks for brand owners. An extensive survey of prior literature was applied, as were interviews with a sample of 10 experts who were involved in the decision and the application process for NGTLDs.

JEL: M31, M37, O34, O32

KEYWORDS: Brands, Trademarks, New Generic Top-Level Domain, NGTLD, Internet, Online-Marketing

INTRODUCTION

The introduction of New Generic Top Level Domains (NGTLDs) could fundamentally change the Internet as we know it (Prahl & Null, 2011), since it allows companies and organizations to secure a top-level domain. For example, instead of registering "www.example.com" one can register "www.domainname.example". The NGTLD owner can exclude others from registering second level domains (SLDs) under its NGTLD (gTLD Applicant Guidebook, 2012). A total of 1930 applications for NGTLDS were submitted, from which 1293 are still being processed and 395 were already granted. The advantages and disadvantages of the program are currently the subject of intense discussion. On the one hand, there are arguments that NGTLDs will improve marketing relations with customers, as said customers will perceive the brand's NGTLD as source of trustworthy information, and that trademark infringement will decrease because of the implemented dispute resolution policies (Sisun, 2009). On the other hand, the Association of National Advertisers (2011) states that the costs of NGTLDs do not justify a more than doubtful additional value for brand owners. Additionally, there might be an increasing risk of infringement problems through second-level domains registered under the NGTLD (Prahl & Null, 2011).

However, the brand theories mentioned above have not been examined yet on whether they could be applied to NGTLDs, or whether they are able to examine possible benefits of NGTLDs. The introduction of NGTLDs will bring new changes for trademark owners, but it is unclear whether NGTLDs will be perceived as intellectual property. Given the potential branding benefits and the evaluation from a trademark perspective, there is no comprehensive judgment on the chances and risks of NGTLDs yet. This leads to the following main research questions: Are major branding theories applicable to NGTLDs? What are the

trademark-related consequences of NGTLDs? How do European companies perceive the opportunities and risks of NGTLDs?

There is a rather broad body of research on the benefits of brands. But, with the exception of Murphy, Raffa, & Mizerski (2003) who examined domain names as a branding tool, additional research in this field is rare. In particular, the branding possibilities of NGTLDs have not been researched properly to this day. There are several studies that examine the relation between trademarks and domains. Some evaluate domains from a trademark perspective (Lee, 2001; Phillips, 2003), some include the registering process (Chaudri, 2007), and others highlight the conflicts between domains and trademarks (Marinković, 2012; O'Regan & Snyder, 2004) as well as the dispute solving mechanisms of ICANN and WIPO (Samuels & Samuels, 2003). There are also studies that assess the risks of NGTLDs to trademark owners (Alramahi, 2010; Prahl & Null, 2011) or analyze the application procedure for NGTLDs. But until now, there has been no research on whether NGTLDs are perceived as a way to protect brands from the influence of third parties in the digital world. Finally, there is no comparison of the branding benefits with trademark-related risks.

Therefore, we will first introduce the NGTLD. Afterwards, we will give a definition of brands and explain their role for customers. The following section discusses the implications of brands in the consumer decision process. Next, we will give an overview of the most important theories that offer an explanation for these effects. We will illustrate how the role of brands can only be fulfilled, if they are protected from interference by third parties. We will therefore discuss trademarks as a way of protecting brands in the offline world and NGTLDs as their counterpart in the online word. The structure of the theoretical foundation can be seen in Figure 1. In the empirical part of this study we will first explain the methodology, then present the results of interviews with experts. Finally, we will draw conclusions and make suggestions for further research.

Figure 1: Structure of the Theoretical Portion of the Work
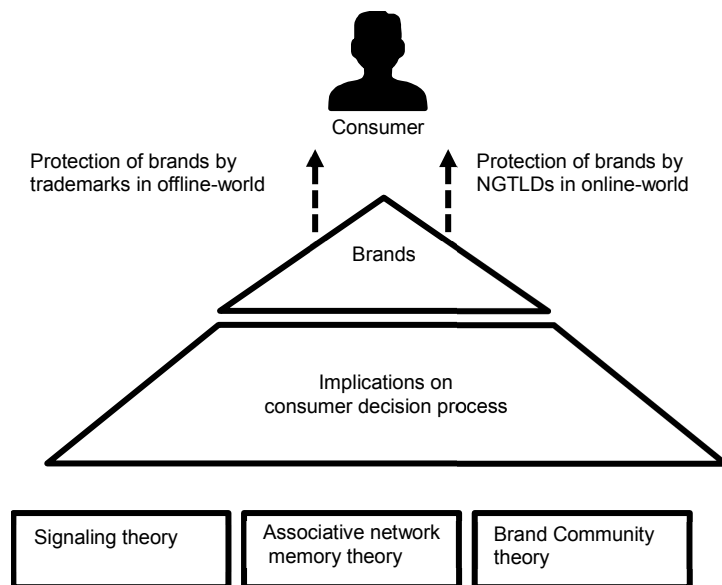
This Figure shows theoretical structure of the work. The Signaling theory, the associative network memory theory and the Brand community theory offer explanations for the various implications of brands on the consumer decision process. Trademarks protect brands from the interference of third parties in the offline World and NGTLD may offer a similar protection in the online word.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction to the New Generic Top-Level Domain Program

In order to properly evaluate NGTLDs, we will present the main features of the NGTLD program in this section. In the first application round, there were 1,930 applications for 1409 different NGTLDs (ICANN, 2013a). These numbers indicate an overwhelming interest from some companies. A survey of FairWinds Partners (2012) states that 74% of the companies questioned were not aware of the NGTLD program. Therefore, we will give a brief introduction to the NGTLD program in this section. NGTLDs can be classified in two basic categories: the community-based and the standard NGTLDs (gTLD Applicant Guidebook, 2012). An applicant for a community-based NGTLD is required to "demonstrate an ongoing relationship with a clearly delineated community" (gTLD Applicant Guidebook, 2012). If the application is not able to meet this requirement, it is referred to as a standard NGTLD (gTLD Applicant Guidebook, 2012). The main advantage of community NGTLDs is that they are preferred over standard NGTLDs. Although it is not a category by itself, internationalized top-level domains allow the registration of NGTLDs which consist of non-Latin letters (gTLD Applicant Guidebook, 2012). NGTLDs can be further divided into 3 sub-categories: brand NGTLDs, geographic NGTLDs and generic NGTLDs. A brand NGTLD contains or consists of a trademark or company symbol like ".bmw". Geographic NGTLDs can indicate certain regions or cities like ".bayern". Companies could benefit from the reputation or pride of a region (Leong & Valdes, 2011). The last subcategory describes NGTLDs that consist of generic terms like ".app". The classification of NGTLDs is illustrated in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Classification of NGTLDs
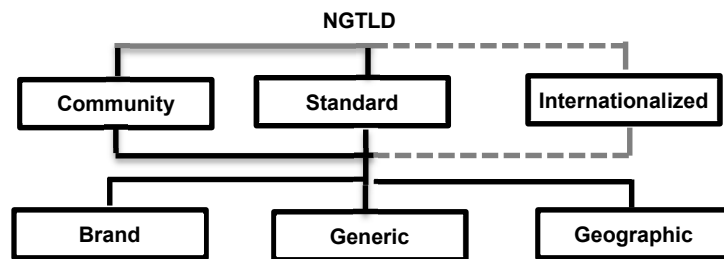
Applicants have to go through a difficult application process. The applicant must answer fifty questions, which require approximately 250 pages of documents (gTLD Applicant Guidebook, 2012). Through these measures, ICANN seeks to ensure the stability of the Internet by verifying that the applicant has the necessary requirements for operating a NGTLD (Corporation Service Company, 2009).

An applicant has to invest between $500,000 and $1,000,000 over the first two years of implementing and operating the NGTLDs (Corporation Service Company, 2009). These costs do not include the marketing expenses, which will also be necessary in order to distribute the NGTLD to consumers. There are many other indirect costs, which have to be taken into consideration (Leong & Valdes, 2011). To conclude, in order to possess a private top-level domain (TLD) it is necessary to complete a complex, long-lasting and expensive application process.

Definition of Brands and Brand Elements

A brand is traditionally defined as a name, term, design, symbol, or any other feature that identifies one seller's good or service as distinct from those of other sellers (Keller, 2008). This definition highlights the differentiation function of brands and is very similar to the definition of trademarks.

Brands create a relationship with customers. They emphasize the trustworthy relationship between branded goods and services and the customer (Linxweiler & Siegle, 2011). Thus, brands are not only seen as a way to distinguish products and services: they should also create a favorable presence in the minds of customers (Aaker, 1991). In a broader context, brands can be seen as commercial signatures, which enable companies to achieve, reinforce and obtain several marketing objectives (Mendonça, Pereira, & Godinho, 2004). This definition is more in line with the increased significance of brands and will be used throughout this work. In order to achieve these various goals, the marketer can choose between brand elements. These in turn can be defined as "trademarkable devices that serve to identify and differentiate the brand. The main ones are brand names, URLs, logos, symbols, characters, spokespeople, slogans, jingles packages and signage" (Keller, 2008, p. 140). Therefore, NGTLDs, and especially branded NGTLDs, are treated as a brand element in this study.

The Impact of Strong Brands on the Consumer Decision-Making Process

In order to evaluate the branding possibilities of NGTLDs, one has to be able to measure their impact on the consumer decision-making process. This section presents a literature overview of the effects of strong brands. Later, in the empirical section, it will be analyzed which of those effects can also be seen in the context of NGTLDs. The positive effects of strong brands influence consumers in their perception of product attributes, their willingness to pay, their reception of marketing-related measures and their perception of brand extensions, which are discussed in the next sections.

A product or service consists of several tangible and intangible attributes and benefits (Hoeffler & Keller, 2003). Brands can influence the perception of those attributes and furthermore affect the evaluation of the benefits. Brown & Dacin (1997) proved empirically that corporate associations affect the product responses. According to their observations, reactions to the company's products depend highly on consumers' prior knowledge of the company. This relationship can be influenced by company's branding strategy (Berens, van Riel, Cees, & van Bruggen, 2005). The consumer is often not able to analyze the product performance in advance of the buying decision and therefore has to rely on extrinsic cues. Studies have identified brand names, store names, price, warranties, advertising, word-of-mouth reports and past experience as important extrinsic cues (Dodds, Monroe, & Grewal, 1991; Jacoby, Olson, & Haddock, 1971; Rao, Qu, & Ruekert, 1999).

This section focuses on the positive effects of brands on customers' willingness to pay. There are two important aspects of this effect: first, the ability to charge higher prices and secondly, the ability to be more resistant to price changes by unbranded competitors. Many studies prove that companies with strong brand names are able to charge a price premium in comparison to an unbranded competitor (Agarwal & Rao, 1996; Fischer, Völckner, & Sattler, 2010). This effect can even be achieved if the unbranded competitor closes the quality gap (Sethuraman, 2001), which shows that the price differences cannot be explained by the difference in quality. Another interesting finding is that brand extensions are able to achieve a higher price premium if the awareness of the parent brand is increased (Sattler, Völckner, Riediger, & Ringle, 2010). In addition to the mere price premium, the quantity of sales of high-quality brands is less vulnerable when higher prices are being charged (Sivakumar & Raj, 1997). Furthermore, Sivakumar shows that high-quality brands are resistant to price promotions of low quality brands. Other studies have identified that brand credibility decreases price sensitivity (Aaker, 1991; Erdem & Swait, 2004). Therefore, consumers are not only willing to pay more for branded products: their increased willingness to pay is also less affected by external effects.

Consumers are constantly exposed to advertising or other measures through which companies try to convey their message. If the amount of competing advertising increases in a given product category, it will be more difficult for the customer to recall one brand (Keller, 1991). He experiences difficulties especially in remembering particular product information from new brands. A number of studies show that brands

influence the reception of marketing communication and ultimately the ability to recall the content of those marketing measures. Campbell & Keller (2003), for example, state that the consumer has to process the advertising of an unfamiliar brand more extensively. Kent & Allen (1997) show in their study that advertisements of strong brands are more likely to be recalled and are less affected by competitive advertisements. Furthermore, brands that exhibit high brand loyalty require less advertising in comparison with brands with less loyal customers (Agrawal, 1996; Raj, 1982).

"Brand extension is a marketing practice that uses an established brand name in one category to introduce products in totally different categories" (Choi, 1998). This means that consumers transfer characteristics of the parent brand to the brand extension (Hakenes & Peitz, 2008). Hakenes & Peitz therefore suggest that consumers are able to draw conclusions from the perceived quality of one product to another product. Thus, brand extensions can serve as a way to overcome informational asymmetry by using the reputation of the parent brand (Tauber, 1988). Laforet & Saunders (1994) offer a framework for organizing the different brand extension strategies.

There is a broad body of literature which shows that brand extensions can serve as a cost-effective way to leverage the positive brand effects of the parent brand (Aaker & Keller, 1990; Choi, 1998; Kirmani, Sood, & Bridges, 1999; Rangaswamy, Burke, & Oliva, 1993; Tauber, 1988). The reputation of the parent brand has a substantial influence on the demand for the products of the extended brand (Sullivan, 1998).

But there are also certain concerns that brand extensions could dilute the parent brands. In particular, this would apply if there was a high similarity between the brands, and the consumer had a negative experience with the brand extension (Keller & Lehmann, 2006; Sood & Keller, 2012). Nevertheless, strong brands seem to be fairly immune to those dilution effects (Morrin, 1999).

Underlying Branding Theories

In this next section, after exemplifying the possible impacts of NGTLDs on the consumer decision process, we will introduce the following three major streams of research which explain the important role of brands in the consumer decision process: the psychology-based approach, which is mainly formed by the economic-based approach, where brands are considered to be a *signal* to reduce uncertainty; *associative network models*; and the sociology-based approach, where *brand communities* represent the main research field (Keller, 2002). These theories might offer explanations for positive branding effects of NGTLDs.

Often the quality of a product cannot be fully evaluated prior to its purchase (Nelson, 1970). Accordingly, the consumer is often exposed to imperfect and asymmetric information about product attributes and benefits. He needs a mechanism by which he can quickly receive credibly information (Erdem & Swait, 1998; Jacoby et al., 1971). Furthermore, Erdem & Swait (1998) suggest that the brand can be considered as a credible *signal* for product attributes. According to them, a brand signal "embodies (or symbolizes) a firm's past and present marketing strategies" (Erdem & Swait, 1998) and therefore influences consumer evaluation of product attributes (Erdem et al., 2002). Other studies have been able to support this framework (Erdem, Swait, & Valenzuela, 2006). But in order to act as an information source for consumers, the credibility of the product information must be ensured (Swait & Erdem, 2007). Brands are able to reduce uncertainty and therefore lower information costs and the perceived risks of consumers (Erdem & Swait, 1998; Keller, 2008; Montgomery & Wernerfelt, 1992). Fischer et al. (2010) explain this by saying that brands create confidence in the expected product performance. Hence, the consumer is able to evaluate the quality of products by viewing the brand rather than examining every product in detail (Phillips, 2003). Finally, the advertising expenditure can also act as a signal of high quality (Rao et al., 1999).

The *associative network model* defines knowledge as a simple network of nodes, which are connected by links (Anderson, 1996). Whether the nodes are linked directly or indirectly determines the strength of these

associations (Dimofte & Yalch, 2011). This model can also be applied to explain the organization of brand knowledge. The brand name can be seen as "a brand node in memory with a variety of associations linked to it" (Keller, 2008). This way, consumers can store brand related information around the brand name (Sen, 1999). The retention of this information can be increased by reinforcing the associations between the brand name and the brand information (Baker, 2003). Because strong brands own more established knowledge structures, they increase the likelihood that the links will be associated only with their brand (Hoeffler & Keller, 2003). The main task of this cognitive structure is to distinguish between the various products and services (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987).

A *brand community* is defined as a "specialized, non-geographically bound community based on a structured set of social relations among admirers of a brand" (Muniz & O'Guinn, 2001). This theory extends the understanding of brands by a social component. Brands can be seen as "social objects" which are also created by the consumers (Muniz & O'Guinn, 2001). This is why brands can be seen as humanized or personalized partners in a relationship, which can be formed with consumers (Fournier, 1998). This also explains why consumers are able to define a brand by personality characteristics (Aaker, 1997). People can share cognitive, emotional or material resources through communities (McAlexander, Schouten, & Koenig, 2002). Brand communities can be further characterized by four basic features: "shared consciousness, rituals, traditions, and a sense of moral responsibility" (Muniz & O'Guinn, 2001). One can furthermore distinguish between social network, impression management, community engagement and brand use as common practices in brand communities. Social network practices concentrate on "creating, enhancing, and sustaining ties among brand community members" (Schau et al., 2009). Impression management tries to create positive associations with the brand (Schau et al., 2009). Community engagement practices are those which encourage members to intensify their engagement with the brand community (Schau et al., 2009). Finally, brand use practices are designed to lead to improved usage of the brand concerned (Schau et al., 2009).

Protection of Brands by Trademarks in the Offline World

In this section we will show that the positive impact of brands can only reach the customer if the brand is protected from negative interference by third parties, so that the consumer can trust the brand. Furthermore, we will show that trademarks carry out this role in the offline world. "A trademark is a distinctive sign that identifies certain goods or services produced or provided by an individual or a company" (WIPO, 2004). The sign can consist of graphics, words, designs, letters, shape or packaging of goods, as long as it is capable to distinguish the goods of two companies (Council of the European Union, 1993).

Trademarks therefore serve as "a badge of origin" for goods and services (Phillips, 2003). In order to fulfill the task of distinguishing products and services of companies it must be ensured that trademarks do not lose their distinctiveness. For this reason, European trademark law ensures that generic words or signs cannot be registered (Council of the European Union, 1993, Art. 7). But even if a trademark was successfully registered, if it becomes generic over time, the trademark protection instantly vanishes (Landes & Posner, 1987). Another major reason for the denial of registration is that the trademark concerned could possibly mislead consumers (Mendonça et al., 2004). The avoidance of descriptive terms or generic terms is surely the opposite of what common branding literature recommends (George, 2006). As mentioned before, the common advice is to connect the brand with positive associations and secure product categories in the minds of consumers.

Trademarks therefore ensure that brands can act as a way of reducing consumer search costs by embodying information about the brand (Landes & Posner, 1987). By ensuring the origin of the product or service, trademarks reduce the need for constant assessments of products (Malmberg, 2005).

This particular function of brands can only be performed if there is no distraction from third parties. Trademarks are furthermore exclusive rights, which enable the trademark owner to control their use on products or services (Council of the European Union, 1993; Phillips, 2003) and therefore limit competitors from infringing on successful brands (Besen & Raskind, 1991). Phillips (2003, p. 641) describes trademarks as "the legal anchor, which protects the brand from drifting away from its owner's control." Trademarks establish the foundations for marketing activities (Besen & Raskind, 1991).

Trademarks are closely linked to brands. Nevertheless, the first important difference is that a brand can be protected by a combination of several trademarks (Mendonça et al., 2004). But the main difference is that brands are to be more encompassing, as they also include the commercial use of trademarks (Malmberg, 2005). In this sense, a trademark symbolizes an abstract value, which can be exploited by branding activities. Brands can be seen as a way to transfer the most important benefits of the product or service to consumers (Mendonça et al., 2004). The desired images can be attached to trademarks (Economides, 1988). Trademarks can serve as a carrier of information in the communication with consumers (Malmberg, 2005). After the legal registration and publication of a trademark, its owner can prevent third parties from applying the trademark to goods or packaging, offering goods or services under the protected sign, importing or exporting goods under the sign and using the mark on business papers or in advertisements (Council of the European Union, 1993). This applies to identical or comparable signs in the same field of goods or services, if there is an increased likelihood of confusion or association (Chaudri, 2007; Phillips, 2003). These rights can be enforced through specific regional courts, as determined by the legislature.

Protection of Brands by NGTLDs in the Online World

Domain names can be defined as "strings of letters and/or numbers, which correspond to the numerical Internet Protocol addresses (IP address) of computers on the Internet" (Chaudri, 2007, p. 62). They can be considered as a more user-friendly form of IP addresses (Marinković, 2012). Every computer has its own unique IP address, through which it is able to connect to the Internet. So instead of having to remember a cryptic number, such as 183.17.432.1.59, the domain name system DNS allows users to access a website through a memorable domain name (Chaudri, 2007). Therefore, the DNS "is the underlying system on which the Internet functions" (Marinković, 2012, p. 29).

But with the increased importance of Internet domain names, they have become more than just identifiers of web sites. A court recognized that they are used as a 'shop facade', which attracts potential customers (Phillips, 2003, p. 574). They act as business identifiers and therefore have a similar function as trademarks (Marinković, 2012). A court has even considered them to act as "designation of origin and a symbol of goodwill" (Patel & Saha, 2008).

The separation between trademarks and domain names has become increasingly blurred in recent years. Domain names can consist of or contain trademarks and many brands are recognized by their domain names (Prahl & Null,2011). We have noted above that domain names can have functions similar to those of trademarks. But in order to fully meet the requirements of trademarks, domains have to serve as an "indicator of goods and services" and not only as "business identifiers". Most domains, however, fail to do so (Marinković, 2012). Unlike trademarks, domain names are not limited to certain products and services (Marinković, 2012). Domain names can contain descriptive or generic terms. In contrast with trademarks, which can be annulled if they are not used in the registered product or service category, a domain name stays registered as long as it is valid and is getting renewed (Marinković, 2012). Often interests of trademark holders collide with those of domain name owners. For example, well-known trademarks are popular targets for cybersquatting- or typosquatting attacks. Another example is the registration of domain names that criticize the practices of trademark owners. In this case, the trademark owner has to accept the existence of the insulting domain name, as long as it does not give users the impression that they actually landed on the trademark owner's website (Phillips, 2003).

Whether NGTLDs provide an improved protection for trademark owners on the Internet is the subject of an intense debate. The World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO, 2005) already had major concerns about the rights of trademark owners when the discussion was only about allowing seven additional GTLDs. In their report, they came to the conclusion that the expansion of GLTDs will inevitably lead to an increase of infringing applications and thereby force trademark owners to take additional preventive measures. The International Trademark Association raised those concerns in a hearing in front of a sub-committee of the House of Representatives (Stark, 2011). It demanded stronger protection of intellectual property in the Applicant Guidebook. Also, in a report commissioned by ICANN itself, these concerns were confirmed (Katz, Rosston, & Sullivan, 2010). ICANN responded and added the following protection mechanisms into the Applicant Guidebook.

The first layer of protection is the Public Objection and Dispute Resolution Process. This process is designed to enable right holders to file an objection before the NGTLD is put into use. Qualifying conditions include a String Confusion Objection, if the applied-for NGTLD is confusingly similar to existing NGTLDs, a Legal Rights Objection, if the applied-for NGTLD violates the legal rights of the objector, a Limited Public Interest Objection, if the applied-for NGTLD violates generally accepted legal norms of morality and public order, or a Community Objection, if there is significant disapproval of the NGTLD from a great portion of the community at whom the gTLD string may be explicitly or implicitly targeted (gTLD Applicant Guidebook, 2012). Secondly, the Post-Delegation Dispute Resolution Proceedings are designed to enable right holders to file a complaint after the NGTLD is put into use. This measure applies if (a) the complainant sees the distinctive character or the reputation of its trademark endangered by the use of the NGTLD or (b) if a SLD of the NGTLD owner causes the same legal consequence. This should especially address cases of cybersquatting attacks (ICANN, 2012, § 6.1 - 6.2). Another protection mechanism is the Trademark Clearinghouse. This can be described as a central database where trademark owners can register their word mark (gTLD Applicant Guidebook, 2012). The operator of a NGTLD is committed to give enlisted trademark owners the chance to register a SLD within a 30-day sunrise period before the launch of a NGTLD. After the launch of the NGTLD the Trademark Claim Service ensures that the new SLDs are automatically compared with the brands that have been stored in the Trademark Clearinghouse. If an identical match occurs, the registrant and the trademark owner are notified immediately. This period must last for at least 60 days after the general public can register the SLD (gTLD Applicant Guidebook, 2012). Lastly, the Uniform Rapid Suspension (URS) is a simplified version of the Uniform Domain-Name Dispute Resolution Policy (UDRP) process and is intended to grant trademark holders an affordable legal protection by temporarily blocking a domain (ICANN, 2013b).

In addition to the newly created measures, conventional measures like an extrajudicial UDRP process (ICANN, 1999) or legal action at national level is also possible. Given the various protection measures, the main concern of trademark holders is not the NGTLD program itself, but rather the possible infringement of their rights by SLDs registered under NGTLDs (Prahl & Null, 2011). Many studies state that costs for monitoring and protecting a brand on the Internet will rise after the launch of NGTLDs (Katz et al., 2010; WIPO, 2005). But there is also no doubt that a company that owns a NGTLD has full control over it and can decide whether SLDs are allocated at all, and if so, can set up the conditions for SLD applicants (gTLD Applicant Guidebook, 2012).

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

After setting out the theoretical fundament of this study, the next section will deal with empirical verification. Therefore, we will start to explain the method used in this process. As already mentioned, NGTLDs have not yet been simultaneously investigated from a branding and trademark perspective. This field of research has not drawn the attention of many researchers yet. Although many NGTLDs have already been approved by the ICANN, none of them have been used in practice to date.

A qualitative approach seems to be more appropriate to generate new theories or ideas and to analyze their causal mechanisms. This method is also used to gain a deeper understanding of certain correlations. Expert interviews can provide a first overview of a new or unclear research field, help to structure that research field and generate new hypotheses. As such, expert interviews can be used as explorative tool, which offers additional information and helps illustrate or comment on statements of researchers on the object of study. Expert interviews can be defined as a systematic way of gaining access to the exclusive knowledge of experts. Whether a potential interview partner should be regarded as an expert depends on their comprehensive experience within the object of research. In this case, experts are intellectual property attorneys, branding managers or consultants who were involved in the decision- and the application process for NGTLDs. Expert interviews are conducted with the help of semi-structured guidelines. This aims to create a natural conversation and enables interviewer to ask ad hoc questions and receive a full reply. Therefore an expert interview can also be described as a process of spontaneous operationalization (Hopf, 1978).

The guideline used for the interviews was created by applying the "SPSS Principle" suggested by Helfferich (2010). She suggests the following steps to develop an interview guideline: Collecting questions, reviewing the questions, sorting the remaining questions and subsuming questions. The aim of the first step is to collect a large number of questions relevant to the research topic. In the next step, the results of the first brainstorming sessions are reviewed for their relevance to answer the research questions. Questions demonstrating too much redundancy or those not suited for generating open answers or narrations are removed as well. Afterwards, the questions are subordinated to topics. Finally, the resulting questions have to be formulated in a narrative way in order to achieve a natural conversation flow during interviews.

The overall aim of this study is to evaluate the NGTLDs from a branding and trademark perspective with the purpose of deriving recommendations for the online branding strategy of companies. For this purpose, the interview set should consist of specialists from different disciplines who all were involved in evaluating the NGTLDs for their companies. Consequently, patent attorneys, managers of intellectual property departments, brand managers and consultants can serve as interviewees as can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1: Overview of Interviewed Experts

Company	Details	Country
Marketing Consultancy	Represents car manufacturers	Germany
Marketing Consultancy	Represents financial, travel, car and media companies	Switzerland, Denmark
Industrial Gas and Engineering	Applicant for Brand NGTLD	Germany
Automobile Driver Association	Applicant for Brand NGTLD	Germany
Pharmaceutical company	Applicant for Brand NGTLD	Germany
Registry of a CCTLD	Represents several major CCLDs	Germany
Regional Telephone & Internet provider	Applicant for geographic NGTLD	Germany
Intellectual Property Attorney 1	Large international law	Germany
Intellectual Property Attorney 2	Medium sized law firm	Germany
Intellectual Property Attorney 3	Medium sized law firm	Germany

This table gives an overview of the experts being interviewed. The marketing consultants represent several major companies. All Intellectual Property attorneys are renowned experts in field of NGTLDs. Although the headquarters of the companies are mainly in Germany, they often operate internationally.

The first step was to limit research with the help of the ICANN database {ICANN #260I} to companies that applied for NGTLDs or advised them. Next, potential discussion partners were identified with the help of the ICANN database, Xing, LinkedIn, and brochures of NGTLD conventions. Out of the 71 potential interviewees who were contacted, we were able to conduct ten interviews in the period of August and November 2013. In order to create a foundation of trust and to increase the willingness of sharing, classified information results and company names were anonymized. The interviews were conducted by telephone.

The results of expert interviews can be seen as data which must be further analyzed. Therefore, we conducted a qualitative content analysis to extract the required information in a systematic manner. The aim of the analysis of expert interviews is the theoretical generalization of knowledge and behavior patterns, attitudes and principals of the experts. Therefore, we applied the following steps for analyzing expert interviews: Transcription, Paraphrasing, Headings, Thematic Comparison, Conceptualization, and Generalization. In the first step, the tape recordings were transcribed. Since all of the interviews were conducted in German, this step also included the translation to English.

RESULTS

The interview began with an introductory question. This question was meant to create a pleasant atmosphere and uncover further details of the interviewee. During the first interview block, we sought to find out how NGTLDs can influence the consumer decision process. The following three blocks consisted of questions that addressed whether the Signaling Theory, the Associative Network Theory or the Brand Community Theory are applicable to NGTLDs, and if so, whether they offer an explanation for positive branding effects. These sections were followed by questions to analyze trademark related effects and the brand protection function of NGTLDs. Finally, the interviewees were asked to evaluate the NGTLDs from a trademark and a branding perspective. In this section, we present the most relevant answers, including the times they were mentioned. Please note that multiple answers were allowed. First, we asked for the effects on the consumer decision process, as can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2: Effects of NGTLDs on Consumer Decision Process

Construct	Generalized Answers	Number of Experts in Support
Influence on perception of product attributes	No direct effects, only through signaling effects	4
Influence on the willingness to pay	No effects expected	10
Influence on the reception of marketing communication	No effects expected	10
Influence on the perception of brand extensions	More cost effective management of Brand extensions and domain	2

This table gives an overview of the direct effects of NGTLDs on the consumer decision process. Most of the interviewees see no direct effects of NGTLDS on the consumer decision process but an indirect effect through positive signaling effects.

A great portion of the respondents was not able to forecast the effects of NGTLDs on the consumer decision process (3) or only expected indirect effects of NGTLDs caused by the Signaling Effect (4). None of the interviewees was able confirm a direct impact on the perception of product attributes, the willingness to pay or the effectiveness of other marketing measures. Two experts even stated that the importance of domain names as marketing tools is going to decline and that the introduction of NGTLDs cannot change this development. Nevertheless, brand NGTLDs would enable a better and more cost efficient management of brand extensions in the digital world (2), if the brand NGTLD owner implemented the concept of NGTLDs consistently and communicated it to its customers (1). In that case, it would be possible to improve the structure of the domain name portfolio and reduce the number of SLDs outside the own NGTLD (2). Many interviewees believe that the introduction of NGTLDs may lead to a reduction of information costs through improved navigation and findability of the websites concerned (4). According to the respondents, this would allow users to narrow down the search to a certain geographical area or category and by improving the positioning in search engines. But in order to see those effects, NGTLDs will require a long adoption phase (3). Next, we wished to find out whether the Associative Network Theory is able to explain whether NGTLDs can be used as a successful marketing tool. The main results can be seen in Table 3.

A majority of the respondents expect that NGTLDs can enhance the connection of brands with suitable generic NGTLDs and therefore increase brand knowledge of consumers (6). Some interviewees advised that companies ought to register strategic terms as SLDs under NGTLDs (4). But those domain names

would have to relate to the brand or product portfolio of the company. One respondent regards this procedure as normal maintenance of a domain name portfolio and does not see additional marketing benefits. He adds that positive associations are only possible if they are actively supported by the provider of NGTLDs (1). This would be the case if, for example, "advocate" was only available to licensed attorneys. For one respondent, the Signaling Effect was more important than the Association Effect. None of the interviewed companies have registered a generic NGTLD, although one company can imagine applying for generic terms, which describe their main product category. With the help of the next set of questions, we analyzed whether the Signaling Theory is applicable to NGTLDs as can be seen in Table 4.

Table 3: Associative Network Theory as an Explanation of the Effects of NGTLDs

Construct	Generalized Answers	Number of Experts in Support
Brand knowledge	Connect brand with suitable generic NGTLD will increase brand knowledge	6
Digital visibility	NGTLDs will increase digital visibility of brands	3

This table highlights the importance of the Associative Network Theory for explaining the effects of NGTLD.

Table 4: Signaling Theory as an Explanation of the Effects of NGTLDs

Construct	Generalized Answers	Number of Experts in Support
Signal of trust and consumer confidence	NGTLD can increase trust and consumer confidence	8
Quality	NGTLD can increase the perception of quality	7
Security	NGTLD can increase the perception of security	6
Authenticity	NGTLD can increase the perception of authenticity	3

This table highlights the importance of the Signaling Theory for explaining the effects of NGTLD. The signaling theory has got the strongest support of the Interviewees for explaining the effects of NGTLDs on the consumer decision process.

The vast majority of the respondents confirmed the signaling function of NGTLDs (9). They could be viewed as signals of trust and consumer confidence (8), quality (7), security (6), authenticity (3) and credibility (1). With the help of brand NGTLDs, a company can enhance the impression of an innovative and leading company (3). As large international companies will mainly use brand NGTLDs, NGTLDs can also signal solidity and global thinking (1). The Signaling Function occurs due to the fact that owners of brand NGTLDs can exclusively control all SLDs under the NGTLD. Therefore, NGTLDs could be perceived as a clearly visible badge of origin (5). An important task of companies is to ensure that consumers are protected against malicious or misleading websites and that they reach the correct websites easily. (1) Brand NGTLDs decrease the verification effort and reduce the information costs (5). It is absolutely vital that the consumer understands this function and also accepts NGTLDs as a signal (1). The owner of a brand NGTLD must fulfill this expectation and provide a secure and trustworthy environment, which offers an added value for consumers (2). Teaching the consumers how to use NGTLDs and how they can benefit from them will be a time-consuming process (1). One respondent does not believe that it is necessary to connect a quality label with a NGTLD. According to this interviewee, belonging to a quality group that verifies the individual quality criteria, is crucial.

The last interview section of the branding theory block aimed to test whether the Brand Community Theory is transferrable to NGTLDs. Brand NGTLDs can enhance the consumer relationship and brand affinity of the customer (3). This can be done by providing customers with personalized SLDs where they receive product information (3). Thereby, consumers can use their personal website to show their affinity for the brand (1) or to form their own brand community (1). Another advantage of NGTLDs is their ability to control the flow of information and to target the stakeholders more accurately (1). This could be used by

companies, which have diverse stakeholders. Additionally, geographic NGTLDs signal the firm's belonging to a certain region and appreciating of certain values (1). Owning an NGTLD alone does not change the relationship with the customer (2). Hence, from a technical point of view, there will be no difference between starting a brand community with or without an NGTLD (1). Brand communities that are supported by NGTLDs can lead to shorter domain names and enable to better express the affinity with the brand (2) (Table 5).

Table 5: Brand Community Theory as an Explanation of the Effects of NGTLDs

Construct	Generalized Answers	Number of Experts in Support
Consumer Engagement	Can enhance consumer relationship and engagement	3
Brand Community	NGTLD will be used to improve the formation of brand communities	1

This table underlines that the Brand Community Theory cannot be used to explain positive effects of NGTLDs on the consumer decision process

The next interview block dealt with trademark-related consequences of the introduction of NGTLDs. The respondents give numerous descriptions that would describe the legal status of NGTLDs. These were defined as name space (3), world trademark (2) "buying a piece of the internet" (1), intellectual property (1), "Universal-Trademark" (1). Those paraphrases emphasize the exclusion (2) or the monopoly function of a NGTLD (2).

The impact of cyber- and typosquatting attacks was expected to decline for brand NGTLD owners when the NGTLD is fully implemented. (3) But this depends on how fast the company is able to teach their customers that their NGTLD serves as a badge of origin (1). If brand NGTLD owners succeed in teaching their customers how to use NGTLDs, prices of domain names from cybersquatters will decline down to the point where their business model would no longer be sustainable (3). The reduced price would also be promoted by protection measures like the URS, which is cheaper than UDRP proceedings (2). The Trademark Clearinghouse, where trademark owners can assert their rights, is regarded as a sufficient protection tool against trademark infringements coming from the Internet (5). However, it also leads to shortcomings. The registered trademark owner is only notified if there is an identical match and only for 60 days after the activation of a NGTLD (2).

The absolute number of cyber- and typosquatting attacks will rise, in particular for trademark owners with well-known brands but who have not applied for NGTLDs (4). According to one interviewee, the most significant risk is caused by unawareness of the person who is in charge of protecting the brand in the digital world (1). There are several steps that are recommended in order to protect the brand from cyber- and typosquatting attacks. The first line of defense is to register a trademark for the company and its products (1). Furthermore, brand owners should register their major trademarks at the Trademark Clearinghouse (8). Commercial monitoring services should be used in the case of well-known brands (1). Trademark owners should identify suitable NGTLDs where they can register strategic terms or their major trademarks (3). Only very well-known brands should register SLDs in the sunrise period, and the less-known brands should register them in land-rush phase (1). Finally, trademark owners should actively monitor the approved NGTLDs and use the long approval phase as a learning phase (3).

The last interview section dealt with the overall evaluation of NGTLDs by the respondents. None of the applicants are motivated to apply for a NGTLD purely to seize an opportunity. For them, the main reason would be to pursue a defensive strategy (5). The initiative often comes from within departments responsible for protecting intellectual property. A major driving force for applying is to ensure that others with the same trademark in other categories are not able to secure the NGTLD.

When asked for conditions of success for the NGTLD, user acceptance was identified as one major success factor (4). The consumer needs to understand the concept of NGTLDs, and their function, and has to appreciate them. The user would have to learn how to find authentic content with the help of NGTLDs (1) or navigate with the help of NGTLDs (2). Substantial marketing effort would be required to persuade the consumer of the value added by NGTLDs (5). A provider for geographic NGTLDs, for example, would invest 1MM € a year in marketing at the preregistration phase and increase these expenses to 6MM € in the future. The next major condition of success is whether NGTLDs are supported by search engines and lead to a better search engine results (4). Google Inc. has also mentioned that they will consider NGTLDs in their search algorithms, but did not clarify which impact NGTLDs will have on search results (3). The dissemination of NGTLDs also depends on their value added from other companies (2) and the prices being charged for SLDs (1). Two of the interviewees see great chances for internationalized NGTLDs being successful. Especially for regions with non-Latin characters, like China, Russia or the Middle East, there are no good alternatives today.

A major risk factor for a company is if a third party decides to register a brand or product category identical to theirs as a NGTLD (2). The trademark-related risks are increased costs for monitoring and protecting the brand in the digital environment (1). The violation of personal rights was also mentioned once. (1) ICANN could lose control and dubious providers could take advantage of the situation (1). Finally, it is not certain that the declining importance of domains can be reversed through the introduction of NGTLDs (1).

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

The goal of this paper was to test whether major branding theories are applicable to NGTLDs, to highlight the trademark-related consequences of NGTLDs and furthermore to see how European companies perceive the opportunities and risks of NGTLDs. In order to answer those research questions, we conducted 10 expert interviews, which can be defined as a systematic way of gaining access to the exclusive knowledge of experts. The required information was extracted systematically through a qualitative content analysis. Therefore, we applied the following steps for the analysis of the expert interviews: Transcription, Paraphrasing, Headings, Thematic Comparison, Conceptualization, and Generalization. In the first step, the tape recordings were transcribed. The majority of the companies seem to have registered NGTLDs in order to achieve better protection in the online world. They want to avoid negative experiences they have had with the current domain system. Furthermore, they intend to ensure that no third party that owns a similar trademark secures a brand NGTLD.

This might confuse their customers. The initiative often comes from the legal departments. Consequentially, the current focus of brand NGTLD owners is the restructuring of their domain portfolio with the help of NGTLDs. Through this, owners of brand NGTLDs can improve the perception of brand extensions. The next step will be that marketing departments start to communicate the added value of NGTLDs to their customers. Other fields of applications for NGTLDs have not been completely conceptualized.

The results indicate that NGTLDs do not impact the consumer decision process directly. They might improve the user experience and the composition or rank of the consideration set by increasing the navigation function and the findability of the website. This highly depends on whether NGTLDs can improve search engine results. But there are hints for the declining role of the domain name as a marketing tool. Interviewees argue that the automatic search in address bars of modern browsers, the rising importance of mobile applications and the voice-over technology underpin this development.

The companies in question only applied for brand NGTLDs and have not secured suitable generic NGTLDs. Unlike Google, Amazon or Microsoft, who applied for a numerous NGTLDs (Berkens, 2012), they plan to connect their brand with positive associations merely on a SLD Level. Thereby, a brand NGTLD is able to enhance the digital visibility and improve the brand knowledge of the consumer. But the interviewees also

made clear that creating positive associations through NGTLDs and securing strategic generic terms is not the main focus of brand NGTLD applicants.

The Signaling theory is able to explain the main benefit of NGTLDs. They can be seen as a signal of trust and consumer confidence, quality, security, authenticity and credibility. Therefore, brand NGTLDs act as an easily visible badge of origin through which the consumer can verify whether a company's homepage is trustworthy or not. In other words, NGTLDs allow protecting the positive impact from negative influences of third parties. A brand NGTLD owner can mark the website as a secure area by using a NGTLD, and ensure the authenticity of their homepage by excluding others from registering SLDs.

Although there are some ways to enhance the customer relationship through NGTLDs, the Brand Community Theory could not be used to explain potential benefits of NGTLDs. Owning a NGTLD alone does not change a relationship with the customer nor influence the formation and acceptance of brand communities.

From a legal perspective, NGTLDs can be seen as a name space, which enables control of its usage. If the user recognizes this function and accepts the brand NGTLD as a sign of trusted information for a particular brand, the impact of cyber- and typosquatting attacks will decline for brand NGTLD owners. Non-applicants will face an increased number of trademark infringements caused by the extension of the namespace. After discussing the major results of this study one is able to compare the opportunities and risks of NGTLDs.

One of the main advantages of Brand NGTLDs is that they can act as a badge of origin for the digital world and therefore reduce cyber- and typosquatting attacks for brand NGTLD owners. Brand NGTLDs furthermore enable increased perception of brand extensions and reduce the complexity of the current domain name portfolio. Generic NGTLDs might serve as a way to increase brand knowledge by connecting the brand to suitable generic NGTLDs, which can create positive associations. Lastly, NGTLDs can improve navigation to and findability of websites.

However, there are multiple risks. Non-Applicants will face the risk of a raising number of cyber- and typosquatting attacks. NGTLDs will also increase monitoring costs and costs for defensive registrations for trademark owners. Third parties might register an identical brand or product category as a NGTLD. The biggest risk is that Internet users might not accept NGTLDs. This would also mean that NGTLDs might not affect the search engine ranking.

This study has several limitations. The qualitative approach chosen has several disadvantages. Despite the ten respondents that were interviewed, the sample size is rather small. As a consequence, the results could more easily be influenced by outliers or extreme opinions. The findings might also be unique to the small group of experts, which was included in this study. Due the fact that the interview design was very open, the answers might be influenced by personal biases. The sample of interviewees consisted of experts from different personal backgrounds and positions. The heterogeneity of the sample might also influence the results. Because of these drawbacks, the generalizability of the results might be limited.

Further research could overcome some of the limitations mentioned. Such research could be built on findings of this study, and verify them by conducting quantitative studies. One might consider conducting a survey of all brand NGTLDs to validate the generalizability. Moreover, the interviews held indicated that the consumer adaption of NGTLDs is still largely uninvestigated. In order to clarify the impact of NGTLDs on consumers, one might administer laboratory experiments. Once the first NGTLDs are in use, one could analyze web data to make more accurate statements about the effectiveness of NGTLDs.

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