



International Marketing Trends Conference

**20th IMTC – Venice
January 14-16 2021**

Marketing Trends Congress Research Sessions

With authors coming from more than 50 countries and a great variety of research topics. A unique occasion to interact and create links for future research and career opportunities.

January 15th – 16th 2021

Poster Session

An opportunity to meet other researchers who share similar interests and ideas and develop an international profile.

January 15th – 16th 2021

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Dedicated to outstanding doctoral students in an intermediate or advanced stage of their dissertation process.

January 14th 2021

Marketing Trends Best Thesis Award

Open to Ph.D. students who defended their Ph.D. thesis over the past 18 months period. Aiming at recognizing and encouraging their talent.

January 14th – 15th 2021

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Top executive guest speakers and round tables with marketing managers on key challenges addressed in a large diversity of industries including FMCGs, B2B, tech companies, services...

January 15th 2021

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January 15th 2021

Professor Elyette Roux Best Thesis in Luxury Award

For Ph.D. students who defended a Ph.D. thesis on marketing issues linked to luxury brand management over the past 18 months period.

January 14th – 15th 2021

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The impact of crises on marketing: an exploratory study of an emerging market

Abstract

Marketing performance in times of crises is an important research issue in contemporary marketing. The main idea in papers dealing with crisis marketing behavior is highlighting the crucial role of marketing in a crisis context. Our study shows that this is not always the case. There are different types of situations where a simplification of marketing is evident, the system of marketing in a company deteriorates, and marketing is downgraded to a function of mainly sales, and these situations are obviously not exceptions. The present study is aimed at understanding the reasons for the evident contradiction between crisis marketing theory and some empirical cases. The other objective is to understand the mechanisms of marketing simplification in times of crisis. The paper focuses on marketing behavior of companies operating in Russia during the current (2014-2017) crisis, and takes into account the specifics of the marketing environment and the influences from the system of management on marketing, one of its subsystems.

Key words: Marketing behavior, crisis marketing performance, crisis marketing theory, emerging markets.

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Introduction

Problems, issues and phenomena related to marketing performance during economic crises are of special interest and significance for academics and a challenge for marketing and management executives. With respect to the current crisis, it seems that Russian colleagues agree that during a crisis the role of marketing significantly grows and that the marketing tools available to marketing are highly important. At least, this is the “mainstream” idea broadly presented.

However, our own observations of the marketing activities of some Russian enterprises (often) seem not to be in line with this statement. Furthermore, in certain situations one could have the impression that the role marketing plays in a crisis even diminishes. Consequently, those observations made us skeptical both about the real role of marketing and the true perception of its role during a crisis (despite the widespread emphasis of its role).

The main objective of this research is to explore why and how marketing changes in a crisis context using several different cases. We focus on mechanisms and interactions between the management system and marketing and try to explain contradictions between the ideas of crisis marketing theory (CMT) and a number of empirical observations.

Our research aims to explain the evident contradictions between what marketing is supposed to be in times of crisis (judging by CMT assumptions) and what it is in reality. The results show simplified marketing as a type of marketing performed in a special context and the explanation of the mechanism accounting for the selection of this type of behavior demonstrated by a company. In the second part of the study we try to find out whether this type of marketing behavior or its features can be identified in other marketing environments (with a higher degree of maturity).

Methodology of the study

Our study is based on crisis marketing theory which emphasizes the crucial role marketing is supposed to play in times of crisis. The study consists of two parts.

For the first part, interviews were undertaken with the CMOs, CEOs and CFOs of 13 companies working in Russia. The companies selected at this stage operate in markets with a relatively low degree of the maturity of the marketing environment. Although this part of the study was challenging from an organizational point of view due to the structure of the sample, it gave us the necessary insight to understand the role of a crisis context and mechanisms that influence marketing both from outside (the crisis context) and inside the company (the system of management). Interviews with the CEOs were an important source of information and gave us an insight into reasons behind why decisions were taken. As a result of this part of the study, we identified simplified marketing as a type of marketing activity during a crisis.

In the second part, we mainly tried to identify features of simplified marketing in a context with a higher degree of marketing maturity. For this reason, and with regard to some organizational difficulties, in the majority of cases interviews were conducted with marketing representatives only (i.e., CMOs and/or marketing department employees) of the 19 companies (for the analysis, however, we also selected 13 of them). We focused on changes concerning the structure and volume (share in revenue and its absolute amount) of marketing budgets, marketing goals, planning horizon, (new) managerial procedures, marketing positions and changes related to them. In interviews, we tried to identify both differences in these points before and during the crisis and the reasons for it.

At different stages during the study secondary data and observation techniques (mystery shopping and site visits) were used but the main research method during both stages was the in-depth interview. We believe that different techniques dealing with this type of research should pay more attention to the particularity of the data to be collected. (Andreani and Conchon, 2005a, 2005b; Cresswell, 1994; Denzin, 1978; Park and Park, 2016) Although a semi-structured questionnaire was elaborated, in many cases we used a memory-based technique. In particular, while interviewing CEOs and CFOs we tried not to use (not to show) the questionnaire, reproduced it by memory, did not take any notes and recorded results immediately after the interviews had taken place. This technique is more preferable than PAPI and similar procedures because allows the atmosphere to be less formal and more confidential and also takes into account that some respondents might feel restricted while discussing questions of “business intimacy”. No statistical tools were used in this exploratory research. For the purposes of the interpretation, we used techniques of logical analysis (a hypothetico-deductive method involving vertical and horizontal analysis).

The results of the interviews were categorized into two parts. On the one hand, we identified similarities and differences between both clusters. On the other hand, relations between factors (causes and results) in terms of the interaction between the macro-level, the system of management and its subsystem of marketing were established.

Since the first part of the study aimed at understanding the mechanism that leads to marketing simplification, we deliberately considered only cases where this type of activity was evident. However, this does not mean that this might

be the only type of marketing in this cluster (hereafter referred to as C1). In the second part of the research however we identified two sub-clusters: the first one (hereafter referred to as C2.1.) was, as a matter of fact, almost similar to C1; the second cluster (hereafter referred to as C2.2.) stands out.

Our attention was not focused primarily on some successful crisis marketing tools. Rather, we tried to consider changes in a broader range of marketing activities as a series of interactions between a company and its customers, which differs from the approach that is widely used in publications within CMT (notes on L2.4 and L2.6 can be found in the “Literature review”).

Both studies are related to the current crisis in Russia, although we generalize this experience when it seems appropriate and use the word “crises” or “a crisis” for it.

Literature review

The present study is based on the ideas of crisis marketing theory (CMT). Under CMT, we can understand the scope of the theoretical and empirical contributions on marketing performance during times of crisis.

For our purposes, we used the criteria “maturity of marketing context” and “type of research” to characterize the main ideas of CMT and considered different groups of publications, as shown in Table 1 (to make the text more reader-friendly we used “L”, which stands for “literature”, in contrast to “C”, which stands for “Cluster”, as already mentioned).

Table 1

Types of CMT papers

| Type of contribution | Maturity of marketing context | | |
|--------------------------|-------------------------------|----------------|------------------|
| | Russian and some CIS markets | Mature markets | Emerging markets |
| Theoretical contribution | L1.1 | L1.2 | L1.3 |
| Empirical research | L2.4 | L2.5 | L2.6 |

A theoretical platform of CMT is built by publications in L1.2. Their authors assume that marketing plays a crucial role in times of crisis, its role increases in crises, and cuts of marketing budgets in these times is a (strategic) mistake, whereas (additional) investment into marketing during crises times pays off, especially after times of crisis. (Castor, 2008; Correa et al., 2013; Rhodes and Shelter, 2009; Wilkinson, 2010; Hollis, 2008; Shrager, 1991; Ferrell and Hartline, 2002; Ang et al., 2000; Hooley et al., 2008; Roberts, 2003 among many others) It is evident that the authors in L1.2 take for granted the premise that marketing environment is mature in any situation; therefore, an objective need for marketing is high. This might be true for mature markets but is not always the case in markets with a lower degree of both marketing maturity and objective necessity in marketing.

As a matter of fact, we hardly see any difference between these ideas and those in L1.1 (Russian academics), although they are related to two different marketing environments. The dominant idea in publications of the sub-group L1.1 is on the leading role of marketing at all times, including during crises. A certain degree of mistrust on the part of Russian practitioners towards academic works (as the results of our interviews with CEOs show) means that something might be wrong with that academics’ approach in which marketing tools from a mature context are suggested to be automatically imported into Russian markets as a remedy and a “panacea”. (Badot and Cova, 2008)

The same idea is broadly presented in L1.3; authors of this sub-group work on the same premise as their colleagues in L1.2. Obviously, their suggestions imply a high level of marketing maturity of the environment. (Köksal and Özgül, 2007; O’Malley et al., 2011; Mitran and Bebeșelea, 2012; Naidoo, 2010) In some cases, the authors do not pay sufficient

attention to the crisis context, which is also not an exception in publications on crisis marketing. (Tomše and Snoj, 2014; Mitran and Bebeșelea, 2012)

Publications of groups L2.4 – L2.6 illustrate and prove some basic ideas and principles of CMT in empirical examples. The problem, however, is that they often consider some tools or fragments of performance only. In this sense, from the point of view of a fragmentary approach, our findings with regard to C2.2 seem to be in line with the ideas of authors in L1.2: in almost all companies in this part of the study there are successful examples of new creative and inventive crisis marketing tools. However, we believe that the illustration of some tools (only), no matter how successful they might be, cannot be used as evidence of the role marketing really plays in times of crisis: for this purpose, a broader perspective is needed. It seems sometimes that publications in L2.4 and L2.6 were deductively aimed at proving the role of marketing in times of crisis (as well) in full compliance with the ideas in L1.2.

The sub-group L2.4 contains some critical approaches towards marketing. As a matter of fact, these publications are very “diffusive” (i.e. quite rare), are not focused primarily on marketing (often they are presented by consultants in management or even related areas) and do not reflect “mainstream” ideas on the crucial role of marketing that are so widespread among Russian marketing academics.

To the group L2.4 we also allocated surveys of a non-academic nature. Among others, we considered contributions made in the framework of the Gaidar Forum-2017 (which is a famous discussion platform for academics, practitioners, and top Russian politicians, annually held at RANEP, Moscow), a number of secondary studies conducted for commercial purposes (i.e. “Consumer market of Russia and rating of retail chains FMCG” conducted by Infoline research Agency in the Fall of 2016, a representative research of Russian real estate agencies (both construction and sellers)). A difficulty with this group of sources was obtaining permission to use their results in publications.

It seems evident that the existing CMT, both for mature and emerging markets, needs still to be revised in some aspects. We hope that our suggestions would be helpful for this; they concern (1) the idea of the necessity to consider a broader scope of marketing performance (and not only some of its fragments) and (2) relating marketing performance to the criterion of the “objective necessity” in marketing and the maturity of marketing context in which the marketing is being performed. This approach might help to establish more confidence in CMT from practitioners, make CMT’s ideas and principles more reliable and avoid phenomena (with reference to our Western colleagues) such as “marketing fundamentalism”, “marketing colonialism”, “marketing panaceas”, “marketing myopia” (Badot and Cova, 2008), and “marketing incrementalism” (Dholakia, 2009). There is a need for a less declarative theoretical platform for marketing in times of crisis. (Bradlow, 2009) Some essential ideas of general marketing need to be revised for the specifics of times of crisis (Bradlow, 2009; Mitran and Bebeșelea, 2012) and better tailored to the real needs of practitioners (Dholakia, 2009), though they are true for some aspects of marketing applied not only in times of crisis.

Findings

Companies in all clusters worked in the same macro-context. Its characteristics might be considered common to any (economic) crisis context. The “crisis-like” type of the consumer behavior, the actual or expected loss of the company’s income, as well as some negative changes in Russian financial and monetary systems had created new challenges for management (an “input” from the macro-environment).

In C1 we identified a survival type of corporate strategy. Companies in C1 had to struggle for their financial survival. The unexpected changes in economic and financial systems of the country coincided with the necessity of these companies to pay credit in Euro. – As a result, cash-flow generation became an absolute priority and a primary task for a company’s survival, on the one hand, and cost cuts on the other. As a consequence of the lack of a clear understanding of perspectives and the duration of the crisis, the planning horizon in these companies was reduced to a much shorter-term perspective.

In both clusters, the marketing executives interviewed saw three types of influence from management upon a company’s marketing system: expectations from marketing, changes within the system of management that influence marketing mostly, and the result of these influences. The following characteristics were common to all companies: (1) change of strategic goals, (2) an absolute priority of cash-flow generation and commercial KPIs and (3) cost cuts. In the new context, new evaluation criteria were introduced (explicitly and/or implicitly) in all companies: cash-flow generation and the speed with which costs transformed into sales. From the perspective of the majority of the marketers, marketing was mainly influenced by the following factors (“input”): dominance of a shorter term perspective, lack of clarity about longer perspectives, necessity to adjust marketing to the new managerial priorities, and a short-term perspective for the evaluation of results. Consequently, marketing goals and new priorities in marketing activities were changed.

A tendency to switch to more undemocratic management tools was evident in both clusters, but especially in C1.

Many marketers in C1 reported of a number of examples when marketing decisions were “patronized” or overseen by a non-marketing manager (as a rule, in many cases it was the financial chief officer, in some cases the role of marketing “patronage” took one of the company’s owners. (For sure, this decision could not but diminish the role of marketing director within the company and demotivate marketing staff. [Zehir &Savi, 2004]) In addition to this, in C1 marketing was perceived by non-marketer respondents as not playing a significant role in their markets. In general, the position of marketing in each company in C1 was reduced to a secondary role: marketing was expected to generate sales (with stress placed on lead generation). In many cases, we had the impression that a magic formula to create sales was expected from marketing.

In contrast to C1, marketing in C2.2 reportedly did not lose its position and authority in companies to the same extent as was the case in C1. All respondents characterized the criteria of “subjective necessity” in marketing as “high”, “quite high”, “high enough”, “above the average”. CEOs in all companies of this cluster reportedly considered marketing a necessary managerial tool. In general, respondents evaluated management in all companies of C2.2 as “progressive”, “quite efficient”, “professional” and “result oriented”. Several efficient modern managerial tools were successfully introduced and used in these companies. In all cases, managerial decisions became significantly more cost-conscious. (Of course, it had positive influences, e.g. in terms of efficiency and use of new tools (agile cost management)). In contrast to C1, a company’s behavior and strategic changes in their activity can obviously be qualified as an adjustment to a new context aimed at the optimization of all business activities, including marketing.

Similar to C1, new managerial priorities (explicitly or implicitly) were related to sales generation in a shorter-term perspective. As a matter of fact, sales creation and promotion became the main priority of marketing in C2.2, as well. All respondents underlined a much stronger orientation at (sometimes too extensive) lead generation and the use of more aggressive marketing tools. Trade marketing activities and any marketing activities targeted at sales promotion became of the absolute importance, as well. Companies’ managers demonstrated a bigger readiness to experiment and to take risks while creating (new) marketing tools and to support these experiments with resources necessary; responsibility for the result was always given to marketing manager (even if the decision had been imposed upon her/ him.) In some cases, tools were described as being not always appropriate (but imposed on marketing) and sometimes deceitful. In C2.2, as well, (new) expectations (in many cases perceived as emotional pressure) were noticed: “new” marketing was expected, some of these expectations were hard to fulfil; similar to the situation in C1, some CMOs in C2.2 had the impression that a “miraculous” solution was also expected from them; some new managerial tools and procedures were evaluated as a managerial obstacle. In many cases, symptoms of a “soft patronage” were reported, which was especially true during budget approvals.

Changes in interactions with the sales department (exaggerated expectations of lead generations from marketing as a condition to create sales) and a tendency, with regard to lead generation and promotional activities, to organize brainstorming in many cases (true for C1) were initiated by representatives of non-marketing departments. Ideas were imposed and pushed. Some interviewees among the marketers in both clusters reported having received accusations of being too slow or not creative enough from CEO. In general, there was a lot of proof of decisions that were taken too impulsively (some were imposed upon the marketers). There were cases reported when marketing was considered more responsible for sales than the sales department (mainly because of insufficient leads generated).

Aggressive sales training were introduced in companies that had not employed it previously or (in most cases) used it only occasionally (sometimes, CMOs were charged with this new function). In some cases, the share of training expenditures within a marketing budget became even bigger, though (aggressive) sales training replaced other forms of training (i.e. service, product, motivational, etc.) in some cases.

Some marketing decisions taken or (imposed on marketing) by the company’s manager(s) obviously were able to destroy or to weaken the company’s positioning. That step was in many cases considered as acceptable in the contemporary context (more in C1, less in C2.2). While being targeted at sales promotion with any tools available, the company’s management was ready to consider questions of (target) positioning as something secondary.

Discussion

There are different marketing environments (C1 versus C2.1 and C2.2) and there are variances of management behavior during a crisis in the cases investigated. At the same time, different types of management (and marketing) behavior can be identified even in the same marketing environment (C2.1 and C2.2). Differences were related to the role of the maturity of the marketing environment, to different financial situations in companies, and to the perception of marketing by CEOs. Apart from companies struggling for their existence due to some severe financial situation (C1, C2.1), other companies (C2.2) did not face such severe financial restrictions. With regard to corporate strategies in C1 and C2.2, we use terms such as “survival” and “adjustment” (which, in its turn, is similar to corporate strategies of optimization), reciprocally.

Despite some internal differences – in this regard we mentioned the level of financial restrictions and the criterion of a “subjective necessity” in marketing – there are similarities, which allows us to talk of “typical” crisis management behavior. Common features that are relevant both for management and marketing include (1) budget restrictions, (2) priorities of a company with a focus on short to mid-term sales, (3) lack of clarity about long-term market perspectives, and (4) risk to take some marketing decisions which are true from the point of view of CMO but do not correspond with some new corporate priorities.

Marketing behavior within these types of corporate strategies might seem different in many aspects. Within these two types of corporate strategies we characterize the marketing behavior in C1 with the term “simplification”, while for C2.2 we instead talked of a “modified marketing”. At the same time, despite the differences both in the marketing environment and in the system of management, on the one hand, and within these two marketing models, there are a number of similarities between them in C1 and C2.2. It is obvious that all significant characteristics of simplified marketing in C1 could be identified in C2.2. In other words, although, at first glance, these two types of marketing behavior, simplified and modified marketing, are being performed within different corporate strategies and seem to be different in many aspects, this is not true because of the two following reasons. *First*, although respondents in C2.2 were more likely to evaluate both management and marketing of their company with terms such as “appropriate”, “adequate”, “due to the crisis” etc., the differences between both types of marketing can be described with the words “more” or “less” but, as a matter of fact, in both cases the same characteristics can be used. *Second*, although all of our respondents in C2.2 underlined the importance of marketing in their companies and illustrated the use of some “progressive” tools, some features of, and tendencies towards, a deterioration of the system of marketing and the loss of marketing’s positions within a company were evident; as for the new creative and innovative tools, they all concerned (new) trade marketing mechanics, new forms of collaboration with suppliers and partners in trade marketing and closer relations with consumers aimed at lead and sales generation. Examples of closer relations with consumers were identified at the pre-sales stage only; moreover, there were some examples of trade-marketing activities that were not appropriate or even deceitful. Additional investments in marketing concerned some budget articles only (according to the new priorities) and usually these were made with funds diverted from other areas and activities that had lost their importance. It seems that other areas of marketing became of secondary importance. Similar to C1, in most C2.2 companies, cuts of commercially “*inevident*” projects (i.e., projects that did not have a clear or direct influence upon sales in a short-term perspective) and managers’ skepticism towards psychographic goals and projects were recorded. The idea mentioned above that marketing in a crisis context becomes more efficient might be true only with a short-term perspective in which it was used in all companies. As a matter of fact and despite the different viewpoints of some of our respondents, in both cases (but to a different extent, as already mentioned) positions of marketing within a company became more subordinate than before the crisis. New (explicit or implicit) expectations from marketing and (therefore) a new perception of it, on the one hand, and objective possibilities to correspond to these new (and obviously exaggerated) expectations, *influence*, directly or indirectly, and as a consequence reduce the position and the role of both the subsystem of marketing and the marketing officer in the company. – These are the reasons why the following terms are appropriate to describe the quality of marketing in C2.2: simplification, downgrading, deterioration, reduction of marketing to primarily serve sales needs, a step back. Therefore, both types of marketing are rather similar than different. From this point of view, we evaluate both patterns as variants of the same type of marketing. In other words, “modified marketing” as a type of marketing behavior appropriate within the corporate strategy of adjustment is a variant of the same marketing behavior, that of marketing simplification.

In the cluster with higher degrees of “objective” and “subjective” necessity in marketing there are symptoms of marketing simplification. Obviously, we deal with some quite universal characteristics and features inherent to crisis marketing performance (in general), and they are common to both clusters with different degrees of marketing maturity. We suppose also that a simplification of marketing performance in times of crisis seems to be a more widespread phenomenon than earlier assumed.

Let us once more emphasize the criteria of a “subjective” and “objective” necessity in marketing we use in our argumentation. The former is related to the perception of marketing by the decision-maker (in our case: CEOs only). We believe that this factor plays a significant role in an emerging market. In general, this question is related to the perception of marketing and its role as a success factor in a market by a decision-maker and reflects her/his experience and personal values; it does not necessarily correspond with the role marketing plays or might play in this very context. The perception of marketing by the company’s manager and new expectations from marketing with an emphasis on short-term sales and sales promotion dominate in both clusters and demonstrate the evident simplification of the marketing up to a number of some tools for the acquisition of potential clients.

In its turn, the external environment plays the main role in terms of the effectiveness of the marketing strategy. As mentioned earlier, the degree of the maturity of the marketing environments was different in both clusters. With respect

to C2.1, obviously the maturity of the marketing environment is not the primary reason for the selection of a marketing strategy. The main role is played by management. In other words, the quality of the system of management is the main internal factor of marketing success because this is the force that determines changes within the subsystem of marketing. Managerial input created premises under which marketing (especially in C1) was downgraded to a sheer function within short-term sales, with marketing simplification being identified in all companies in this cluster. In other words, the system of management is the main factor that determines the selection and use of a marketing strategy. The internal environment is the main determinant for the selection of a type of marketing behavior.

In this sense, the system of management can broadly create obstacles and limitations for marketing performance. It should be highlighted that such circumstances have had a negative influence on the results and effectiveness of marketing activities. From our point of view, this explains a (possible) contradiction between what marketing can and has to be, on the one hand, and what it actually is in the companies (we have interviewed), on the other hand. A successful marketing performance requires, therefore, a corresponding type of interactions between marketing and the system of management of a company. Marketing effectiveness, therefore, is related to the effectiveness and adequacy of the corporate level in a company; a corresponding quality level of internal environment determines the quality of marketing performance in many aspects.

An important issue is the evaluation of this type of marketing behavior. We suppose that this should be done in a future study by using appropriate data. However, we believe that the approach for this work shall be made from *different* perspectives and based on the following suggestions.

1. From the point of view of the evaluation of marketing evolution; in this sense simplified marketing is of course a step back.
2. From the position of the adequacy of marketing to actual necessities of a company. In the context given and with a number of restrictions (explicitly and implicitly) imposed upon marketing one could hardly expect another type of marketing.
3. From the perspective of adequacy to market. We assume that marketing performance and its results are related not to an "absolute", undefined, or "ideal" "volume" of marketing (as CMT expects from marketing) but rather to a "concrete", determined (by a concrete role of concrete market forces), necessary and sufficient "volume" of marketing in a concrete market context. This consideration has to become a platform for the evaluation of simplified marketing as a type of behavior, which is not the goal of this paper.

Another point concerns our suggestions within CMT and its approach. In C2.2, there are a number of examples of the elaboration of (new) creative and innovative tools that might seem to be in line with the assumptions of CMT. This is true only if we use a fragment-oriented approach, which often happens in publications L2.4 – L2.6. This is not the case if we evaluate a broader scope of marketing activities which, for our purposes, as mentioned earlier, was identified as a chain of interactions between a company and its consumers.

Conclusions

There are different types of marketing performance in times of crises. On the one hand, simplified marketing is (probably) not the dominant type, while, on the other hand, there are different variants within simplified marketing. We suppose that features of simplified marketing are more common in a crisis context than assumed and might be met in markets with different degrees of maturity. For this reason, this type of marketing should not be neglected by CMT.

It is also evident that CMT focuses on "progressive" examples and illustrations of how marketing should be performed in times of crises rather than on the pre-conditions for it. In the context given, some of its assumptions, as mentioned earlier, might seem too idealistic and declarative. Therefore, there is a practical and a theoretical need to resolve the contradiction by focusing also on other types of both marketing environment and marketing behavior, even if they might seem peripheral to "mainstream" marketing. We believe that the suggestion to use a broader perspective on marketing activities instead of a rather fragment-oriented one would allow us to revise some of suggestions of CMT and make it better respond to practical necessities in such turbulent times.

Our interest consisted in understanding how simplified marketing comes into being, we also tried to explain the main interactions within this type of marketing behavior. Marketing simplification occurs within a special managerial context (which is enhanced by the "subjective" necessity in marketing). This is the main factor for the selection of the type of marke-

ting behavior. The external factor, i.e. the “objective necessity” in marketing and the adequacy of marketing to it, obviously plays a secondary role but it determines the company’s success and positions in a market. – The criteria of the necessity in marketing (both “objective” and “subjective” ones) should be taken into account by CMT.

This idea is especially important in terms of managerial implications. We believe that the results of marketing performance are related to the suitability of the marketing strategy and its tools to the specifics of the marketing environment (the “objective necessity” in marketing in a particular market). In its turn, the quality of the system of management and its interactions with marketing mainly impact the content and the quality of marketing. The quality of the system of management is able to influence marketing performance directly and indirectly in many ways. Let us emphasize once more the idea that a successful marketing can barely be possible with inadequate management. The market orientation of the system of management goes in line with its orientation regarding the needs of the system of marketing. This point has a special significance for emerging markets (considering the criteria of an “objective” and “subjective” necessity in marketing, which seem to be relatively low).

The limitations of our study are related both to the method used and to some specifics of the crisis context in which the companies investigated operate. We cannot make judgments on the dominance of some particular features within simplified marketing over some others, nor how widespread they are. It is not clear how far the external and internal factors (including the perception of the role of marketing) account for the selection of this type of marketing in reality. In a context with a higher degree of maturity of the marketing environment, features of simplified marketing were also presented, although to a lesser extent. Since there is evidence of marketing simplification in clusters with different degrees of maturity of marketing environment, we suppose that they might be present also in the marketing of companies operating in the most mature marketing environments. In this case, we might be able to conclude that marketing simplification, to a different extent, is a characteristic inherent to (any) crisis marketing performance. Even in this case, however, this conclusion would only be related to a specific country context. However, in order to make broader conclusions, a comparative research study would be required. In this sense, it is necessary to differentiate between mature and emerging markets, and to identify some Russia-specific features (if they exist). The result of this part of the study shall be the definition of specifics within marketing behavior which might be inherent to any type of marketing performed in any crisis context. In other words, comparisons between different clusters in different national contexts are necessary.

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Connected health: co-design of a new service with consumers

Santé connectée : co-design d'un nouveau service avec les consommateurs

Résumé :

De nombreux programmes de santé ont cherché à aider les individus afin de mettre en œuvre un régime alimentaire pour améliorer leur santé. Ces programmes, principalement axés sur l'éducation et l'information, visaient à lutter contre l'épidémie d'obésité et ses conséquences potentielles sur les troubles de la santé. Nous nous interrogeons sur la manière dont les appareils connectés pourraient constituer une méthode plus efficace pour promouvoir des aliments sains. Ils peuvent être utilisés dans une perspective de TSR pour mélanger le divertissement virtuel et l'engagement réel à un changement de comportement, comme un régime plus sain pour une meilleure santé.

Mots clés : co-création, santé, alimentation, dispositifs connectés, applications, TSR

Abstract :

Numerous health programmes have tried to help people go on diets to improve their health. These programmes - mainly education- and information-oriented - have sought to fight the epidemic of obesity and its potential outcomes on health disorders. We question how connected devices could provide a more effective method to promote healthy food. They can be used in a social marketing perspective to combine virtual entertainment and real commitment to behavioural change, such as a healthier diet for improved health.

Key words : co-creation, health, food, connected devices, applications, TSR

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1. Introduction et objectifs

Les conséquences négatives de l'épidémie mondiale d'obésité sont désormais bien connues (OMS 2018). Pourtant, l'obésité et ses conséquences économiques, sociales et de santé sont majoritairement liées à une évolution potentiellement évitable des comportements alimentaires, en particulier à une surconsommation d'aliments élaborés, trop riches en sucres ou en gras, ainsi qu'à la perte d'adéquation entre l'apport énergétique de l'alimentation et l'activité physique. Sous l'influence des marchés agroalimentaires, les comportements des consommateurs peuvent en effet avoir des effets indésirables non seulement sur leur santé mais aussi sur la société (Grunert et al. 2007).

En réaction, les pouvoirs publics ont cherché depuis des décennies à informer le public sur les bienfaits d'une alimentation saine et équilibrée. Ces recommandations nutritionnelles du type

« Five a Day » (« 5 fruits et légumes par jour » en France, sous l'égide du PNNS, Programme National Nutrition Santé) n'ont malheureusement pas encore permis de modifier de manière significative et pérenne les comportements alimentaires (Blanc et al. 2017). Elles sont construites sur le calcul des besoins nutritionnels moyens de manière à toucher une population générale. Devant leur relatif échec pour lutter contre la montée de l'obésité, les pouvoirs publics peuvent donc être tentés de se tourner vers des recommandations plus ciblées pour des populations spécifiques, comme les enfants, les personnes âgées ou encore les femmes enceintes. Les nouvelles technologies de communication peuvent permettre d'aller encore plus loin dans la personnalisation. A l'instar d'un professionnel de santé qui écoute son patient et lui donne des conseils personnalisés, elles peuvent offrir la possibilité de toucher une multitude de personnes pour leur apporter un soutien plus personnalisé, et cela à un coût relativement bas. Le secteur privé a d'ailleurs développé de nombreuses offres, comme en témoigne le développement des applications dites de santé et leur succès croissant : on estimait à 165.000 leur nombre en 2016 et leur chiffre d'affaires ne cesse d'augmenter (<https://www.nouvelobs.com/rue89/rue89-sante/20160427.RUE2761/les-applis-de-sante-des-medicaments-comme-les-autres.html>).

A côté de la croissance extrêmement rapide de l'offre marchande, de nombreux programmes publics de santé ont cherché à améliorer l'alimentation et la condition physique (les deux causes majeures de l'obésité et du surpoids) de populations ciblées grâce à des dispositifs connectés. Ces dispositifs mettent généralement en œuvre des conseils plus ou moins personnalisés, et parfois la possibilité de quantifier ses efforts et ses résultats. Alors que les campagnes d'information générale ont partout montré leurs limites, les pouvoirs publics doivent-ils s'engager dans des programmes alternatifs reposant

1. Introduction and objectives

The negative consequences of the global obesity epidemic are now well known (OMS 2018). However, obesity and its economic, social and health consequences are mostly linked to potentially avoidable changes in eating behaviours, in particular the over-consumption of prepared foods that are too high in sugars or fat, and the lack of adequacy between energy intake from food and physical activity. Under the influence of agri-food markets, consumer behaviours can indeed have undesirable effects not only on their health but also on society (Grunert et al. 2007).

In response, public authorities have for decades sought to inform the public about the benefits of a healthy and balanced diet. These nutritional recommendations of the «5 a Day» type («5 fruits and vegetables per day» in France, under the aegis of the French National Nutrition and Health Program) have unfortunately not yet led to significant and lasting changes in eating behaviour (Blanc et al. 2017). These recommendations are based on the calculation of average nutritional needs, so as to in order to be applicable to the general population. Faced with their relative failure to combat the rise in obesity, public authorities may be tempted to turn to more targeted recommendations for specific populations, such as children, the elderly or pregnant women. New communication technologies may allow for even greater personalization. Just as a healthcare professional listens to his patient and gives personalized advice, new technologies can offer the possibility of reaching a multitude of people to provide more personalized support at a relatively low cost.

The private sector has, moreover, developed numerous offers, as evidenced by the development of so-called health applications and their growing success: it is estimated that there will be 165,000 of them in 2016 and their success continues to grow (Vieau 2016).

Alongside the extremely rapid growth in market supply, many public health programmes have sought to improve the diet and fitness (the two major causes of obesity and excessive weight) of targeted populations through connected devices. These devices generally implement more or less personalized advice, and sometimes the possibility of quantifying efforts and results. Given that general information campaigns have shown their limits around the world, should public authorities engage in alternative programmes based on digital quantification tools accessible to all?

However, researchers are beginning to question the long-term effectiveness of connected devices, especially self-quantification devices, even though they are enjoying worldwide popularity. In the field of consumer behaviour research, Etkin has shown that self-quantification can lead to the opposite results to those expected when it leads to people's lower long-term engagement (Etkin 2016).

Our research is placed in the perspective of Transforming

sur des outils numériques de quantification accessibles à tous ?

Toutefois, des chercheurs commencent à questionner l'efficacité à long terme des dispositifs connectés, notamment de self-quantification même s'ils connaissent un engouement dans le monde entier. Dans le domaine de la recherche en comportement du consommateur, Etkin a montré que la self-quantification peut amener à des résultats inverses à ceux escomptés quand elle conduit à abaisser l'engagement des personnes sur le long-terme (Etkin 2016).

Notre recherche se place dans la perspective de la Transformative Service Research ou TSR. La TSR, dans la lignée de la Transformative Consumer Research (Mick et al. 2012), se concentre sur l'émergence de services nouveaux ou améliorés destinés à améliorer la vie des individus, des familles, des communautés, de la société et plus généralement des écosystèmes (Anderson et al. 2013). La co-création, le design de service, l'accès aux services, les personnes vulnérables sont parmi les thèmes importants de la TSR (Ostrom, Mathras, et Anderson 2014). La recherche d'un service connecté destiné à aider les personnes les plus exposées au surpoids et à l'obésité, à avoir une meilleure alimentation et ainsi parvenir à un plus grand bien-être appartient clairement à la TSR.

Dans une première partie, nous allons préciser notre question de recherche grâce à la revue de littérature. Nous exposerons ensuite nos choix méthodologiques avant de présenter nos résultats. Nous terminerons par les limites de notre recherche mais aussi les recommandations sur lesquelles elle peut déboucher.

2. La question du numérique dans les programmes de santé

Le recours à des dispositifs connectés semble prometteur car il offre de nombreux avantages pour créer des programmes d'intervention ciblés. En effet, des algorithmes permettent de programmer des messages personnalisés basés sur l'enregistrement des données des participants. Dans notre revue de littérature, nous avons d'abord cherché à repérer et comparer l'efficacité des différents dispositifs mis en place au cours de programmes de santé. Pour cela, nous avons ciblé les articles présentant des résultats quantifiés de programmes reposant sur l'usage d'applications mobiles, l'envoi de SMS ciblés, l'envoi d'emails ou encore le coaching personnalisé via un site internet. Tous les programmes retenus avaient pour objectif une amélioration de l'alimentation des sujets, accompagnée parfois par des recommandations d'activité physique et avaient prévu une comparaison avec un groupe de contrôle pour mesurer l'efficacité de leur mise en œuvre.

Bien que plus récentes par rapport aux autres dispositifs étudiés, les applications mobiles sont accessibles pour

mativité Service Research (TSR). TSR, along the lines of Transformative Consumer Research (Mick et al. 2012), focuses on the emergence of new or improved services to improve the lives of individuals, families, communities, society and ecosystems more generally (Anderson et al. 2013). Co-creation, service design, access to services, and vulnerable people are among the important themes of TSR (Ostrom, Mathras, and Anderson 2014). The search for a connected service to help those most at risk of excessive weight and obesity to eat better and thus achieve greater well-being is clearly within the scope of TSR.

In the first part, we will clarify our research question through the literature review. We will then outline our methodological choices before presenting our results. We will conclude with the limits of our research but also the recommendations to which it may lead.

2. The issue of numerics in health programmes

The use of connected devices seems promising as it offers many advantages for creating targeted intervention programmes. Indeed, algorithms allow the programming of personalized messages based on the recording of participant data. In our literature review, we first sought to identify and compare the effectiveness of different devices used in health programmes. To do so, we targeted articles presenting quantified results of programmes based on the use of mobile applications, targeted SMS, email or personalized coaching via a website. All of the programmes selected were aimed at improving the subjects' diet, sometimes accompanied by recommendations for physical activity, and included a comparison with a control group to measure the effectiveness of their implementation.

Although more recent compared to the other devices studied, mobile applications are accessible to a large part of the world's population and can be integrated into users' daily lives without constraints. They enable personalized messages, tailored to the user's preferences, to be received at any time of day and virtually anywhere. Users are thus able to receive real-time advice on their experiences. Among the applications studied, all of them offer monitoring of both food intake and physical activity through a diary system. Participants are required to enter daily data relating to their consumption and physical activity. All of the articles selected for our literature review present significant results in terms of weight loss during the programme. Brindal 2013; Gasser 2006; Lee 2010; Mattila 2010; Seto 2014 highlight, in particular, the effectiveness of the applications in terms of weight loss. Studying the «Smart Diet» application, Lee (2010) emphasizes the effectiveness of positive and encouraging messages to help control food intake as opposed to using negative messages. Gasser (2006) shows a difference in participant involvement, with women obtaining better

une grande partie de la population mondiale et peuvent être intégrées dans le quotidien des utilisateurs sans contraintes. Elles permettent de recevoir des messages personnalisés, adaptés aux préférences de l'utilisateur, à tout moment de la journée et pratiquement partout. Les utilisateurs ont ainsi la possibilité de recevoir des conseils en temps réel sur leurs expériences. Parmi les applications étudiées, toutes proposent un suivi à la fois de la prise alimentaire et de l'activité physique à travers un système de journal. Les participants sont amenés à rentrer quotidiennement les données relatives à leur consommation et à leur activité physique. L'ensemble des articles retenus pour notre revue de littérature présente des résultats significatifs quant à une perte de poids durant le programme. Brindal 2013 ; Gasser 2006 ; Lee 2010 ; Mattila 201 ; Seto 2014 mettent plus particulièrement en évidence l'efficacité des applications quant à la perte de poids. Etudiant l'application « Smart Diet », Lee (2010) souligne l'efficacité des messages positifs et encourageants pour favoriser le contrôle de la prise alimentaire contrairement à l'utilisation de messages négatifs. Gasser (2006) démontre une différence d'implication des participants, les femmes ayant de meilleurs résultats que les hommes. D'après Breton (2011), un système de journal électronique est plus efficace qu'un journal papier. Parmi les techniques testées pour favoriser le changement d'habitude alimentaire figure l'émulation entre participants. Cette technique figure dans les études menées par Lee (2010), et Silva (2011). Cependant, l'article de Lee suggère un effet bénéfique de cette technique, sans pour autant atteindre des résultats statistiquement significatifs, et l'article de Silva mentionne la réussite du programme sans donner de résultats chiffrés.

Les articles concernant l'utilisation de SMS ou d'emails sont plus contrastés. Patrick et al., (2009) n'ont pas mesuré d'impact significatif des messages envoyés par SMS sur la perte de poids de jeunes femmes américaines en surpoids. D'autres programmes de santé utilisant des SMS ou emails pour des groupes ciblés et comparant les résultats avec des groupes de contrôle, montrent néanmoins des résultats significatifs pendant la durée du programme (Haapala 2009, Shaw 2013).

Enfin, les conclusions des articles portant sur l'utilisation de sites de coaching personnalisés sont elles aussi assez diverses. En particulier, Gold et al. (2007) montrent que l'intervention d'un thérapeute via un site internet augmente significativement l'efficacité du programme de lutte contre le surpoids, comparé à un site commercial de conseils mais sans intervention d'un thérapeute. Cependant Schneider et al. (2012) ont constaté que les participants avec un revenu plus faible avaient une plus forte tendance à ne pas suivre le programme jusqu'au bout.

Au final, les chercheurs signalent de façon répétée une utilisation décroissante du programme au long de la période d'intervention. Des changements de comportement ont certes été observés dans un certain nombre d'études

results than men. According to Breton (2011), an electronic journal system is more effective than a paper journal. One of the techniques tested to promote change in eating habits is rivalry among participants. This technique is included in the studies conducted by Lee (2010), and Silva (2011). However, Lee's article suggests a beneficial effect of this technique, without achieving statistically significant results, and Silva's article mentions the success of the programme without giving numerical results.

The articles concerning the use of SMS or email are more contrasted. Patrick et al. (2009) did not measure a significant impact of SMS messages on weight loss in overweight young American women. Other health programmes using SMS or email for targeted groups and comparing the results with control groups nevertheless show significant results over the duration of the programme (Haapala 2009; Shaw 2013).

Finally, the conclusions of the articles on the use of personalized coaching sites are also quite diverse. In particular, Gold et al. (2007) show that the intervention of a therapist via a website significantly increases the effectiveness of the excessive weight programme, compared to a commercial counselling site without the intervention of a therapist. However, Schneider et al. (2012) found that participants with lower incomes were more likely not to complete the programme.

In the end, the researchers repeatedly report declining programme use over the intervention period. Although behavioural changes have been observed in a number of studies, the impact remains small and only appears over a short period of time. The results nevertheless underline the interest of developing a targeted application with positive messages to reduce the difficulty encountered in managing weight loss alone, even if the literature review does not allow us to definitively rule out that one of the types of devices among those we identified may prove to be the most effective. It should be noted, however, that most of the evaluations, with mixed results, focused on extrinsic influencing factors. The motivation of participants, when it was - rarely - taken into account and measured, nevertheless appeared to be a decisive factor influencing behaviour change (Happala 2009; Plotnikoff 2010). Finally, there is little use of theoretical frameworks to justify the actions undertaken. Most of the articles meeting our research criteria have been published in scientific journals oriented towards nutrition and medicine, which could explain the greater importance given to empirical as opposed to the theoretical aspects.

3. Theoretical framework: SDT and health behaviour

The emphasis on motivation as a factor influencing programme effectiveness leads us to adopt the Self Determination Theory (SDT) as a theoretical framework to be applied to health-related behaviour change. According to

mais l'impact reste faible et ne se manifeste que sur une courte durée. Les résultats soulignent néanmoins l'intérêt du développement d'une application ciblée avec des messages positifs pour réduire la difficulté rencontrée à gérer seul la perte de poids, même si l'analyse de la littérature ne permet pas de statuer définitivement sur la meilleure efficacité d'un des types de dispositifs parmi ceux que nous avons repérés. Il faut toutefois constater que la plupart des évaluations, avec des résultats mitigés, se sont concentrées sur des facteurs d'influence extrinsèques. La motivation des participants, lorsqu'elle a été (rarement) prise en compte et mesurée, apparaît pourtant comme un facteur décisif d'influence du changement de comportement (Happala 2009 ; Plotnikoff, 2010). Enfin, on constate un faible recours à des cadres théoriques pour justifier les actions entreprises. La plupart des articles répondant à nos critères de recherche ont été publiés dans des revues scientifiques orientées vers la nutrition et la médecine, ce qui pourrait expliquer la plus grande importance donnée à la partie empirique vs la partie théorique.

3. Cadre théorique :

La SDT et le comportement de santé

La mise en valeur de la motivation comme facteur d'influence sur l'efficacité des programmes nous conduit à adopter comme cadre théorique la théorie de l'auto-détermination, ou SDT (Self-Determination Theory), appliquée au changement de comportement de santé. Selon la SDT, la reconnaissance de la détermination de la motivation est importante dans le changement de comportement (Ryan et Deci 2000a, 2000b ; Ryan et al. 2008). Selon ces auteurs, pour que la motivation puisse contribuer au changement de comportement, trois facteurs d'auto-détermination sont nécessaires et se combinent : (a) l'autonomie de l'individu, (b) sa compétence perçue, et (c) la sociabilité. Le concept de compétence renvoie à un sentiment d'efficacité sur son environnement qui stimule la curiosité, le goût d'explorer et de relever des défis. Ce sentiment d'efficacité ne suffit pas toutefois à susciter le sentiment d'être compétent ; il doit être accompagné aussi par un sentiment de prise en charge personnelle de l'effet à produire, ce que les auteurs qualifient d'autonomie. Enfin, la sociabilité, ou le besoin d'être en relation à autrui implique le sentiment d'appartenance et le sentiment d'être relié à des personnes qui sont importantes pour soi (La Guardia et al. 2000). Ressentir une attention délicate et sympathique confirme alors qu'on est quelqu'un de signifiant pour d'autres personnes et objet de sollicitude de leur part (Reis 1994).

En outre, le modèle de la SDT distingue les facteurs extrinsèques et intrinsèques qui vont peser sur la motivation (figure 1). Un comportement intrinsèquement motivé implique l'engagement actif de l'individu dans une action qu'il trouve intéressante per se sans qu'il soit nécessaire

the SDT, the recognition of motivational determination is important in behaviour change (Ryan and Deci 2000a, 2000b; Ryan et al. 2008). According to these authors, in order for motivation to contribute to behaviour change, three self-determination factors are necessary and combine: (a) individual autonomy, (b) perceived competence, and (c) sociability. The concept of competence refers to a feeling of being able to act effectively in one's environment and the feeling stimulates curiosity and a taste for exploration and challenge. However, this feeling of effectiveness is not enough to create a sense of competence; it must also be accompanied by a feeling of personal responsibility for the effect to be produced, which the authors describe as autonomy. Finally, sociability, or the need to relate to others, implies a sense of belonging and a feeling of being connected to people who are important to one's self (La Guardia et al. 2000). Feeling sensitive and sympathetic attention from others confirms that one is someone who is meaningful to others and a focus of their concern (Reis 1994).

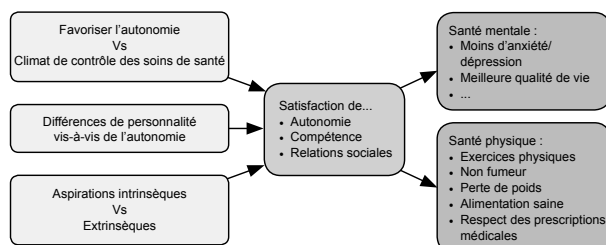
In addition, the SDT model distinguishes between extrinsic and intrinsic factors that will influence motivation (Figure 1). Intrinsically motivated behaviour involves the active engagement of the individual in an action that he or she finds interesting per se without the need for a reward perspective other than the activity itself (Utman 1997). Intrinsic motivation is associated with better learning, performance and well-being (La Guardia et al. 2000). It is experienced as an autonomous experience (Ryan and Deci 2000a). As these authors point out, however, many of our habitual actions tend to be extrinsically motivated. They are instrumental actions, which seek to achieve an objective other than that of the action itself.

The SDT model applied to health behaviour change suggests that more effective health programmes are able to meet participants' needs for autonomy, competence and relationships with others (Ryan et al. 2008) - see Figure 1 below. It distinguishes between intrinsic motivations that lead to the satisfaction of the three basic needs and extrinsic motivations that do not lead to long-term commitment (Deci and Ryan 2008). Etkin's (2016) results are consistent with this model: they suggest that the measurement process underlying self-quantification can be perceived as an external regulation of the subject and threaten the internal motivation that allows a programme's activities to continue.

d'avoir une perspective de récompense autre que cette activité elle-même (Utman 1997). La motivation intrinsèque est associée à un meilleur apprentissage, une meilleure performance et un plus grand bien-être (La Guardia et al. 2000). Elle est vécue comme une expérience d'autonomie (Ryan et Deci 2000a). Comme le soulignent ces auteurs, beaucoup de nos actions habituelles sont cependant plutôt extrinsèquement motivées. Ce sont des actions instrumentales, qui cherchent à atteindre un objectif autre que celui de l'action en elle-même.

Le modèle de la SDT appliqué au changement de comportement de santé suggère une efficacité plus grande des programmes de santé capables de répondre aux besoins d'autonomie, de compétence et de relations aux autres participants (Ryan et al. 2008) – voir Figure ci-dessous. Il distingue les motivations intrinsèques, sources de satisfaction des trois besoins fondamentaux, des motivations extrinsèques qui n'amènent pas à un engagement à long terme (Deci et Ryan 2008). Les résultats de Etkin (2016) sont conformes à ce modèle : ils suggèrent que le processus de mesure qui sous-tend la self-quantification peut être perçu comme une régulation externe au sujet et menacer la motivation interne qui permet le maintien des activités d'un programme.

Figure 1 : Self Determination Theory model of Health Behavior Change Ryan et al. (2008)

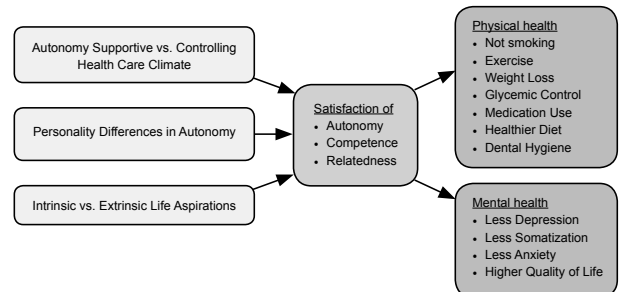


A l'issue de cette revue de littérature, la question que nous cherchons à résoudre concerne les conditions de création d'un design de dispositif connecté qui renforce la motivation intrinsèque des individus, afin que la satisfaction de leurs besoins d'autonomie, de compétence et de relation aux autres, les incite à s'engager dans un changement de comportement alimentaire sur le long terme. Pour cela, nous avons eu recours à une méthodologie de co-création qui va être présentée dans la partie suivante.

4. Méthodologie

Suivant les recommandations du programme transformatif de Mick et al. (2012), nous avons considéré les individus comme des experts concernant leurs motivations et les obstacles rencontrés pour adopter une

Figure 1: Self Determination Theory model of Health Behavior Change Ryan et al. (2008)



At the end of this literature review, the question we are seeking to resolve concerns the conditions for creating a connected device design that reinforces the intrinsic motivation of individuals, so that the satisfaction of their needs for autonomy, competence and relationship with others, encourages them to engage in a long-term change in eating behaviour. To do this, we used a co-creation methodology that will be presented in the following section.

4. Methodology

Following the recommendations of Mick et al. (2012)'s Transformative Agenda, we considered individuals as experts on their own motivations and barriers in attempting to adopt healthier diets and the support that connected devices have the potential to provide them with. We conducted qualitative research in the Paris region (France) with four focus groups to explore the motivations and barriers that reinforce or threaten the effectiveness of a digital healthier eating device. During the focus groups, we used an elicitation approach (Mattelmäki 2008) to co-explore which device and design could best help participants to lose weight in the long term, considering the participants to be collaborative actors. We also studied their motivations, their past experiences with dieting, and their expectations of several digital devices: two applications (one oriented towards playful and benevolent advice and the other being self-quantification oriented device), a Fitbit connected wristband and a Hapifork connected fork (a detailed description of the devices is presented in Appendix B).

The total sample consists of twenty-seven participants who have tried to lose weight in the last five years. The distribution of participants within the four focus groups ensures the representation of important criteria with regard to previous research findings, i.e. gender, social level and familiarity with connected devices (Appendix C specifies the composition of the groups).

All group interviews were recorded and transcribed. A thematic analysis was then carried out using NVivo,

alimentation plus saine et l'aide potentielle des appareils connectés. Nous avons mené une recherche qualitative en région parisienne (France) avec 4 focus groups pour explorer les motivations et les barrières qui renforcent ou menacent l'efficacité d'un dispositif numérique visant une alimentation plus saine. Au cours des focus groups, nous avons utilisé une approche d'élicitation (Mattelmäki 2008) pour co-explorer quel dispositif et quel design pourraient mieux aider les participants à perdre du poids à long terme, en considérant ces derniers comme des acteurs collaboratifs. Nous avons également étudié leurs motivations, leurs expériences passées en matière de régime alimentaire, et leurs attentes vis-à-vis de plusieurs dispositifs numériques : deux applications (une orientée vers des conseils ludiques et bienveillants, une plus orientée vers l'auto-quantification), un bracelet connecté Fitbit et une fourchette connectée Hapifork (une description détaillée des dispositifs est présentée en annexe B).

L'échantillon total se compose de vingt-sept participants, ayant essayé de perdre du poids au cours des cinq dernières années. La répartition des participants au sein des quatre focus groups assure la représentation de critères importants eu égard aux résultats des recherches précédentes, i.e. le sexe, le niveau social et la familiarité avec les dispositifs connectés (l'annexe C précise la composition des groupes).

L'ensemble des entretiens de groupe a été enregistré et retranscrit. Une analyse thématique a ensuite été conduite sous NVivo à partir des éléments d'évaluation des dispositifs présentés, et des éléments de co-construction d'un « dispositif idéal ».

5. Résultats

Notre analyse semble confirmer que l'autodétermination (Ryan et al. 2008) est un facteur important pour la motivation des participants et leur aptitude à se conformer à des messages personnalisés. Sur chaque dimension de la SDT, des tensions se font jour :

- La perception d'un contrôle externe exercé par les dispositifs connectés peut s'opposer au développement de l'autonomie individuelle ;
- On observe une forte temporalité du sentiment de compétence, entre la mobilisation des compétences et les périodes d'abandon ;
- Quant au rôle de la sociabilité, l'entourage peut être perçu aussi bien comme stigmatisant - explicitement ou non - les changements de comportement alimentaire ou, à l'inverse, comme apportant le soutien nécessaire à ces changements comportementaux.

En outre, les résultats mettent au jour la motivation comme facteur d'influence majeur par rapport au choix du type de dispositif utilisé (applications ou appareils connectés tels que Fitbit ou Hapifork) et au type de

basé sur les éléments d'évaluation des dispositifs présentés, et les éléments de co-construction d'un « idéal device system ».

5. Results

Our analysis seems to confirm that self-determination (Ryan et al. 2008) is an important factor in participants' motivation and ability to comply with personalized messages. For each dimension of the SDT, tensions emerge:

- The perception of external control exercised by the connected devices may come into conflict with individual autonomy being developed;
- Over time, we observe swings between that the feeling of competence; periods when skills are mobilized to achieve objectives are followed by periods of abandonment;
- As for the role of sociability, individuals may perceive their friends and acquaintances as stigmatizing – explicitly or not – changes in eating behavior, or, on the contrary, providing the necessary support for these behavioural changes.

In addition, the results reveal motivation as a major influencing factor with regard to the choice of the type of device used (applications or connected devices such as Fitbit or Hapifork) and the type of messages. Clearly, a user-friendly and personalized, guilt-free application is their preferred tool. They see it as their best ally in following a programme to improve their diet.

5.1. Evaluation of existing arrangements

We present, below, the main evaluation elements of the connected devices: connected fork (Hapifork), connected wristband (Fitbit), MyFitnessPal application, My Slimming Coach application (see description of the devices in Appendix B).

messages. Clairement, une application conviviale et personnalisée, non culpabilisante, est leur outil préféré. Ils le considèrent comme leur meilleur allié pour suivre un programme d'amélioration de leur alimentation.

5.1. L'évaluation des dispositifs existants

Nous présentons, ci-dessous, les principaux éléments d'évaluation des dispositifs connectés : fourchette connectée (Hapifork), bracelet connecté (Fitbit), application MyFitnessPal, et application Mon coach minceur (voir description des dispositifs en annexe 2).

Table 1

Principaux éléments d'évaluation des dispositifs connectés

| Dispositif | Avantages | Inconvénients | Verbatim |
|-------------------|---|---|--|
| Hapifork | Original Facile à utiliser | Dispositif stigmatisant Contraire à « l'art de vivre à la française » | « Ça retire complètement le plaisir de manger (...) Je pense qu'ils se sont gourés de pays, là c'est plus pour les USA, c'est pas pour la France » (Timothée) |
| FitBit | Un objet du quotidien pour prendre soin de soi. Un dispositif assez complet | Incertitude sur la qualité de l'information Coût élevé Risqué de « dépendance » à l'objet Des interrogations sur les questions d'utilisation des données personnelles | « Le côté médical est intéressant (...) (mais) c'est cher. » (Marie-Claire) « J'ai pas envie d'avoir un truc qui me suit toute la journée en me disant ce que j'ai pas fait de bien » (Catherine) |
| MyFitnessPal | Des fonctions appréciées : scan des produits manufacturés déterminant leurs apports ; tableaux de suivi personnel | Saisie des informations fastidieuse Messages invasifs Risque d'utilisation abusive des données (...) | « C'est fastidieux le comptage des calories » (Damien) « Ce qui serait génial, c'est que tu piques ce que tu manges et, tout de suite, ça te dit ce que tu manges » (Stéphane) |
| Mon Coach Minceur | Avatar amusant et motivant Conseils alimentaires appréciés | Risque de lassitude et d'infantilisme Risque d'activités inappropriées Risque d'utilisation abusive des données | « Le jeu entraîne la motivation parce qu'on a envie de réussir à faire évoluer son personnage » (Jordan) « Sensible aux encouragements d'un ordinateur?... ça non ! » (Matthieu) |

5.2. Co-création d'un dispositif connecté idéal

L'évaluation des dispositifs existants a permis de nourrir une réflexion collective pour co- construire un dispositif « idéal » pour les participants. Ces derniers plébiscitent unanimement un dispositif de type « application ». La demande explicite vis-à-vis des dispositifs existants est de simplifier l'utilisation de l'application et de garantir l'utilisation des données.

Table 1

Key Elements for Evaluating Connected Devices

| Device | Pros | Cons | Quotes |
|-------------------|---|---|---|
| Hapifork | Original device; easy to use | Stigmatizing device. In contrast to the French way of life | « It totally takes away the pleasure of eating ». « I think they got the wrong country, that's more for the US, not for France » |
| FitBit | Object of everyday life to take care of one's health. Complete device for monitoring one's objectives | Questionable reliability; high cost; Risk of dependency; concern about the use of data | « The medical aspect is appealing (but) it's expensive » « I don't want something that's going to follow me around all day telling me I haven't done the right thing » |
| MyFitnessPal | Scan of manufactured products appreciated; Useful dashboards | Binding entry; invasive messages; risk of inappropriate activities; risk of misuse of data | « Counting calories is fastidious » « It would be great if you could stick something into what you're eating and straight away it would tell you what you're eating » |
| Mon Coach Minceur | Fun and motivating avatar; popular eating tips | Risk of weariness and infantilism; risk of inappropriate activities; risk of misuse of data | « The game makes you motivated because you want to be able to make your character progress ». « Responsive to encouragement from a computer? No way! » |

5.2. Co-creation of an ideal connected device

The evaluation of the existing systems allowed for a collective reflection in order to jointly build an «ideal» system for the participants. The participants were unanimous in their support for an «application» type system. The explicit request with regard to existing devices is to simplify the use of the application and to guarantee the use of the data.

« Personally I know I'm pretty reluctant to enter data, etc. having my smartphone in front of me when I am exercising, I'm not interested in that at all. »

Expected additional features include:

- access to knowledge that can be accessed during «dead» or quiet times (transport, rest periods at the end of the day, etc.),
- simulation tools,
- health programmes designed according to the user's «profile»,
- the possibility of sharing with trusted third parties (medical profession or relatives),
- the possibility to use the application to schedule, real-life encounters, for example for a sporting activity that is more fun when shared (going for a run, etc.).

« A titre perso je sais que je suis assez réfractaire justement à rentrer les données, etc., avoir le Smartphone sous mes yeux pendant que je fais une séance de sport ça ne m'intéresse pas du tout »

Les fonctionnalités complémentaires qui sont attendues recouvrent :

- un accès à des connaissances auxquelles on peut accéder lors de temps « morts » ou de temps calmes (transport, temps de repos en fin de journée, ...),
- des outils de simulation,
- des programmes de santé conçus selon le «profil»,
- la possibilité de partager avec des tiers de confiance (corps médical ou proches),
- la possibilité de programmer, au travers de cette application des rencontres réelles, par exemple pour une rencontre sportive qui est plus ludique lorsqu'elle est partagée (aller courir, etc.).

Ces différentes dimensions de l'application idéale sont reprises, ainsi que les verbatim, dans le tableau suivant qui les met en regard avec les variables de satisfaction mises en évidence par Ryan et ses collègues (Ryan et al. 2008).

Table 2

Dimensions de l'application idéale

| Dimensions du dispositif idéal co-« créé » par les participants | Verbatim | Effet sur la satisfaction des besoins (Ryan et al., 2008) |
|---|---|---|
| Une application | « (Une app), ça permet de voir ses progrès, d'être autonome » | Autonomie |
| Facile à utiliser | « Assez facile à lire » | Compétence |
| Avec une garantie sur l'utilisation des données | « sécurisé » | Vie privée |
| Des fonctionnalités personnalisables | « Vous pouvez personnaliser (...) une option de sommeil (...) une option de recette » | Compétence |
| ... un accès à des connaissances | « Vous pouvez ... regarder une vidéo qui vous donne des conseils dans le métro » | Autonomie |
| ... des outils de simulation ou de suivi | « Récupérer des données pour mieux performer (...) comme un score » | Autonomie |
| ... un partage de données avec des tiers de confiance | « Quand vous partagez ..., vous (pouvez) vous inspirer (...) des expériences des autres » | Lien social |
| ... des rencontres en présentiel | « Avoir une option ... pour ceux qui voudraient courir ensemble » | Lien social |

These different dimensions of the ideal application are listed, along with the verbatim, in the following table, which compares them with the satisfaction variables highlighted by Ryan et al. (2008).

Table 2

Dimensions of the ideal application

| Dimensions of co-designed device | Verbatim | Effect on satisfaction of... (Ryan et al. 2008) |
|---|--|---|
| Application | "(An app) allows you to see your progress, to be autonomous" | Autonomy |
| Easy to use | "Fairly easy to read right away" | Competence |
| Guarantee of the use of data | "Secure" | Privacy |
| Various programmes for various profiles | "You could personalize (...) a sleep option (...) a recipe option" | Competence |
| Access to knowledge (tutorials, etc.) | "You can (...) watch a video on the metro that gives you advice" | Autonomy |
| Access to simulation or score cards | "Recover data to perform better (...) like a score" | Autonomy |
| Programme and data shared with trusted recipients | "When you share (...), you always take inspiration from the experiences of others" | Relatedness |
| Allowing face-to-face relationships (appointment for sport, etc.) | "Having an option (...) for those who'd like to run together" | Relatedness |

6. Discussion

The contributions of this research cover, it seems to us, theoretical and methodological aspects.

On a theoretical level, we contribute to the design of transformative services, an emerging field in the marketing field. We validate the value of the SDT framework in understanding the motivations of overweight consumers for improved nutrition. These consumers want to empower themselves and reject external control. They aspire to having supportive and encouraging relationships. On the other hand, those least educated and least familiar with information technology participants are wary of the risks associated with digital devices; in fact, a new variable appears in our study which is linked to the ability of digital service operators to collect a large amount of personal data; consumers are wary of the use that can be made of this data by commercial companies and want to

6. Discussion

Les contributions de cette recherche recouvrent, nous semble-t-il, des aspects théoriques et méthodologiques. Sur le plan théorique, nous apportons une contribution à la conception de services transformatifs, un domaine émergent dans le champ du marketing. Nous validons l'intérêt du cadre de la SDT pour comprendre les motivations des consommateurs en surpoids vis-à-vis d'une amélioration de leur alimentation. Ces derniers souhaitent renforcer leur autonomie et leurs compétences et rejettent le contrôle externe. Ils aspirent à une relation de soutien et d'encouragement. Par ailleurs, les participants les moins éduqués et les moins familiarisés avec les technologies de l'information se méfient des risques liés aux dispositifs numériques. De fait, une nouvelle variable apparaît dans notre étude qui est liée à la capacité des opérateurs de services numériques de collecter une grande quantité de données personnelles. Les consommateurs sont vigilants à l'utilisation qui peut être faite de ces données par des entreprises commerciales et souhaitent obtenir des garanties sur cet aspect. Sur le plan méthodologique, nous montrons l'intérêt d'utiliser des supports pour encourager le co-design de solutions innovantes avec les consommateurs. Ces supports ont facilité l'expression sur un sujet lié au corps et à la perception des images corporelles, qui est un sujet délicat à aborder en groupe. De même, l'approche ludique utilisant des supports comme les post-it, les panneaux, etc. a été clairement axée sur la construction collective de fonctionnalités pour un objet connecté « idéal » et a favorisé la mise en commun des « insights », avec une moindre efficacité toutefois chez les personnes les moins éduquées ou les moins utilisatrices des nouvelles technologies.

7. Limites et voies de recherche

Pour des raisons de convenance, notre étude empirique a été réalisée en région parisienne ; ce faisant, elle pourrait négliger des aspects qui se matérialiseraient dans des zones plus rurales. Nous avons constaté que les participants les moins éduqués avaient des difficultés accrues en termes d'autonomie et de compétences, et des résistances plus marquées vis-à-vis des dispositifs testés. Une recherche plus centrée auprès de personnes vulnérables devra prendre en compte cet aspect, et identifier des dispositifs de recherche qui leur permettent de s'exprimer, sans doute de façon moins verbale et plus ludique (Dietrich et al. 2017).

Cette difficulté fait écho à l'appropriation contrastée des dispositifs de type smartphone au sein de la population française, souvent désignée sous le terme de fracture numérique (pour un développement plus fin, voir : Granjon 2011). Pour ne prendre que l'aspect de l'accès au numérique, si 87% des diplômés du supérieur avaient adopté

obtenir des garanties en ce domaine.

On the methodological level, we show the interest of using supporting material to encourage the co-design of innovative solutions with consumers. Such supporting material made it easier for people to express themselves on a subject related to the body and the perception of body images, which is a delicate subject to address in a group. Similarly, the playful approach using media such as post-it notes, panels, etc. was clearly focused on the collective construction of functionalities for an «ideal» connected object and encouraged the sharing of «insights», albeit with less effectiveness among the less educated or the less tech-savvy.

7. Limitations and avenues of research

For reasons of convenience, our empirical study was carried out in the Paris region; in doing so, it may overlook aspects that would materialize in more rural areas. We found that the least educated participants had greater difficulties in terms of autonomy and skills, and greater resistance to the devices tested. More focused research with vulnerable people will need to take this into account, and identify research devices that allow them to express themselves, perhaps in less verbal and more playful ways (Dietrich et al. 2017).

This difficulty echoes the contrasting appropriation of smartphone-type devices among the French population, often referred to as the digital divide (for a more detailed discussion, see: Granjon 2011). To consider the question of digital access alone, though 87% of university graduates were using such equipment in 2017, only 39% of non-graduates had access to it. The divide is linked to the level of education, itself very marked by the generational aspect, since the graduation rate in France has increased by nearly 30% in 30 years. Research that is more focused on vulnerable people, who are the most affected by excessive weight and obesity, will have to take these aspects into account and identify research devices that allow them to express themselves, probably in a less verbal and more playful way (Dietrich et al. 2017).

8. Managerial implications

Our results have implications both for operators of «digital» health services and for public authorities.

For the former, the results point to the need to think about and communicate the steps to be taken to safeguard and process the personal data collected from consumers. It is only by obtaining a guarantee that their data will be secured by the service operator and that it will be used ethically that a growing number of smartphone users will turn to these devices to manage their health.

As far as the public authorities are concerned, the recommendation is to take into account the diversity of the public and to co-construct schemes accessible to

cet équipement en 2017, seuls 39% des non diplômés y avaient accès. La fracture est liée au niveau d'éducation, lui-même très marqué par l'aspect générationnel, puisque le taux de diplômés a crû en France de près de 30% en 30 ans. Une recherche plus centrée auprès de personnes vulnérables, qui sont les plus touchées par le surpoids et l'obésité, devra prendre en compte ces aspects et identifier des dispositifs de recherche qui leur permettent de s'exprimer, sans doute de façon moins verbale et plus ludique (Dietrich et al. 2017).

8. Implications managériales

Nos résultats ont des implications, tant pour les opérateurs de services de santé « numériques » que pour les pouvoirs publics.

Pour les premiers, les résultats pointent la nécessité de penser et communiquer les démarches de sauvegarde et de traitement des données personnelles collectées auprès des consommateurs. Ce n'est qu'en obtenant la garantie d'une sécurisation de leurs données par l'opérateur de services et d'une utilisation éthique de celles-ci, qu'un nombre grandissant d'utilisateurs de smartphone se tournera vers ces dispositifs pour gérer sa santé.

En ce qui concerne les pouvoirs publics, la recommandation est de prendre en compte la diversité des publics et de co-construire les dispositifs accessibles aux populations vulnérables, celles qui ont un besoin majeur d'accompagnement vers des pratiques saines en matière d'alimentation et d'activité physique. Restera un défi, celui de l'accessibilité aux objets connectés pour les personnes les plus touchées par l'épidémie d'obésité, qu'il s'agisse de sites internet, smartphone ou dispositifs de type bracelets et montre. En effet, on observe des disparités dans la population. Pour la France, certes la prévalence du surpoids (obésité incluse) des adultes est restée stable entre 2006 et 2015, de l'ordre de 49 %, et celle spécifique de l'obésité s'est maintenue à 17 % (ESEN 2017). La même étude pointe toutefois l'influence continue du niveau de diplôme sur la prévalence du surpoids. Ce dernier est resté supérieur chez les personnes les moins diplômées, alors qu'il a continué de diminuer progressivement à mesure que le niveau de diplôme augmentait. Cet écart s'est amplifié chez les hommes, la différence de prévalence selon le niveau de diplôme devenant significative dans l'étude de 2015 (annexe A). Cette influence se remarque également chez les femmes, même si la tendance à une augmentation de la prévalence du surpoids et de l'obésité se note dans toutes les tranches d'éducation. L'une des conséquences pour la prévention est donc la nécessité de toucher de manière engageante et durable les personnes les moins diplômées, qui sont souvent des personnes appartenant aux couches sociales les moins favorisées, comme le rappelle une étude récente (Dherbécourt 2018). La recherche en TSR peut ainsi contribuer à éclairer les décisions publiques de prévention.

vulnerable populations, those who have a major need for support towards healthy eating and physical activity practices. One challenge that will remain is the accessibility of connected devices for the people most affected by the obesity epidemic, be it websites, smartphones or devices such as bracelets and watches. Indeed, there are disparities in the population. For France, the prevalence of excessive weight (including obesity) among adults remained stable between 2006 and 2015, at around 49%, and the prevalence of obesity specifically remained at 17% (ESEN 2017). However, the same study points to the continuing influence of educational attainment on the prevalence of excessive weight. The prevalence of excessive weight remained higher among those with the lowest level of education, while it continued to decrease progressively as educational attainment increased. This difference was even greater among men, with the difference in prevalence by level of education becoming significant in the 2015 study (Appendix A). This influence is also seen in women, although the trend towards increasing prevalence of excessive weight and obesity is seen in all education groups. One of the consequences for prevention is therefore the need to reach out in an engaging and sustainable way to the least educated, who are often people from the least privileged social strata, as a recent study (Dherbécourt 2018) points out TSR research can thus contribute to informing public decisions on prevention.

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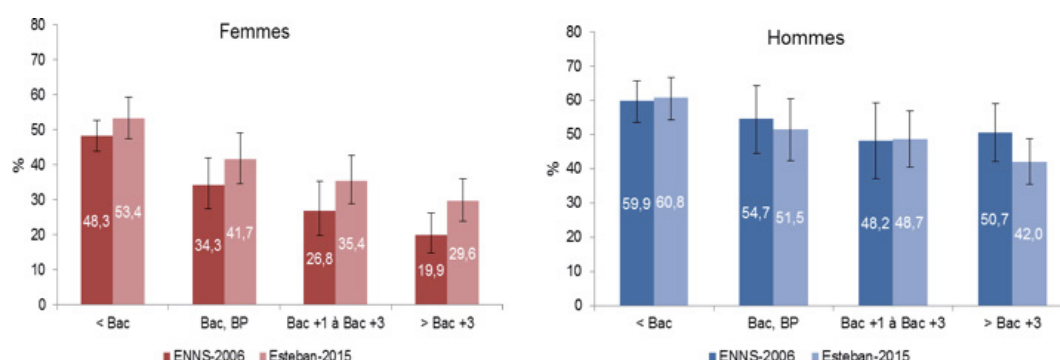
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Annexes/Appendixes

Annexe A : Prévalence du surpoids (obésité incluse)* chez les hommes et les femmes Source : ESEN (2017)
Appendix A: Prevalence of overweight (including obesity)* in men and women (ESEN 2017)

Prévalence du surpoids (obésité incluse)* chez les hommes et les femmes de 18-74 ans selon le sexe et le diplôme**, comparaison ENNS 2006 / Esteban 2015
 Prevalence of overweight (including obesity)* in males and females aged 18-74 by sex and degree**, comparison ENNS 2006 / Esteban 2015



* Le surpoids est défini par un IMC $\geq 25,0$ selon les références de l'OMS.

* Overweight is defined by a BMI ≥ 25.0 according to WHO references.

** Le diplôme rend compte du diplôme d'enseignement général ou technique le plus élevé que la personne a obtenu ; il est exprimé en 4 classes.

** The diploma reflects the highest general or technical education diploma that the person has obtained; it is expressed in four classes.

Annexe B : Dispositifs connectés testés

Appendix B: Connected devices tested



Annexe C :

Echantillon, composition des quatre focus groups

| Femmes | Hommes |
|---|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 25-60 ans (âge moyen: 49) • Niveau d'éducation : inférieur à Bac + 3 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 25-60 ans (âge moyen: 43) • Peu familiers avec les technologies de l'information |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 25-60 ans (âge moyen: 33) • Niveau d'éducation : inférieur à Bac + 3 et plus | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 25-60 ans (âge moyen: 44) • Très familiers avec les technologies de l'information |

Appendix C:

Sample, composition of the four focus groups

| Women | Men |
|--|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 25-60 years (average age: 49) • Level of education: less than Baccalaureate + 3 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 25-60 years (average age: 43) • Unfamiliar with information technology |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 25-60 years (average age: 33) • Level of education: Baccalaureate + 3 and over | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 25-60 years (average years: 44) • Very familiar with information technology |

Revisiting Segmentation for the Performing Arts: Strategic Implications

Abstract

Academic research on the topic of the performing arts is limited. Moreover, the heterogeneous nature of the performing arts means that consumers may present substantial differences in profile, expectations and behaviors. Therefore, one may question the validity of existing segmentation research across the various performing arts genres. The purpose of this paper is to identify specificities and similarities across the various forms of performing arts in terms of customer profiles and behaviors and to determine potential differences in predictors of attendance. The following forms of performing arts were considered for this research: classical music, opera, ballet, musicals and theater. The findings reveal that performing arts managers should develop differentiated marketing strategies to expand their customer base.

Key words: Performing arts, segmentation, arts marketing, performing arts consumers

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Introduction and objectives

In the broad field of entertainment, the performing arts have a place apart. Chronically under-funded compared to sports organizations, the performing arts are frequently believed to be elitist and oriented toward wealthy arts patrons. This perception is enduring in the United States and perpetuating itself from generation to generation. The U.S. model is indeed fundamentally different from the German one where the performing arts are funded by the government and are attracting a broader portion of the population (Huntington 2007). American performing arts managers are therefore confronted to significant dilemma as they need to fundraise and attract wealthy donors to fund their performances while conserving their artistic freedom. Facing shrinking attendance, the performing arts managers need to regain independence by attracting new customer segments to their performances and by energizing their current customer base. Two aspects become therefore fundamental: What is the potential extended target market for the performing arts? What are the expectations of the various segments, the current customer base and the potential customer base? What are their predictors of attendance? Another important question stems from the diversity of performing arts genres. The literature typically distinguishes between the classic form of the performing arts that include opera, classical concerts, ballet and classic plays and the more modern or popular forms such as jazz concerts, musicals, theater, modern dance. It is not certain that the same segmentation criteria apply across genres and that findings could be generalized. It is not certain either that the traditional marketing theories will apply equally well. Academic research on the performing arts is limited compared to other sectors. The purpose of this paper is to provide practical and actionable recommendations to performing arts executives and to contribute to the broader fields of arts marketing and service marketing. The present research has selected the following performing arts genres to be investigated: opera, classical music concerts, ballet, theater and musicals. These genres were chosen because they represented both the classic and the modern forms of performing arts. They also had a strong presence in the community we were surveying. The paper is organized the following way: After reviewing the current literature, we will outline the methodology and the research design. The subsequent sections will present the empirical research findings and will be followed by managerial implications and conclusions.

Literature review

Spanning four decades the performing arts literature provides good foundations for additional research. In 1979, Rothschild (1979) started questioning the applicability of generic marketing theories to the performing arts and believed that it was necessary to develop unique models for this sector. Andreassen and Belk (1980) were among the first to conduct segmentation research in that regard. Although they were at times challenged for their "elitist" approach (Huntington 2007), many authors have built on their findings over the years.

They identified six segments in the U.S. population. 1) The "passive homebody" who are mostly interested in passive family activities at home such as watching television, 2) the "active sports enthusiasts" who have a very negative attitude toward the performing arts and are active sport enthusiasts, 3) the "inner-directed who are interested in outdoors and family activities but not engaged in cultural activities, 4) the "culture patrons" who are highly engaged in the performing arts, 5) the "active homebodies" who are family and home oriented and are generally negative about the performing arts because they are not socially engaged, 6) the "socially active" who love to entertain their peers, are informed about the performing arts but do not attend often. They believed that groups four and six are the best potential targets for the performing arts and that minimal efforts should be deployed toward the other groups. This view is challenged by Huntington (2007) who describes the German performing arts market as highly inclusive of non-traditional segments. Huntington believes that in the U.S. the target market could also be widely expanded beyond the traditional segments.

Understanding the reasons why certain segments frequently attend performing arts shows and others do not, is of course particularly relevant to this present research. Along the years, several scholars have presenting interesting findings in this regard: Oliver (1999) along with Bagozzi et al. (1999) and Maio and Esses (2001) argue that the frequent and casual attendees have different expectations for attending: frequent attendees are looking for an emotional experience while casual patrons are simply seeking entertainment and have no loyalty to a specific genre. They are more opportunistic in their approach and more value oriented. Those patrons are also more likely to notice the peripheral components of the performance such as complimentary refreshments and seating upgrades that increase the performance value. According to Oliver (1999) the "entertainment seekers" have been neglected because of their low engagement. Hume et al. (2006) complemented these findings and believed that the highly involved art patrons could be further divided into two groups depending on whether, their goals for attending performing arts events are intrinsic or extrinsic: intrinsic goals are emotional and intellectual, they are focused on personal hedonism while extrinsic goals are social goals. In a more recent research Kolhede et al. (2016) profiled the infrequent patrons and identified two categories: the "fringe" customers who respond mostly to personal benefits from the core product such as quality of the performance and "disinclined" customers who

respond mostly to peripheral benefits such as the venue and the opportunity to socialize.

Authors have also tried to predict attendance to various performing arts events. Andreasen and Belk (1980) believed that income levels and social groups were strong predictors of attendance. They also identified a correlation between early childhood involvement in the performing arts and future patronage. Early childhood exposure to the performing arts was also recognized as a predictor of future attendance by Colbert (2003). Across the literature, age seems to be an essential determinant of choices and behaviors (Levi-Garbova and Montmarquette 2002, Seaman 2005, Willis and Snowball (2009) but Swanson and al. (2008) believe that it does not fully explain demand patterns in the performing arts.

However, one important question remains. Can we generalize these findings across the various forms of performing arts? Dimaggio et al. (1978), Peterson (1992), Chan and Golthorpe (2005, 2007) noticed that frequent performing arts attendees are not partial to one genre while occasional attendees are usually more exclusive to a specific genre. They named them the omnivores and univores respectively. Considering these results can we conclude that the findings could be generalized across performing arts genres for frequent attendees but not for occasional attendees? Furthermore, Brown (2007) demonstrates that being interested in one genre of performing arts may predict attendance in another genre. For example, interest in Broadway performances negatively influences attendance to classical chamber concerts. He also identified different expectations and profiles from consumers depending on their preferred performing arts form. Chytкова et al. (2012) believe that the benefits sought by attendees vary depending on the performing arts genres: for example, a theater consumer may be more concerned about the casting than an opera consumer who focuses on the quality of the performance. Kolb (2000) believes that each performing art genre has a code: for example, the typical audience to classical music concert is middle class and minimally interested in peripheral service components such as the venue, decors, lighting or dress. On the other hand, popular music concerts are more focused on generating emotions and interactions from attendees.

Research question and hypotheses

To complement and build on the existing literature the author decided to test the existing segmentation theories across various performing arts genres and to revisit the current assumptions in terms of attendance predictors. The following hypotheses were therefore developed:

The hypotheses are organized around the traditional segmentation criteria that have been used in performing arts research. More specifically from a demographic perspective, the validity of income, education, family lifecycle, age, and occupation as valid segmentation criteria were tested in hypotheses H1 to H5.

H1: Household income is a valid segmentation base for the performing arts sector

H2: Education is a valid segmentation base for the performing arts sector

H3: Family lifecycle is a valid segmentation base for the performing arts sector

H4: Age is a valid segmentation base for the performing arts sector

H5: Occupation is a valid segmentation base for the performing arts sector

The following hypotheses, H6 to H8 tested the discriminatory power of select psychographic and behavioral characteristics as segmentation criteria.

H6: Desire for social interaction is a valid segmentation criterion for the performing arts sector

H7: Childhood engagement in the performing art is a valid segmentation criterion

H8: Sports attendance is a valid segmentation criterion for the performing arts sector

Last, H9 tests the predictive powers of various variables for the different forms of performing arts and compares the results. Due to the diverse audience, it is expected that the predictors of attendance will vary substantially across genres.

H9: Repurchase Intentions (RI) vary across performing arts genres

These hypotheses were tested by using an online survey instrument. As recommended by Andreasen and Belk (1980), participants were screened by asking two preliminary questions verifying that they had been exposed to at least one form of performing arts in the past 24 months. The questionnaire used existing scales (from 1 to 5) previously tested in the academic literature. Details about the constructs and items are presented below:

Table 1 Constructs

| Constructs | Items | Cronbach alpha | Authors |
|-----------------------------------|---|----------------|---|
| VENUE | Clean, attractive and convenient public areas Visually appealing Easy to move around | .846 | Dabholkar et al. (1996) |
| SERVICE STAFF | Staff is well dressed Staff is well trained Staff is courteous | .778 | Huang (2009) |
| AUGMENTED SERVICES | Food and beverage Reception with cast Preferred seating Discounted tickets Babysitting Transportation Bundled package | .789 | Currim et al. (1981) Huang (2009) |
| SOCIAL | Develop business or political connections Socialize with peers Develop new relationships Reconnect with friends | .878 | Huang (2009) |
| REPURCHASE INTENTIONS (RI) | Look forward to attending Would like to attend more often I will see another performance soon I will choose the performing arts over other forms of entertainment I will choose to spend my entertainment budget on the performing arts | .852 | Oliver and Swan (1989). Gottlieb et al. (1994) Hume and Mort (2006) |
| PERFORMERS | Professionalism of the performers Performers' interaction with the audience Renowned performers Highly skilled performers | .616 | Huang (2009) |

The items used to measure emotions were extracted from the articles by Bagozzi et al. (1999), Lijander and Mattsson (2002), Bagozzi (1997), and Maio and Esses (2001). Frequency of participation questions were inspired by Borgonovi (2004). Lifestyle questions such as “play a musical instrument” or “participation in a performing arts production” and “childhood socialization question” were extracted from the Andreasen and Belk (1980) article.

Findings

The sample was first divided into three categories according to their level of attendance: low frequency attendees who attend less than once a year, moderate frequency attendees who attend once a year and up to two or three times a year and high frequency attendees who attend every two months or more. The three segments were compared using cross-tabulation and one-way Anova. Results are presented in appendix 1. Ballet results were omitted due to the low number of respondents in certain categories. The following traits seem to characterize the various segments across the various performing arts genres: the most frequent attendees seem to have been exposed to the performing arts since childhood (Andreasen and Belk 1980). Their friends and colleagues are also regular attendees. Not surprisingly high frequency attendees also donate to the performing arts. Other characteristics are specific to the performing arts genres. Frequent attendees to theater and musicals seem to have children below the age of 18. These two genres are perceived as “family-friendly” while it is the opposite for opera and classical music events. Theater seems to interest both genders equally while musicals attracts more females and opera and classical music events attract more males. Age and occupation do not seem to influence attendance to musicals and theater performances but frequent attendees to opera and classical music concerts are predominantly over 50 years old, males and professionals. Frequent attendees to theater are open to surprises and do not think that it is very important to be familiar with the shows while frequent attendees to opera and classical concerts are concerned about quality and prefer renowned artists and familiar performances. They want to feel “special” when they attend a performance and expect the show to bring them emotions. Theater and musicals attendees do not seem to seek these types of feelings. These performances are usually more casual. Attention to the venue seems to be a little more specific to theater attendees where low to medium frequency attendees consider that it is very important to them.

To identify common segmentations bases across the various performing arts genres a cluster analysis using the two-steps cluster method was conducted. 22 items were considered, and three clusters were obtained. The cluster quality was fair. To describe and compare the clusters, the three categories were subsequently used as a categorical variable and the means of the continuous variables in the questionnaire were compared in an ANOVA. Cross-tabulations were used to examine other categorical variables. The results are presented in appendix 2.

Cluster 1 was named the “aficionados” cluster. This cluster counts 306 respondents. They tend to be older than the other clusters, over 40, and college educated, are likely to be seasons ticket subscribers who participate or have participated in performing arts shows. There are also interested in the visual arts and visit art galleries very regularly. Theater performances are among their favorites: they belong in the high frequency groups of theater attendees and medium to high frequency groups for the other genres of performing arts. Aficionados have a high commitment to the performing arts and are regular donors. These patrons are mostly interested in the performance itself and are concerned about the quality of the show and the professionalism (mean of 4.12) of the performers who they expect to be highly skilled (mean of 4.07). They have a broad knowledge of the performing arts and are eager to discover new performances. Socializing at a performing arts event is not their goal. They are not interested in the peripheral components of the show. The aficionados were exposed to the performing arts as children. Attending a performance is a way of life.

Cluster 2 was named the “Social Butterflies”. They represent a total of 121 respondents in the sample. The social butterflies are younger than the aficionados and slightly less educated. Committed to the performing arts this segment counts many seasons tickets subscribers and regular donors. This group is highly experiential and hedonist. The social butterflies want to feel “special” when they attend an event. Opera performances are among their favorite in that regard. These consumers have a holistic approach and consider that peripheral components such as the venue and the staff are as important as the core performance. They like to be familiar with a show when they attend, and to be educated about it. They also expect high quality from the performers (professionalism 4.55, skills 4.49). Most have been exposed to the performing arts from childhood and are likely to play an instrument and to participate in a show. They are also avid visitors to art galleries and museums and are the most frequent patrons to the performing arts. They like to make it a night when they attend a performance and combine the show with a dinner at the restaurant. The desire to socialize at performing arts events is probably their strongest distinction with the other groups. It is very important for them to meet their peers and to develop new contacts.

Cluster 3 accounted for 234 individuals in this sample and was named the “disengaged”. This group is the least committed to the performing arts. The disengaged are value oriented and opportunistic when attending performing arts events. It is not their favorite form of entertainment and they are usually low frequency attendees. This group is not particularly interested in the arts and does not visit art galleries and museums frequently. They were not involved in the

performing arts as children and have never been active participants. Most do not play an instrument. Since they are not interested in the arts it is not surprising that they do not donate. The disengaged are looking for “deals”, discounted tickets, good seats. They pay attention to the peripheral components of the performance such as the venue and staff. They do not attend a performing arts event for socializing because their peers do not typically attend. Performances do not make them feel special and do not meet their emotional needs. These customers are often younger than 30 and are the least educated.

A series of linear regressions were subsequently conducted to identify the predictors of repurchase intentions (RI). The goals were to identify potential universal predictors across the various performing arts genres and specificities across performing arts forms and customer segments. Results are presented in appendix 3. The first linear regression series was conducted on the entire sample and the subsequent regressions considered subsets of the sample according to the respondents' preference for performing arts genres. Due to the smaller numbers of respondents, the regressions conducted on the opera and the ballet customers did not yield significant results. The key “universal” predictors of RI across performing arts genres seem to be exposure to the performing arts growing up, and the hedonic effect of the experience that makes people “feel special”. Not surprisingly donating frequently and listening to recording performances are also predictors. There is also a social impact component that may slightly influence attendance. Last, visiting arts galleries and museums is positively correlated to attendance while attending sports events is negatively correlated. However, the importance of these predictors varies slightly across performing arts genres. For example, the variable “I had interest in the performing arts growing up” seems to be a significant predictor for the three forms of performing arts that are being considered (classical music concerts, musicals and theater) but is particularly influential in predicting classical music concert attendance (coefficient of .526). Other predictors do not carry across the three genres: for example, “interest for the visual arts” is a predictor for classical music concerts and theater but not for musicals. Donating to the performing arts is a predictor for both musicals and theater but not for classical music. “feeling special” is also a predictor of attendance for musicals and theater but not for classical concerts. Musicals attendees pay attention to functional components of the performance such as cleanliness of the venue and training of the staff but for both musicals and theater attendees seem to prefer a casual and laid-back atmosphere. Theater goers seem to have some interest in the social aspect of the performance and like to develop new relationships but not business or political connections. It is interesting that the marital status may predict theater attendance. Married couples seem to attend more frequently.

Discussion and conclusions

In summary the findings in the present research are to be organized into two different categories: segmentation and profiling of performing arts attendees, and predictors of attendance.

From a segmentation perspective, the present findings slightly depart from the existing literature in some regards: contrary to the research by Andreasen and Belk (1980) and the common belief, income and occupation did not appear to play a role in attendance frequency. Therefore, H1 and H5 were not confirmed. Other demographics such as age and education were stronger discriminant factors. H2 and H4 were therefore confirmed. It is interesting to note that families with children younger than 18 were more inclined to choose musicals and theater performances than opera and classical concerts, confirming H3. In this research, age, family lifecycle and education are clearly identified as stronger demographic segmentation criteria, than income or occupation.

The profiling results from the cluster analysis were for the most part consistent with the existing literature. Three categories of attendees were identified and profiled across the various performing arts genres. These results are consistent with the work of Andreasen and Belk (1980), and Humes et al. (2006). Among the most frequent attendees we find two groups, the “aficionados” and the “social butterflies”. Both segments are committed to the performing arts and donate regularly. The third group, named the “disengaged” includes the casual attendees who usually prefer other forms of entertainment than the performing arts. Several psychographic and behavioral segmentation criteria seem to act as discriminatory factors: one of these factors is the interest for social interaction during an event, another one is the long-term engagement and participation in the arts since childhood. Both H6 and H7 were therefore confirmed. Functional criteria, such as value and hedonic criteria, such as aspirational feelings also play a key role. It is interesting to note that attendance to sports events is consistently negatively correlated with attendance to performing arts events. H8 is therefore verified. Behavioral and psychographic criteria are strong segmentation criteria in the performing arts.

The key differences between these groups reside in their expectations: the “aficionados” are mostly interested in the core components of the performance, the quality of the show and the emotions it conveys. The “social butterflies” have

a more holistic and hedonic expectation and are interested in the entire experience: the quality of the show, the venue, and the social aspect. They are likely to dine out before the performance and to meet friends and colleagues at the venue. Both groups were exposed to the performing arts when growing up and the social butterflies often play an instrument and have participated in some forms of performing arts. Both groups are typically more educated than the third group: the “disengaged” are occasional attendees who are looking for value. They are not loyal to any form of performing arts and are usually preferring other forms of entertainment. It is interesting to note that this group does not expect to have social interaction while attending a performance: they do not assume friends or colleagues to be in attendance.

This present research highlighted the fact that the various forms of performing arts are attracting different groups of patrons. For example, the “aficionados” are sur-represented among the frequent theater attendees and the social butterflies among the most frequent patrons of opera performances: repurchase intention (RI) predictors vary across performing arts genres. For example, the strongest predictor of attendance for classical music concerts and theater is childhood interest in the performing arts but this factor does not seem to influence attendance to musicals. The aspirational desire to “feel special” seem to influence the RI both for musicals and theater. It appears that it is difficult to generalize RI predictors across performing arts genre, therefore, H9 is verified.

Limitations and further research

This research faced several limitations. The first one is related to the location where the survey was conducted. Although the region offers a large variety of performing arts genres, many are offered by colleges and universities and there are just a few professional entities available for research purposes. Since the questionnaires were administered by the performing arts organizations through their email databases, we faced some imbalances in the number of respondents for each genre. Certain forms of performing arts are more popular locally and have a larger customer base. It would be interesting to replicate this research in a larger metropolis where the sample could be more balanced across the various forms of performing arts.

Managerial implications

These findings lead us to the following conclusions: performing arts organization could increase attendance by extending their traditional target markets and by working on eliminating certain stereotypes.

Income level has traditionally been considered a predictor of attendance in the United States. This belief may need to be challenged. As explained by Huntington (2007), in Germany, frequent attendees to performing arts events belong to various income brackets. Germany has a policy to fund performing arts organizations and that makes it possible for low income individuals to attend performances. American performing arts organizations should continue to lobby for state and government funding that would allow them to include these patrons and their families. Retirees are often impacted by their income limitation and performing arts organizations should ensure that they have adequate rates for this category of attendees.

Age and stages in the family life-cycle should be strongly considered by performing arts organizations. As stated above musicals and theaters are considered “family-friendly” while operas and classical concerts are not. While this present research does not clearly identify why this is the case, one may develop some hypotheses. These two categories may be perceived as more laidback and informal. They may also have family-friendly repertoires. Young families with children may therefore gravitate toward these performing arts forms. It is interesting to note that the “social butterflies” who are frequent opera attendees are young and may not have a family yet while the “aficionados” who are also frequent opera and symphony patrons may be empty nesters. The author believes that both opera houses and symphonies could expand their target market beyond these two segments, by creating special events for families. They could use different venues, invite children to participate and build this childhood involvement that is such a strong predictor of future attendance in adulthood. Performing arts organization should adopt a multi-segment strategy to satisfy their most committed clusters: the “aficionados” and the “social butterflies”. The problem is that these two segments are not very compatible. What will please the social butterflies may irritate the aficionados who may be looking for a more subdued and quiet experience. Managers should attract the social butterflies by providing social events before and after the performances. They should ensure that they have a mix of highly recognizable shows that will attract the social butterflies and their friends and more intriguing shows for the aficionados. The social butterflies want to feel special, the aficionados want a good performance. Enhancing the aficionados’ curiosity will break the routine and bring more excitement for this group. World premiere productions would be recommended to keep attracting this group.

They could also expand their patron base by attracting the “disengaged” to special events where they would get a special “deal”. Manager should ensure that they provide group rates for friends and colleagues. This could be done by negotiating special group prices for companies or associations. The disengaged segment may be more willing to attend if they attend with their friends or colleagues. Corporations could book select, private events for their employees and sponsor their seats. Performing arts managers should therefore contact large corporations and negotiate private events for their staff. These occasional customers are not committed to the performing arts. Other forms of entertainment such as sports are usually more appealing to them. One may consider other approaches to attract this group. Different outdoor venues could be considered, new repertoires that would include certain sports such as gymnastics, equestrian presentations, cycling and motorized acts, may attract this segment. Cirque du Soleil has a particularly interesting approach in that regard. Using a “Blue Ocean Strategy” they merged two performing arts genres, circus and musicals and carved a new category (Kim and Mauborgne 2014).

There is a strong growth potential for performing arts organizations if they choose to investigate fringe customers. These broad recommendations should apply across all genres, but the research reveals that each performing arts genre has its specificities and that a “cookie-cutter” approach will not be the most effective.

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Appendix 1: Customer profile per genre and per level of attendance frequency

| Genre | Low frequency | Medium frequency | High frequency |
|---|----------------------|-------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Theater | N=140 | N=401 | N=156 |
| Children <18 | None | 2 or more | 1 to 2 children |
| Education | Some college or less | College or graduate degree | College or graduate degree |
| Donate (Mean) | 2.19 | 2.61 | 3.37 |
| Cost is too high | 2.93 | 2.77 | 2.46 |
| Familiarity with show and actors | Slightly important | Not important | Some |
| Involvement with local non-profits | 3.10 | 3.31 | 3.48 |
| Interest during childhood | 2.92 | 3.65 | 4.27 |
| Friends attend regularly | 2.79 | 3.19 | 3.80 |
| Colleagues attend regularly | 2.68 | 3.00 | 3.42 |
| It makes me feel special | 2.68 | 3.11 | 3.29 |
| Classical music | N=328 | N=231 | N=102 |
| Gender | Female | Male | Male |
| Children <18 | 2 or more | None or 1 | None |
| Education | < college level | Some college | College or graduate degree |
| Age | Between 30 and 50 | 51 to 60 | Over 60 |
| Occupation | Employees | Management/ professionals/ students | Management, professionals, retired |
| Donate | 2.30 | 2.90 | 3.67 |
| Cost is too high | 2.88 | 2.65 | 2.42 |
| Familiarity with show and actors | Moderate importance | Moderate importance | Slightly higher importance |
| Interest during childhood | 3.28 | 3.94 | 4.38 |
| Friends attend regularly | 2.96 | 3.44 | 3.88 |
| Colleagues attend regularly | 2.80 | 3.13 | 3.67 |
| It makes me feel special | 2.90 | 3.16 | 3.55 |
| Emotional needs | 2.51 | 2.68 | 3.14 |

| Genre | Low frequency | Medium frequency | High frequency |
|----------------------------------|----------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| Opera | N=526 | N=120 | N=15 |
| Gender | Female | Male | Male |
| Children <18 | 2 children | None to 1 | None |
| Education | < college level | College or graduate degree | College or graduate degree |
| Age | 30 to 50 | Over 50 | Over 60 |
| Donate | 2.55 | 3.33 | 3.80 |
| Cost is too high | 2.80 | 2.46 | 2.27 |
| Familiarity with show and actors | Moderately important | Moderately important | Important |
| Interest during childhood | 3.54 | 4.20 | 4.47 |
| Friends attend regularly | 3.17 | 3.68 | 3.73 |
| It makes me feel special | 3.01 | 3.36 | 3.87 |
| Emotional needs | 2.59 | 2.92 | 3.40 |
| Ballet (NS) | N=559 | N=94 | N=8 |
| Musicals | N=159 | N=410 | N=91 |
| Gender | Male | Female | Equal |
| Children <18 | None | 1 to 3 children | 1 to 2 |
| Marital status | Single | Married | Married |
| Donate | 2.40 | 2.71 | 3.33 |
| Interest during childhood | 3.23 | 3.71 | 4.32 |
| Friends attend regularly | 2.93 | 3.27 | 3.88 |
| Colleagues attend regularly | 2.81 | 3.07 | 3.41 |
| It makes me feel special | 2.65 | 3.20 | 3.34 |

Appendix 2: Cluster profiling

| Characteristics | Cluster 1 | Cluster 2 | Cluster 3 |
|--|--|--|-----------------------------------|
| Demographics | N=306 | N=121 | N=234 |
| Age (P=0.055) | Over 40 | 18-29 | 18-29 |
| Education | College or graduate school | College | Some college or technical college |
| Behavioral bases | | | |
| Seasons ticket subscriber (Y/N) | Often | Often | No |
| Participant in a performing arts event | Occasionally to very often | Occasionally to very often | Never or rarely |
| Visit frequency to art galleries and museums | Two-three times a year to monthly | Every two months or more | Never or less than once a year |
| Preference rank for theater | 2 nd favorite | 3 rd and 4 th favorite | Favorite |
| Preference rank for opera | 2 nd and 3 rd favorite | Favorite, 2 nd , 3 rd favorite | Least favorite |
| Attendance frequency for theater | High | Medium to high | Low |
| Attendance frequency for classical music | Medium to high | High | Low |
| Attendance frequency for opera | Medium | High | Low |
| Attendance frequency for ballet | Medium | High | Low |
| Attendance frequency for musicals | Medium to high | Medium to high | Low |
| Repurchase intentions (Means. Scale of 1 to 5) | 4.22 | 4.26 | 2.92 |
| Donate to performing arts | 3.02 | 3.21 | 2.08 |
| Often combine a performance with a restaurant dinner | 3.36 | 3.76 | 3.26 |
| Psychographics (Means. Scale of 1 to 5.) | | | |
| (Social) Socializing at performing arts events | 2.22 | 3.67 | 2.45 |
| Interested in the performing arts when growing up | 4.19 | 4.29 | 2.70 |
| Plays an instrument | 2.80 | 3.28 | 1.87 |
| Attending performing arts events makes me feel special | 3.24 | 3.74 | 2.56 |
| I need the performance to meet my emotional needs | 2.71 | 3.17 | 2.35 |
| Attitude | | | |
| Augmented Services | 2.25 | 3.09 | 2.66 |
| Venue | 3.36 | 4.26 | 3.84 |
| Staff | 3.36 | 4.20 | 3.67 |
| Familiarity with the show is important | 2.57 | 3.26 | 2.92 |

Appendix 3: Regression Results

| Full Sample | | | |
|--|---------------------------|--------|-------|
| Variables | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. |
| Listening to recorded performing arts shows | 0.151 | 5.096 | 0.000 |
| Visiting art galleries and museums | 0.112 | 3.873 | 0.000 |
| The venue has, clean, attractive and convenient public areas | 0.078 | 2.087 | 0.037 |
| The physical facilities at the venue are visually appealing | -0.140 | -3.79 | 0.000 |
| Venue staff are courteous | 0.057 | 1.974 | 0.049 |
| I donate regularly to performing arts organizations | 0.198 | 6.781 | 0.000 |
| I had interest in the performing arts when growing up | 0.250 | 8.131 | 0.000 |
| I attend sports events regularly | -0.140 | -5.316 | 0.000 |
| My friends regularly attend performing arts events | 0.128 | 4.297 | 0.000 |
| Attending performing arts events makes me feel special | 0.227 | 7.741 | 0.000 |
| I need the performance to meet my emotional needs | 0.083 | 2.936 | 0.003 |
| F | | 78.3 | |
| R ² | | 57% | |
| p-Value | | 0.000 | |
| Regression results per genre | | | |
| Classical Music Concerts | | t | Sig. |
| Visiting art galleries and museums | 0.180 | 2.310 | 0.023 |
| Charity work attracts me | 0.183 | 2.415 | 0.017 |
| I had interest in the performing arts when growing up | 0.526 | 6.875 | 0.000 |
| F | | 24.5 | |
| R ² | | 64% | |
| p-Value | | 0.000 | |
| Musicals | | | |
| Listening to recorded performing arts shows | 0.224 | 4.992 | 0.000 |
| The venue has, clean, attractive and convenient public areas | 0.135 | 2.464 | 0.014 |
| The physical facilities at the venue are visually appealing | -0.157 | -2.803 | 0.005 |
| Venue staff are well dressed | -0.164 | -3.207 | 0.002 |
| Venue staff are well trained | 0.110 | 2.081 | 0.038 |
| Synopsis | 0.088 | 2.112 | 0.036 |
| I donate regularly to performing arts organizations | 0.198 | 4.475 | 0.000 |
| I had interest in the performing arts when growing up | 0.131 | 2.839 | 0.005 |
| I attend sports events regularly | -0.114 | -2.611 | 0.010 |
| I am an outdoor enthusiast | -0.099 | -2.332 | 0.020 |
| Attending performing arts events makes me feel special | 0.239 | 5.404 | 0.000 |
| I need the performance to meet my emotional needs | 0.128 | 2.992 | 0.003 |
| F | | 30.7 | |
| R ² | | 58% | |
| p-Value | | 0.000 | |
| Theater | | | |
| Visiting art galleries and museums | 0.222 | 5.230 | 0.000 |
| Renowned performers | -0.129 | -2.900 | 0.004 |
| Highly skilled performers | 0.099 | 2.264 | 0.025 |
| The physical facilities at the venue are visually appealing | -0.143 | -3.121 | 0.002 |
| Opportunity to develop political and business connections | -0.161 | -2.991 | 0.003 |
| Ability to develop new relationships | 0.137 | 2.508 | 0.013 |
| I donate regularly to performing arts organizations | 0.203 | 4.493 | 0.000 |
| I don't have time to attend performing arts events | -0.132 | -2.977 | 0.003 |
| I had interest in the performing arts when growing up | 0.358 | 7.651 | 0.000 |
| Attending performing arts events makes me feel special | 0.196 | 4.332 | 0.000 |
| I need the performance to meet my emotional needs | 0.100 | 2,559 | 0.025 |
| Marital status | 0.126 | 2.971 | 0.003 |
| F | | 39.4 | |
| R ² | | 72% | |
| p-Value | | 0.000 | |

Effects of occasion-based targeting: Evidence from Valentine's Day

Abstract

Even though it is well known that sales are likely to increase on days before widely celebrated occasions such as Christmas or Easter in Western Christian civilization, literature on occasions and occasion-directed in-store marketing activities is still in its infancy. To sensitize marketers as well as retailing researchers of shopping occasions, the present paper examines effects on sales volume arising from Valentine's Day. As sales volume could be boosted as a result of occasion-directed in-store marketing activities, the authors also investigated effects arising from displays which were placed at the point of sale reminding shoppers of the forthcoming occasion. Findings provide evidence that sales are immediately increasing on the studied occasion and days before. The increase of sales is even higher as far as a display promotion is additionally carried out at the point of sale. However, products must have a direct link to a specific occasion to satisfy occasion-driven needs of shoppers. Summarizing, the present paper delivers valuable findings on the studied occasions which might be highly beneficial for marketers and retailing researchers likewise.

Key words: Occasion marketing; Point of sale marketing; In-store marketing; Display promotion; Valentine's Day; Impulse purchases

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1. Introduction

42 percent of all shopping trips in the FMCG sector are driven by specific occasions (GfK 2016). What it makes interesting for marketers is the fact that many shoppers depart from their usual purchase behavior as far as they purchase products for a specific occasion. For instance, on days before widely celebrated holidays like Christmas and Easter in Western Christian civilization shoppers are likely to purchase more than normal, claw at branded instead of private labeled products, or purchase products which they would not typically purchase (Cartwright et al. 2016; Shankar et al. 2011). Therefore, especially manufacturers of branded products spend vast amounts of money on in-store promotions to win at the first moment of truth and thus influencing shoppers' decision making.

Lewin (1936) was the first who identified occasions as an important aspect in marketing segmentation. According to him, people will adapt their behavior in terms of a specific situation. Fennell (1978) additionally noted the relevance of specific product-use situations and their impact on purchase decisions. Hence, marketers might find more success as they focus on how they can satisfy occasion-driven purchase needs based on specific shopper segments. In this context, especially holidays and seasonal feasts (e.g. Christmas, Easter, Valentine's Day, Mother's Day) as well as widely celebrated events (e.g. Olympic Games, World Cups, Super Bowl final) represent high-relevant occasions as those were celebrated by numerous shoppers around the world. However, as marketers address a widely celebrated occasion, they need to highlight their own over competing products as shoppers are confronted with a huge number of in-store promotions related to the same occasion. Therefore, relevant products are usually glorified in amazing displays which are served as a crucial trigger of impulse purchases

Although occasion-directed marketing activities could unleash considerable sales potentials, literature on this topic is still not well mapped out. Providing a contribution on this, the author conducted an extensive store test. Results provide information on sales effects arising from Valentine's Day and shed light on what fundamentally has to be considered to fulfill occasion-driven needs of shoppers. Effects arising from displays, placed in-store enhancing occasion-driven sales volume, were additionally investigated. Summarizing, this paper aims to sensitize marketers as well as retailing researchers of shopping occasions and provide managerial implications. For retailing researchers, the paper moreover outlines avenues for future research to gain a comprehensive understanding on in-store factors determining occasion-driven sales volume.

2. Impulse purchasing

Marketers have long recognized the relevance of impulse purchasing and this topic has therefore generated considerable research interest for many years (e.g. Beatty and Ferrell, 1998; Cobb and Hoyer, 1986; Stern 1962). An impulse purchase occurs when a person experiences a sudden, strong, and irresistible urge to buy a particular product (Solomon et al., 2016). Hence, impulse purchasing comprises more than the criteria of being unplanned. In this context, it has to be distinguished between four types of impulse purchasing which may have various underlying motivations: Pure impulse purchasing, reminder impulse purchasing, suggestion impulse purchasing and planned impulse purchasing. They have in common, that each type of impulse purchase is triggered by specific stimuli (S) which affect a shopper's organism (O) and finally result in a response (R) behavior. Introduced by Mehrabian and Russell (1974), this relationship is well known as S-O-R model.

Underlying processes which initiate impulse purchasing do not vary across the different types of impulse purchasing. As a fundamental feature of behavior, the role of arousal has to be stressed. Arousal can be defined as the neurophysiological basis underlying all processes in the human organism. Thus, it is source of emotions, motivation, information processing, and behavioral reactions (Gröppel-Klein, 2005). Both internal and external stimuli can cause arousal as far as they are perceived. At the POS, phasic arousal can be seen as the driving force for decision-making processes. It arises in response to specific stimuli resulting in short-term variations in the level of arousal (Gröppel-Klein, 2005). Based on Yerkes-Dodson law, the relationship between arousal and performance follows an inverted-U function. Even if the exact shape of the arousal-performance-function is not clear, Yerkes-Dodson law may serve as heuristic orientation which should be considered in the design of POS marketing stimuli (Kroeber-Riel and Gröppel-Klein, 2013). Hence, external stimuli such as in-store displays should strive to attain an optimal level of arousal inside the shopper which initiates a passive process of perception.

Subsequently, emotional processes associated with an impulse purchase will probably cause a specific action (Kroeber-Riel and Gröppel-Klein, 2013). For instance, a shopper could recognize a specific need which was perceived from his or her inner (e.g. giving a little pleasure to a person, just because you like him or her) and strengthened by an in-store display (e.g. the display is perceived by a shopper because of its fancy shape and glorifies a product which can be given as a little pleasure to a beloved person). As a result of emotional information processing, the shopper puts the promoted product from the display into the shopping cart. In summary, the recognition of hidden needs which were strengthened or initially triggered by external marketing stimuli at the POS must be considered as relevant to foster any kind of impulse purchases (Iyer 1989).

3. Occasion-driven purchase behavior

As about 40 percent of all purchases are related to a specific occasion, it possesses a strong impact on shoppers' purchase behavior (GfK, 2016; Belk, 1974, 1975a, 1975b). Especially the annual sales increase caused by Christmas has to be stressed (e.g. Barsky and Miron, 1989; Chevalier et al., 2003; Wen, 2002). As Christmas is an important occasion for many people in Western Christian civilization on which families and friends spend time with each and bethink of things which go too short in the daily grind, they also depart from their usual purchase behavior. Shoppers are likely to purchase more than normal, claw at branded instead of private labeled products, or purchase products which they would not typically purchase, resulting in a significant increase of sales volume (Cartwright et al., 2016; Shankar et al., 2011). Apart from widely celebrated holidays like Christmas, marketers and retailing researchers likewise should think about further promising occasions in retailing. Less meaningful occasions or year-around individual occasions also could evoke specific needs, subsequently stimulating sales volume.

According to GfK (2016), occasion-driven purchases have to be differentiated from everyday purchases (e.g. stock purchases, replacement purchases). Occasion-driven purchases are temporal as well as emotional very close to later consumption and will be part of a specific shopping mission. The diversity of occasions for which shoppers satisfy their occasion-driven needs can be systemized in four broader groups: Holidays and seasonal feasts (e.g. Christmas, Easter, Valentine's Day, Mother's Day, Halloween), widely celebrated events (e.g. Olympic Games, World Cups, Super Bowl final), individual seasonal occasions (e.g. spring cleaning, family BBQ, back to school, advent tinker), and individual year-round occasions (e.g. girls' nights, birthday parties, candlelight dinners, board game parties).

On occasions which are celebrated by many shoppers, the challenge is to highlight one's own over competing products as shoppers are confronted with a huge number of in-store promotions. Nevertheless, widely celebrated occasions naturally came along with a significant increase of sales volume across diverse product categories. To unleash considerable sales potentials apart from widely celebrated occasions, therefore, marketers need to create further occasions which are perceived as relevant by shoppers. However, to trigger purchases on impulse, additionally, extraordinary in-store promotion activities telling shoppers why they need to purchase a specific product are absolutely necessary to be successful. Hence, the selection of relevant occasions is closely linked to POS marketing stimuli.

4. Relevance of POS marketing stimuli

As marketers address a specific occasion, it specifically has to be promoted at the POS creating a unique shopping experience (e.g. Ballantine et al., 2015; Jones and Runyan, 2016). For instance, an amazing in-store display could be a crucial trigger of planned impulse purchases as it catches the shoppers' attention, thus influencing their purchase decision in favor of the promoted product. However, displays could also encourage shoppers of purchasing the promoted product, thus specifically triggering pure or reminder impulse purchases.

Following Iyer (1989), the recognition of a need triggered by external stimuli is more important than recall from internal memory. Merging complementary products in a display additionally unlocks cross-selling potentials as it offers convenience for shoppers (Lam and Mukherjee, 2005).

From a general perspective, in-store displays extend the number of potential touch points between a product or brand and the shopper. Therefore, marketers of FMCG commonly place displays in a secondary in-store location. Apart from triggering spontaneous occasion-related purchases, usually special offers or new products are highlighted in a display (Horstmann, 2017). Used as an external stimulus, the display's communicative impact is supposed to draw more attention to the promoted product, emotionalize shoppers and, as a consequence, trigger any kind of impulse purchases (e.g. Bellini et al., 2017; Eisend, 2014; Inman et al., 2009). The effect is even higher as a shopper is unexperienced with a particular brand (Zenetti and Klapper, 2016). However, displays visually need to pop out as their brightness levels contrast more with those of the retail environment to be most effective (Reynolds-McInay et al., 2017). Furthermore, promoted products should be listed in store flyers to increase promotion efficacy. Apart from highlighting discounted retail prices, store flyers often offer an added value to shoppers as they provide recipes or further information on products and remind them of forthcoming occasions.

5. Approach of research and hypotheses

Valentine's Day has become a high-relevant cultural and commercial celebration in many regions around the world on February 14th each year. It is celebrated in more countries than other gift-giving occasions and represents the traditional point of time for declarations of love or adoration expressed through a ritual of giving and receiving gifts (Wooten

2000). Horstmann (2018) recently showed that Christmas and Easter progressively become relevant for shoppers. For instance, sales volume of chocolate starts to increase a couple of weeks before both occasions – up to 2.5 times above the year's average sales volume. As the occasion is gone, sales volume rapidly decreases below year's average. Even though, when Valentine's Day does become relevant for shoppers is still unclear. Therefore, the first research questions will deal with this point.

Research question 1: When does Valentine's Day become relevant for shoppers?

The exchange of gifts has a strong symbolic meaning for numerous couples. Among product categories, sweets are assumed to be a suitable Valentine's Day gift for a beloved person. However, which features must be fulfilled that a specific product will be contemplated to be purchased and what economic effects could be expected as a product fulfills shoppers' needs? Hence, both questions will be looked at, too.

Research question 2: Which features must be fulfilled that shoppers will contemplate a specific product to purchase the product as Valentine's Day gift?

Research question 3: What economic effects could be expected by marketers as a product fulfills shoppers' needs?

To expand the number of potential in-store touch points between a product or brand and shoppers, manufacturers of branded products commonly place displays in the stores. Previous research has proved that displays typically trigger any type of impulse purchase in favor of the promoted product. In this context, many manufacturers address specific occasions like Valentine's Day in-store, thus glorifying their products which suite the occasion (e.g. fine chocolates as a Valentine's Day gift for a beloved person). This finally leads to following two research questions:

Research question 4: Which role is assigned to in-store displays and its design from shopper's point of view?

Research question 5: What economic effects could be expected by marketers as a product is glorified in an in-store display?

6. Methods

To answer formulated research questions, a store test were conducted on Valentine's Day in 2017. Special interest was given to selected chocolate products which were suited to be a Valentine's Day gift. Fig. 1 provides an overview of the observed products, gives some product information, and illustrates the displays considered in the store test.

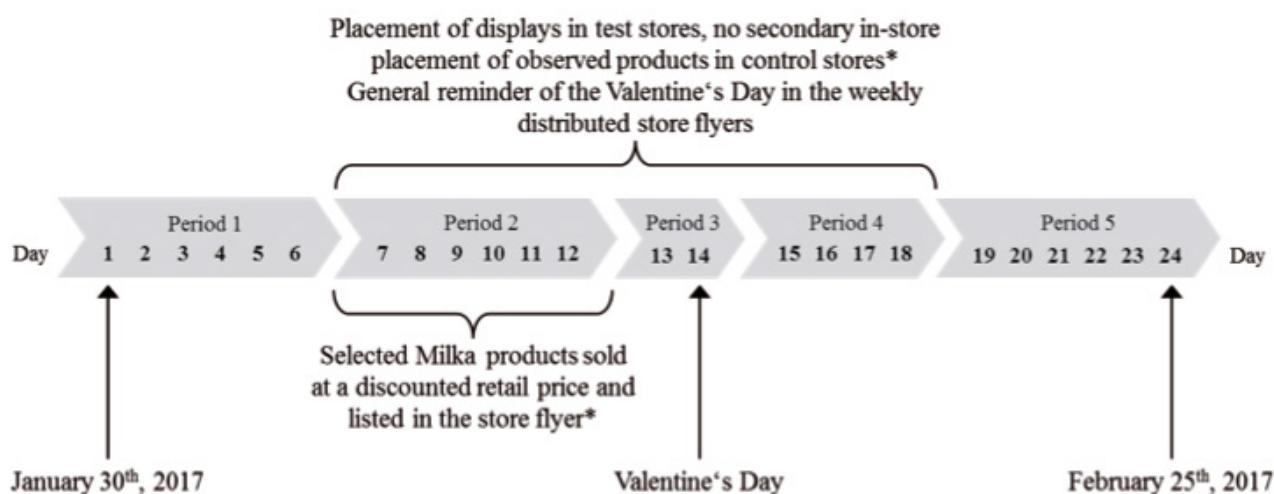
Figure 1: Overview on the products observed as part of the Valentine's Day store test and used stimuli



Notes: * Recommended retail price, ** Discounted retail price; Product information printed in italic denote products which are observed although those are unsuited to be a Valentine's Day gift; Illustrated products and displays were photographed at the POS and postprocessed by the authors, brand and design rights on the products as well as displays are owned by its respective manufacturer.

The store test was supported by an independent retailer belonging to Germany's largest grocery chain. Six of the retailer's stores were considered in the store test. In three stores, displays as shown in fig. 1 were placed close to the category of sweets along a well-frequented aisle (test stores). In the other stores, no secondary in-store placement of observed products was realized (control stores). All stores exhibited comparable characteristics. Store test ran from January 30th to February 25th, 2017 and was split into five periods. Fig. 2 illustrates the sequence of the store test. Excluding manipulations which are mentioned in the figure, no marketing activities were carried out concerning observed products. Promotion activities of competing products were carefully recorded in order to take them, if necessary, into consideration in evaluation procedure.

Figure 2: Overview on the sequence of the store test



Notes: * see Fig. 1 for products which were sold at a discounted retail price, listed in the store flyer, or placed in a display; Excluding mentioned manipulations, no marketing activities were carried out concerning observed products across all stores; Stores were open six days per week from Monday to Saturday.

Quantitative calculations were based on daily sales of observed products per 1,000 shoppers of sweets. Treatment-driven additional sales were computed using difference-in-differences estimators. To check whether the differences in the sales between two periods were significant, several post hoc analyses were run. Furthermore, an ANCOVA was computed using SPSS 22. The model included three factors:

- Valentine's Day (period 3 vs. other periods)
- Display placement (display placed vs. no display placed at the POS)
- Product (product 1 vs. product 2 vs. product 3 etc.)

The retail price of observed products was considered as a covariate. In addition to the store test, a supplementary in-store survey was carried out to learn more about shoppers' motives whether to purchase or not to purchase a particular brand or product. Moreover, shoppers were asked to evaluate their attitude toward the brand (AB), toward the display (AD) and the display's Valentine's Day fit. AB was measured as suggested by Goodstein (1993). AD was measured following Horstmann (2017). To keep duration of interviews as short as possible, the scale was modified as each dimension of the AD construct were represented by the single-item, initially pre-selected based on expert judgment in Horstmann's scale development procedure. Measurement of the display's Valentine's Day fit followed Becker-Olson (2003). The survey took place during periods 2, 3, and 4 when the displays were placed in-store. To prevent affecting shoppers' in-store behavior, interviewers avoided to be noticed and shoppers were addressed to become a respondent not before they left the display behind. Finally, 200 shoppers voluntarily participated in the survey and were not rewarded. The analysis followed Mayring's (2014) process of content analysis.

Furthermore, authors analyzed the average sales volume of observed products per day across 960 stores. All stores belonged to the same regional division of the grocery chain as the retailer who supported the store test. The stores were located in western Germany and equal each other so that the same products were listed and sold at the same price. Moreover, store flyers highlighted almost the same products at a point of time and price promotions were carried out across all stores.

7. Findings

7.1. Results based on sales data analyses

A clear tendency that sales are likely to increase on days before and on February 14th across all stores was detected. However, due to spaces restrictions we dispense with a discussion of the sales trend of every product. Instead, we look at the results on a summarized level. Across test stores, sales volume of products which were in addition to their permanent shelf placement promoted in a display raised about 562 percent from period 1 to period 3. Across control stores, sales volume of the same products lifted up about 86 percent only. Shedding light to products which were not placed in a display, neither in test nor control stores, leads to another picture: Across test stores, sales volume raised about 461 percent while it lifted up about 736 percent from period 1 to period 3 across control stores. Hence, displays catching shoppers' attention influence their product and brand choice behavior. As products placed in displays across test stores were not specifically promoted across control stores, increase of sales volume is inferior to the other products.

Moreover, results show that sales volume did not exclusively rose on Valentine's Day. Apart from effects on sales volume arising from displays, a significant sales uplift was detected as a result of the discounted retail price of Say it with Milka pralines in period 2. Based on average sales volume across all stores in period 1, the price promotion indicated a sales increase of 883 percent. The additional uplift which could be realized resulting from the displays amounted to 190 percent points. Hence, findings provide evidence that both display and price promotion separately stimulate sales volume. However, combining promotional activities is highly encouraged as the sales increase is even higher.

To learn more about the size of single main and interaction effects among observed variables, an ANCOVA was computed. R^2 amounted to .576. A substantial influence on sales volume was assigned to the specific products ($F(15, 2039) = 78.979$, $p < .01$) and the product's price ($F(1, 2039) = 1,131.217$, $p < .01$). Partial η^2 amounted to .367 respectively .357. Main effects of whether a display were placed ($F(1, 2039) = 92.920$, $p < .01$; $\eta^2 = .044$) and Valentine's Day ($F(1, 2039) = 66.511$, $p < .01$; $\eta^2 = .032$) was quite low. However, both factors receive enhanced relevance as a result of their interaction with a specific product (Display x Product: $F(7, 2039) = 17.654$, $p < .01$; $\eta^2 = .057$; Valentine's Day x Product: $F(15, 2039) = 12.438$, $p < .01$; $\eta^2 = .084$). The interaction effect between Display and Valentine's Day was not significant ($F(1, 2039) = 2,460$, $p > .10$; $\eta^2 = .001$). The interaction of all factors yielded the lowest effect ($F(7, 2039) = 9,234$, $p < .01$; $\eta^2 = .031$).

7.2. Results based on in-store survey

From the sample, 61.5 percent were female. On average, respondents were 45 years old. Among respondents, 16.0, 33.5 respectively 50.5 percent lived alone, with two, or with at least 3 persons in the household. 64.5 percent of respondents were the main grocery shopper. Across periods, interviewed shoppers mentioned the display as driving factor to purchase one of the observed products. More specifically, 70 percent of shoppers who purchased one of the products in period 2 named the display as key trigger. In period 3, share even rose up to 93 percent. In period 4, finally, all participants corresponded with this point. Further important drivers for purchasing a product were its message on the packaging, its packaging design or simply the product's taste. However, the order of shoppers' motives' priority differed across periods. In period 2, product-specific motives of Say it with Milka pralines need to be highlighted: According to 66 percent of interviewed shoppers in this period, key motive to purchase one or even more products was the discounted retail price. The product's packaging design and the message on the packaging became dominant in period 3. Each respondent either name product design (51 percent) or product message (49 percent) as a predominant driver besides the display. Especially Merci Finest Selection Great Variety benefited from its packaging which contained tender messages such as "Merci for your love" or "Merci for your smile", thus highlighting that a direct link to Valentine's Day was required. In addition to Merci Finest Selection Great Variety with its tender messages, I love Milka pralines packed in a large heart-shaped gift benefited from its appealing design. Consequently, both products were well suited to meet shoppers' needs concerning Valentine's Day, although both products were sold at recommended retail price of 2.99 respectively 4.79 Euro.

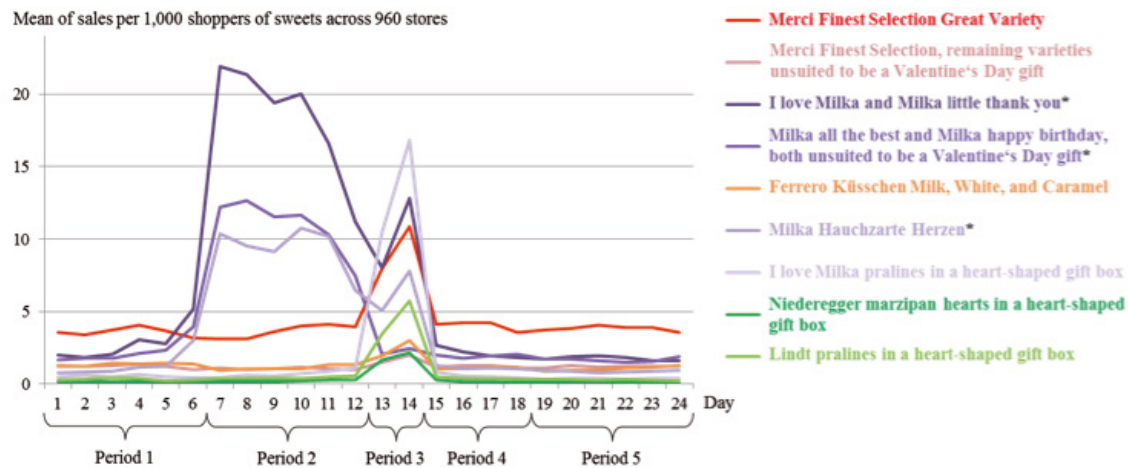
Ferrero Küsschen did not address Valentine's Day well due to its message "Give a Küsschen to your friend". Hence, the product was not shoppers' first choice. Even though, Ferrero Küsschen's display received the best evaluation due to its Valentine's Day fit which was significant from other displays. The banner of the Merci display and the header card of the Milka display reminding shoppers of Valentine's Day were clearly defeated by Ferrero Küsschen's display which benefited from its attention attracting backboard, shaped like a huge heart inviting shoppers to "give gifts with love". Concerning AD, the Milka display achieved the best evaluation across almost all construct's dimensions. Moreover, Milka reached a significantly better evaluation regarding AB than Merci and Ferrero Küsschen. Anyway, a link between a display's evaluation and its Valentine's Day-driven sales performance could not be detected.

In line with the peaks on sales volume, the in-store survey confirmed that Valentine's Day became relevant for most shoppers not until the day before. It became the predominant factor in period 3 as 80 percent of interviewed shoppers mentioned Valentine's Day as key driver. In period 2, only 25 percent explicitly named Valentine's Day, but primary in combination with the discounted retail price of Say it with Milka pralines. Instead, most respondents purchased a product as a small gift, e.g. for the doctor and his or her receptionist, an additional birthday gift, to say thank you to helpful neighbors and friends, or they purchased even more to have it in reserve. Furthermore, respondents tended not to make a specific product choice in advance. They rather chose Valentine's Day gifts in-store. For instance, 93 percent of the shoppers stated that they spontaneously purchase a chocolate confection. Only 7 percent chose a specific product before entering the store.

7.3. Validation of the findings

For validation purposes, average sales volume of observed products per day across 960 stores was analyzed. Results indicate that sales volume of almost all observed products which were suited to be a Valentine's Day gift significantly increased in period 3 compared to period 1. The largest uplift was delivered by I love Milka pralines in a heart-shaped gift box. Merci Finest Selection Great Variety and I love Milka / Milka little thank you indicated a sufficient sales increase in period 3 compared to average sales volume of these products in period 1 as well. If sales uplift was not significant, nevertheless, a clear tendency of sales rising on days before as well as on Valentine's Day could be identified. Based on average sales volume of all observed products, sales increased about 389 percent. Furthermore, it has to be stressed that Merci Finest Selection Great Variety seems to be the most suitable product – probably not at least because of the brand's name meaning – to give little pleasure to someone as average sales volume is above sales volume of all other products (cf. fig. 3).

Figure 3: Daily Sales of the observed products per 1,000 shoppers of sweets across all stores of the grocery chain's regional division



Notes: * Products that were sold at a discounted retail price in period 2; Considered stores were located in western Germany and belong to the same regional division of the grocery chain as the retailer who supported the Valentine's Day store test; Even though general promotion activities (as marked by *) were simultaneously carried out across all stores, store-individual promotion activities, e.g. individual display placements, could not be controlled.

As Say it with Milka pralines, excluding I love Milka pralines in a heart-shaped gift box, were sold at discounted retail price, moreover, a significant uplift of sales volume was detected in period 2. Hence, found effects concerning observed products across all 960 stores corresponded with findings from the store test. However, information on the question whether a display was additionally placed in-store is not available.

8. Discussion, conclusion, and managerial implications

With respect to research question 1, findings provide evidence that the whole purchasing process of Valentine's Day gifts is quite short-dated. Majority of purchases represent last-minute decisions. Although Say it with Milka pralines could have been purchased as a gift for a shopper's partner at a discounted price, only a quarter of shoppers had explicitly outlined Valentine's Day. Apart from underlining Mukherjee's et al. (2017) finding that discounted products were less purchased future-oriented, there is no necessity to implement marketing activities weeks before a specific occasion. Widely celebrated holidays like Christmas or Easter are few exceptions which can be utilized several weeks before the actual event as Horstmann (2018) showed. But why do shoppers purchase their Valentine's Day gifts just in time?

Some gift selection processes tend to take longer. According to Wooten (2000), gift-giving is often paired with anxieties on the part of the gift-giving person as expectations of the recipient should be met. To reduce risk of dashing expectations, lots of time is spent in gift selection processes. However, Valentine's Day gifts are purchased just in time which might be explained by the fact that many humans perceive Valentine's Day as a tiresome obligation – and things perceived this way are often done last minute. In this context, obligation motive appeared to be most prevalent and forces many participants to participate. In particular, 88 percent of men and 75 percent of women in a relationship purchase a little Valentine's Day gift for their partner, even though anti-consumption attitudes exist (Close and Zinkhan 2009).

Even though Valentine's Day promptly becomes relevant and is perceived as an annoying obligation by many shoppers, it induces a significant uplift of sales. On average, sales volume increased about 389 percent. Among all products observed as part of the store test, the largest sales uplift was induced by I love Milka pralines in a heart-shaped gift box. Following participants of the in-store survey, the product predominantly highlighted itself with its packaging, shaped like a heart. Among products placed in displays, Merci Finest Selection Great Variety delivered the best sales performance on Valentine's Day and the day before as it benefited from tender messages on the packaging. Consequently, marketers need to focus on that a product and its packaging fit to Valentine's Day to get the most out of shoppers, thus answering research questions 2 and 3. Whereas a product's packaging design has priority for shoppers, its retail price does not play a decisive role in the process of purchasing a Valentine's Day gift. According to Mauss (1969), gifts had always been used to convey wealth, character, and seriousness some decades earlier – many shoppers do not care about their personal budget as they aim to express their devotion towards a beloved person.

With respect to research questions 4 and 5, findings provide evidence that the occasion-driven increase of sales volume can be significantly enhanced as a display is placed at the POS. In particular, sales uplift of products specifically promoted in a display across test stores was 476 percent points above the sales uplift of the same products across control stores. Hence, displays must be seen as an essential touch point to draw attention to products and brands promoted in displays. However, displays inherently deliver a considerable uplift of sales volume. An interaction effect on the sales volume between whether a display was placed and the specific occasion was not found. Moreover, display design and its occasion fit had no significant effect on sales performance although it fitted the occasion very well. Findings regarding Ferrero Küsschen can be served as a striking example: While the display with its backboard shaped like a huge heart inviting shoppers to "give gifts with love" archived the best evaluation concerning occasion fit, the product was less suitable as a Valentine's Day gift due to its packaging and message. The product is given to a beloved person – not the display. Hence, top priority has to be given to a product's packaging and message as the occasion-driven sales volume should be significantly enhanced. Nevertheless, it is highly encouraged that manufacturers of branded products supply attention attracting displays which address Valentine's Day to retailers to benefit from the fact that the placement of a display inherently enhances sales volume of glorified products.

In this context, findings arising from the store test additionally indicate that the placement of an in-store display induce a shift of sales volume from products which were not promoted in a display in favor of products which were specifically highlighted at the POS. Across control stores, products which were not glorified in displays across test stores are significantly superior. Across test stores, on the contrary, those products are inferior to their alternatives which were placed in displays, thus once more stressing the relevance of in-store displays to influence shoppers' purchase decision in favor of the promoted product or brand in a display.

9. Limitations and directions of further research

Although the paper provides valuable insights, it is not free from limitations. One limitation arises from the store test setting. Store tests allow researchers to gain an in-depth knowledge of real life phenomena. Even though most relevant factors which could negatively affect the store test results were controlled, there were still a huge number of factors which could hardly be controlled or were beyond the control of researchers. Nevertheless, findings deliver a clear indication with respect to Valentine's Day as a high-relevant occasion for many shoppers and their occasion-driven purchase behavior.

Furthermore, some future research potentials should be stressed: Firstly, research was targeted on a high-relevant

occasion belonging to the group of holidays and seasonal feasts. An equal picture will probably be received with respect to further occasions which are widely celebrated. However, which effects could arise from less meaningful occasions or individual seasonal as well as year-around occasions? Hence, relevant occasions need to be identified and the right point of time to promote an individual occasion in-store needs to be scheduled. As a huge number of further occasions are imaginable, the topic entails nearly unlimited potential to be investigated as part of future studies.

Secondly, it is important that products and its packaging fit to a specific occasion. Consequently, a scale to pre-evaluate the fit of a product and its packaging toward a specific occasion might also be fruitful as it allows manufacturers to alter product and packaging (per se and against other products) before its launch if poor ratings were found, thus reducing the risk that a product will not sufficiently meet target shoppers' expectations.

Thirdly, most promotions focus on a single product or brand belonging to a specific product category. Prior studies indicated that merging complementary products in cross-product displays is more beneficial than selling products separated from each other. Hence, creating an extraordinary special display merging products and brands across categories belonging to a specific occasion may offer convenience to shoppers and subsequently boost sales volume. With respect to Valentine's Day, combining fine chocolates boxed in a heart-shaped packaging containing tender messages and diverse bouquets of roses with a set of greeting cards could stimulate cross-selling potentials. Therefore, possible effects arising from occasion-directed special displays should also be subject of future research efforts.

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Consumer responses to advertising: The interplay between ad content and ad spending

Abstract

This paper provides a model of the effects of radio advertising and present empirical evidence of the model. The model links buying intention to ad investment and ad attitude, which is in turn linked to ad content, ad emotions and ad attention. The model is specified as a structural equation model, and PLS is used to estimate and test the model. The paper presents results from 441 radio advertising campaigns, and the analysis indicates strong support for the proposed model. The results clearly indicate that ad content is more influential on purchase intention than ad investment, and emotions (positive as well as negative) are mediating the advertising processing. The findings and implications are discussed.

Key words: Advertising effectiveness, ad content, ad spending, emotions, structural equation modelling

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Introduction

Published research on the effectiveness of radio advertising is accumulating rapidly. In 2002, the Radio Ad Effectiveness Lab (RAEL) reviewed 47 studies published since 1948 on this topic. The bulk of the material covered by the studies was created in 1990 or later. Peacock (2004) further supplemented this effort by reviewing material published after the original RAEL project. White (2005) took things a step further by summarizing results from research published based on this wealth of material. The studies he reviewed covered five main subject areas: audience research, level of attention, categorization of content, and behavioral related effects in terms of purchase intention or actual sales. In addition to this seminal work, other recent contributions in the audience research area are Uyenco et al. (2004), North and van Meurs (2004) and Webb and Patchen (2004). Most of the previous research has studied the effects of radio advertising in terms of attention toward the advertisement and sometimes affective responses toward the advertisement.

Recently, Hansen et al. (2008a, 2008b) study the effectiveness of radio advertising as a function of attention (recall and recognition) and resonance (ad liking, ad emotions and ad attitude). They also look at the impact of campaign budgets by measuring Gross Rating Points (GRP) and advertising spending. The relationships between these variables are studied in a set of multiple regression models. However, the variables are not studied simultaneously and it is not possible to test the influence of mediation. Hansen et al. (2008a, 2008b) call for further research and suggest a structural equation model approach.

On this background, the current paper builds on and integrates previous research to examine the effect of radio advertising. We simultaneously examine the influence of advertising campaign spending (ad spending), evaluation of the content of the advertisement (ad content) on purchase intention, and affective responses toward the advertisement are included in the advertising processing. A structural equation model is proposed, empirically estimated and tested. The quality of the model is good, and interesting findings and implications are discussed.

Theoretical framework

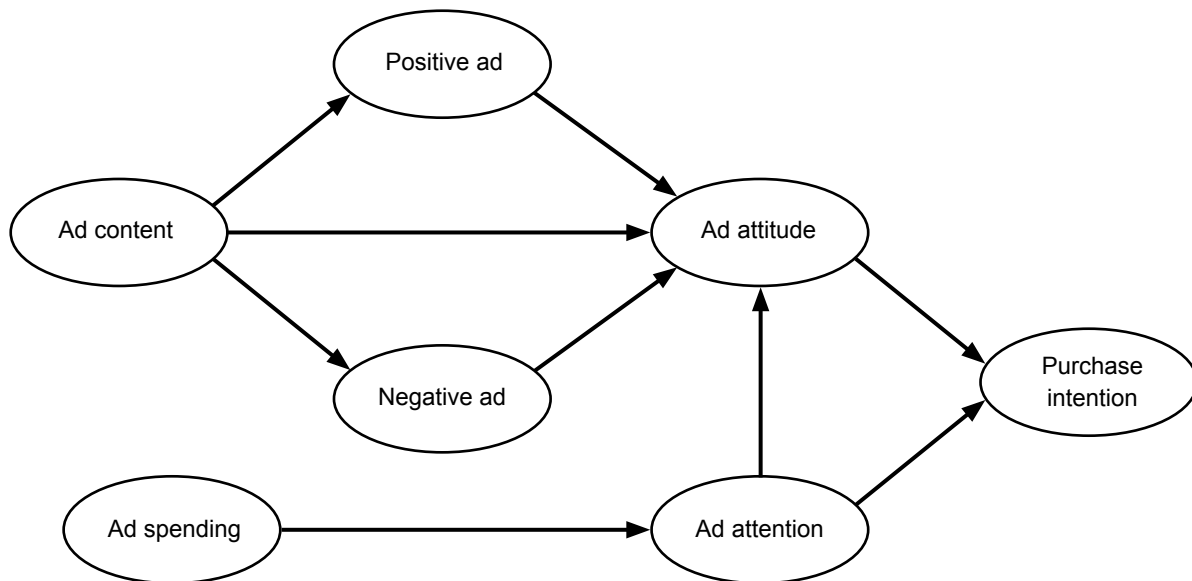
The theoretical framework is based on the widely acknowledged communication model proposed by Holbrook and Batra (1987), who suggest that ad content leads to individuals' emotional ad responses which, in turn, may influence ad attitude. Here, ad emotions have a partially mediating role in advertising processing. This is a credible model which emphasizes the importance and relevance of including emotional responses in advertising communication models. This is also underlined in recent years' research (Hamelin et al., 2017; Hansen, 2005; Hansen and Christensen, 2007; Poels and Dewitte, 2006; Vakratsas and Ambler, 1999).

We suggest broadening Holbrook and Batra's model in two ways. First, we include purchase intention and moves closer to the ultimate goal of advertising, which is generally to influence behavior.

Second, Holbrook and Batra's model is limited to the effect of ad content, i.e., the quality of the advertisement. Besides, consumers are affected by the radio advertising spending (e.g., advertising spending and exposures). Therefore, we include advertising investment in the proposed model.

Furthermore, we divide emotions into a positive and negative dimension. This is supported by Dubé-Rioux (1990), Hansen (2005), Laros and Steenkamp (2005), Lazarus (1991), Liljander and Strandvik (1997), Mano and Oliver (1993), Phillips and Baumgartner (2002), and Westbrook (1987). This is partly in harmony with Holbrook and Batra (1987), who divide emotional ad response into three dimensions: Pleasure (e.g., pride, affection, gratitude, joy) and arousal (e.g., interest, activation, surprise, involvement) that may be perceived as positive dimensions, and domination (e.g., helplessness, sadness, fear, disgust) that reflects a negative dimension.

If we add these issues to Holbrook and Batra's original model we get the proposed model depicted in Figure 1. Previous research has investigated all of the hypothesized relationships between the variables (for an excellent review, see Vakratsas and Ambler, 1999). However, it is the first time that the influence of both ad content and ad investment on purchase intention has been examined simultaneously in a framework as proposed in Figure 1, which also include ad emotions, ad attitude and ad attention as mediating variables.

Figure 1: The conceptual model

Data

The present study is based upon campaign effect measurements collected from 441 radio advertising campaigns run on important Danish commercial radio stations over four years. For each campaign we have information on ad investment, measured by ad spending, Gross Rating Points, spot length, number of radio stations and number of weeks. In addition, for each campaign we have information from consumer surveys on ad attention (radio recall and spot recognition), evaluation of ad content, ad emotions, ad attitude and purchase intention, all measured in the last campaign week (purchase intention is also measured one week after the campaign). Data was collected electronically using TNS Gallup Denmark's online panel of persons aged 15-59 years, with a gross sample per campaign of 1000.

Radio recall is measured by asking: "Do you remember hearing radio advertisements for [brand] in the last month?" Spot recognition is measured by playing one or more of spots from the campaign and asking respondents if they recognized them from the radio.

Ad content is measured by four items regarding the listener's perceived quality of the ad, rated on a 5-point scale. Emotions are measured by asking the respondent which of 10 positive and negative feeling words they felt best applied to the spot they had just heard. The feeling words are adopted from the emotional responses studies by Hansen (2005) and Hansen and Christensen (2007).

Ad attitude is measured by using five well documented scale items (Bruner II, 2009, pp. 89-101): overall liking, informative, believable, enjoyable and persuasive (rated on a 5-point scale).

Purchase intention is measured by the question: "How likely would you say you are to purchase [brand] next time you shop for [category]?" (rated on a 5-point scale).

Methodology

The conceptual model in Figure 1 is specified as a structural equation model with seven latent variables. Each of the latent variables in the model is operationalized by a set of 2-5 indicators.

The structural equation model is estimated by using partial least squares (PLS) due to this methods' advantages: PLS is distribution-free, it is robust (against skew distributions for indicators, multicollinearity and misspecification) (Cassel et al., 1999; Chin, 1998; Fornell and Bookstein, 1982; Hulland, 1999; Tenenhaus et al., 2005). Furthermore, PLS is a powerful method for predictive applications, as PLS aims at explaining variances (Fornell and Bookstein, 1982).

For the estimation and test of the model the software SmartPLS is used (Ringle et al., 2015). SmartPLS is originally developed by Professor Christian M. Ringle, University of Hamburg, Germany, at the beginning of this century and since improved with newer versions.

The latent variable ad spending is measured by formative indicators, and the six other latent variables are measured by reflective indicators, i.e., the indicators are a reflection of an underlying latent variable (Fornell and Cha, 1994).

Analyses and results

The model is analyzed and interpreted in three stages; first, the measurement model is evaluated, second, the relationships in the structural model are tested and the estimated model is provided, and third, the final structural model is evaluated. This sequence allows researchers to ensure that latent variables have adequate reliability and validity before drawing conclusions on hypothesized relationships (Bollen, 1989; Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2006; Hulland, 1999).

Evaluation of the measurement model

When assessing the measurement model, one must demonstrate satisfactory level of reliability and validity (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Hulland, 1999).

In the measurement model evaluation process the items that did not significantly contribute to the reliability were eliminated for parsimony purpose, and the following results are based on the retained 20 indicators. All factor loadings for the 16 reflective indicators exceed the 0.7 threshold (Carmines and Zeller, 1979; Hulland, 1999) indicating item reliability.

A composite reliability measure (Fornell and Larcker, 1981) of 0.7 is a threshold for 'modest' composite reliability (Hulland, 1999; Nunally, 1978), and all latent variables met this criterion. Another measure to assess composite reliability that has been recommended (Chin, 1998; Baumgartner and Homburg, 1996) is the average variance extracted (AVE), developed by Fornell and Larcker (1981). For a latent variable, the AVE measures the amount of variance captured by the associated indicators relative to the amount due to measurement error. To use a latent variable, the AVE should be greater than 0.50, which meets the criterion that a latent variable's AVE should be at least 50% to guarantee more valid variance explained than error in its measurement (Chin, 1998; Fornell and Cha, 1994; Fornell and Larcker, 1981). All the AVE values in the model are 0.54 or above, which are greater than the threshold of 0.50. That is, also the AVE values demonstrate composite reliability for all latent variables indicating that all the items of each latent variable form a single, strongly cohesive and conceptual construct.

Discriminant validity concerns the degree to which measures of conceptually distinct latent variables differ. To evaluate discriminant validity, the square root of AVE can be compared with the correlation coefficients among the latent variables. It is recommended, that the square root of AVE of a latent variable should be greater than the correlations between it and any other latent variable in the model (Chin, 1998; Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Hulland, 1999). The model results show that the square root of AVE is greater than the correlation between it and all other latent variables, which indicates that all the latent variables in this study both conceptually and empirically distinct from each other. Thus, discriminant validity is evidenced.

These initial results provide clear evidence of item reliability and composite reliability as well as discriminant validity.

Estimation, testing and evaluation of the structural model

The PLS estimation is carried out by including all hypothesized relationships in Figure 1, and the relationships are tested using t-values obtained from the bootstrap re-sampling procedure. The final estimated model with path coefficients

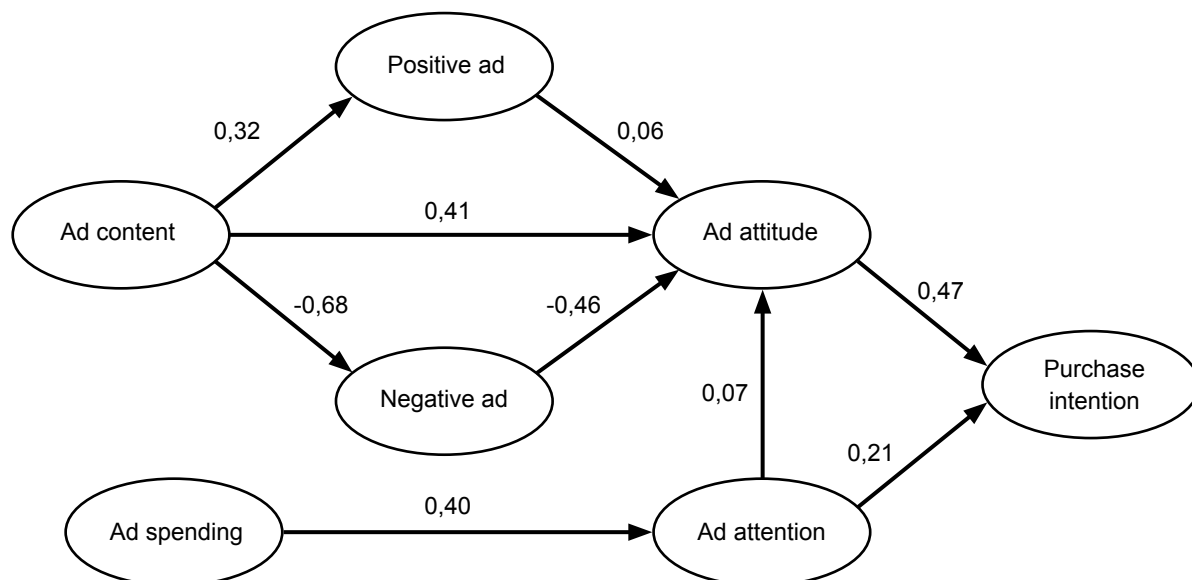
(standardized impacts) is shown in Figure 2.

All nine relationships are tested and found significant (all $t > 1.760$, $p < 0.039$; one-tailed). All estimated relationships are in the expected direction; seven are positive and two are negative, namely the relationships to and from negative ad emotions.

To evaluate the final PLS model researchers typically examine the R^2 values for the dependent latent variables (Chin, 1998; Hulland, 1999). R^2 for ad attitude is 0.73 indicating very good explanatory power, and R^2 for ad attention and purchase intention are 0.16 and 0.33, respectively, indicating reasonable explanations. Overall, our empirical application provides strong support for the proposed model and the associated measurement system, and the quality of the model is good.

Several interesting findings can be derived from these results as will be discussed in the next section together with implications.

Figure 2: The estimated model



Discussion

The findings clearly indicate that it is relevant to use Holbrook and Batra's (2003) framework expanded by ad investment, ad attention and purchase intention.

The findings also indicate that both ad content and ad investment significantly influence ad attitude and purchase intention. Based on the path coefficients in Figure 2, we have calculated the total impacts, that is, the direct and indirect impacts. The total impacts of ad content and ad investment on purchase intention are 0.355 and 0.099, respectively. Based on these results, i.e., overall for the 441 analyzed radio advertising campaigns, the impact of ad content is approximately three and a half times greater than the impact of ad investment.

Ad attention is a mediating variable between ad investment and ad attitude, i.e., ad attitude is not only influenced by the ad content but also by the ad spending.

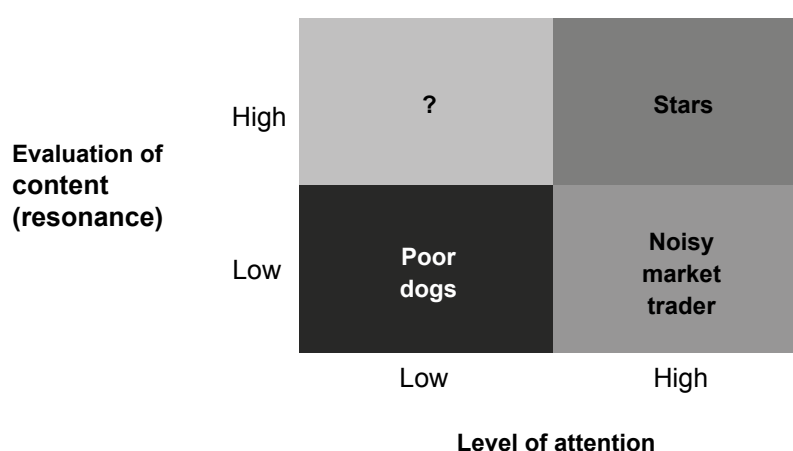
Moreover, ad attention is a mediating variable between ad investment and purchase intention, i.e., ad attitude is not only influenced by the ad content, but also by ad investment.

In a recent study, Domke and Wild (2005) concerned themselves with the relative importance of ad content (resonance) and the level of attention (impact). They classify radio advertisements according to these dimensions as illustrated in Figure 3, and this classification is used in assessment of radio advertisements. The resonance dimension is reflected in the upper part of the proposed model in Figure 1, and the attention dimension is reflected in the lower part of the model.

The evaluation of the model shows that the proposed division between positive and negative ad emotions is a good idea, since the impact from these two ad emotions is quite different, and it is possible to study the effect of ad content not only on ad attitude and the final purchase intention, but also on the mediating emotional responses.

Figure 3: Four categories of radio advertisements

(Source: Domke and Wild, 2005)



Conclusions

The findings from the present study are strongly aligned with prior studies. Ad content and ad investment are two factors of major importance for influencing purchase intention. From the 441 analyzed radio advertising campaigns, it is evident that ad content is more important than spending.

The lesson to learn for radio advertisers is that campaign quality, as reflected in listeners' perceived ad content, positive emotions and ad attitude, is more important than spending when it comes to influencing purchase intention. As a consequence, radio advertisers ought to use sufficient resources to development of creative messages and production of advertisements. Advertisers should take this into account in the advertising budgeting and the allocation of the budget on development/production and radio advertising space.

To our knowledge, no research has simultaneously compared the relative influence of radio ad content and spending on the listener's ad attitude and purchase intention. In this way, our study contributes to the advertising effectiveness literature. Also the role of emotions in advertising processing is demonstrated.

The empirical results are based on a structural equation modeling approach. The application of the model provides strong support for the conceptual model and the associated measurement system. This emphasizes the significance of each of the included variables and underscores the need to adopt more holistic view in advertising effectiveness measuring.

Data collection will have to continue over the next years and more cases will be accumulated, that will include coding of the commercials in relation to genre according to Andersen (2004): didactic, narrative and lyric commercials. Andersen (2004) and Andersen and Jensen (2015) presents and evaluate the usefulness of an advertising perception framework, composed of these three genre dimensions developed from advertising executive theory, genre theory and cognitive fill theory. It could be interesting to study how genre affects the advertising processing. Moreover, it could be

interesting to study the following questions in a model-based context: Is there differences between product categories? Between new brands and well established brands? How will purchase intention and the other model variables develop in the campaign period and after the campaign? Hopefully, future research will pursue these and other important questions.

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