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Mission Statement
The mission of the Journal of Multidisciplinary Research is to promote excellence in leadership practice by providing a venue for academics, students, and practitioners to publish current and significant empirical and conceptual research in the arts; humanities; applied, natural, and social sciences; and other areas that tests, extends, or builds leadership theory.

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Dear Colleagues,

Welcome to the summer edition of the Journal of Multidisciplinary Research (JMR). Although summer is a period of rest and recharge in academia, we at the journal kept busy. As W. Edwards Deming once said, “Improvement is a never ending process.” I am proud to announce that the JMR is now indexed and listed in Cabell’s Directories, one of the world’s leading journal information companies. Cabell’s Directories is an objective and expanding database of journal information, and this is an important step to ensure our commitment to academic and professional excellence. From the start, we set out to create a world class journal, and listing with such a world leader as Cabell’s solidifies our credibility, viability, and presence as an academic journal. This, together with our agreements with EBSCO, Gale-Cengage, ProQuest, IBR and IBZ, and others, will improve our brand recognition, broaden exposure, and increase the quality of academic research.

This Volume 8, Number 2, edition of the Journal of Multidisciplinary Research brings our readers multidisciplinary research from a theoretical framework and an effort to advance understanding of mixed emotions and their relations to sport consumer satisfaction, to exploring the behavior and tendencies of international students participating in U.S. sports and athletics. We also have articles studying coordination of care and early adolescent and eating disorder treatment outcomes, and studying the effect model of billboard advertising media. We also feature two student articles. In our “Life Forward” section, we feature an interview with Ron Schneider, founder and president of Star Consulting. He has worked or played professionally on almost every continent, and he epitomize today’s global executive.

We review the books Driven by difference: How great companies fuel innovation through diversity, by D. Livermore, and Doomed to succeed: The US-Israel relationship from Truman to Obama, by D. Ross.

As we progress, I wish you a successful, productive, and great new academic year.

Onward,

Hagai Gringarten, Ph.D.
Publisher and Editor-in-Chief
“Hat Wimsy at the 2016 Miami Open #1”  
2016  
by Scott Gillig  

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Coordination of Care and Early Adolescent Eating Disorder Treatment Outcomes

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*Children’s Mercy, Kansas City, and University of Missouri-Kansas City*

and

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Joint Base San Antonio, Texas*

Abstract

A multidisciplinary approach for the treatment of adolescent eating disorders is essential; however, care coordination places a high demand on providers, and limited research on the impact of care coordination on treatment outcomes exists. This study compared weight gain in the first four months of outpatient treatment for 171 adolescents ($M_{age} = 14.54$ years) diagnosed with restrictive eating disorders a full multidisciplinary team treated either at a single clinic or at multiple locations. Adolescents who received treatment at a single clinic evidenced greater weight gain than those treated at multiple locations within the first four months of care. Differential outcomes suggest that closer coordination of care enhances early treatment outcomes for adolescents with eating disorders.

**Keywords:** adolescents, care coordination, eating disorders, outcomes
Introduction

Eating disorders are biopsychosocial disorders that involve a collection of behavioral symptoms intended to lead to weight maintenance or weight loss and psychological symptoms that typically include guilt and shame about body shape, fear of weight gain, difficulties with emotion regulation, and perfectionism (Eating Disorders Association, 2013). Evidence suggests that the lifetime prevalence estimates of anorexia nervosa (AN), bulimia nervosa (BN), and binge eating disorder (BED) have risen to 0.3%, 0.9%, and 1.6%, respectively (Swanson, Crow, Le Grange, Swendsen, & Merikangas, 2011). Community studies have reported significantly greater prevalence rates of disordered eating behaviors in children and adolescents (e.g., Dorian & Garfinkel, 1999; Jones, Bennett, Olmsted, Lawson, & Rodin, 2001; Lucas, Beard, O’Fallon, & Kurland, 1991) with a significant percentage of children presenting with AN and BN symptoms at less than 12 years old (Madden, Morris, Zurynski, Kohn, & Elliot, 2009; Zhao & Escinoza, 2011). This pattern is particularly alarming given the sensitive nature of this developmental period when neural advancement, physical growth, and psychological maturity change substantially and rapidly (Royal College of Psychiatrists, 2001; Roze, Doyen, Le, Armoogum, Mouren, & Léger, 2007; Sweene & Thurfjell, 2003).

Anorexia is the third most common chronic disorder among adolescents (Gonzalez, Kohn, & Clarke, 2007; see Herpertz-Dahlmann, 2015, for a review). Clinical practice guidelines (e.g., Hay et al., 2014; MH-Kids, 2008) and position statements (e.g., Golden, et al., 2003; Ozier & Henry 2011; Rosen, 2010) from a variety of disciplines across the world recommend managing restrictive eating disorders with a multidisciplinary team, which has been a standard of practice for the last three decades since the goal of treatment involves improving both physical and psychological functioning (e.g., Becker, 2003; Lock, Le Grange, Agras, & Dare, 2001). The majority of authorities on eating disorders recommend the treatment team consist of three core disciplines: medical, nutrition, and mental health (Rosen, 2010; Rome et al., 2003; Walsh, Wheat, & Freund, 2000), including other providers, such as psychiatry and social work, on an individual basis.

However, care coordination (i.e., the deliberate collaboration between two or more providers to facilitate care activities for a patient; McDonald et al., 2007), is much harder to measure and document than simply if patients’ care is multidisciplinary. Dejesse and Zellmann (2013) interviewed providers to examine the nature of collaborative relationships between mental health professionals and nutritionists in the treatment of eating disorders, with several themes resulting, but did not address the impact of this relationship on patient care. A recent study suggested that a team approach for college students with eating disorders facilitates the extent to which they participate in treatment (see Mitchell, Klein, & Maduramente, 2015), but little is known about how the level of regular communication among providers impacts patient outcomes (e.g., weight change, level of psychological distress), especially in the adolescent population.

Close care coordination is the standard of care in treating those with restrictive eating disorders (e.g., American Psychiatric Association 2000, 2012; Sylvester & Forman 2008); therefore, it is important to understand better which models of care coordination among providers are most effective. One proxy for care coordination is the proximity of providers to one another. For example, providers working within a single clinic with twice weekly meetings dedicated to care coordination face significantly fewer barriers to effective and timely
communication than do providers working in different locations who do not have regularly scheduled contact with each other. Comparing these two groups in terms of early treatment outcomes would improve our knowledge of how to best structure care in the community to maximize its effectiveness.

The aim of the current study was to investigate how early treatment outcomes (i.e., weight gain in the first four months of care) may be impacted by differing degrees or structure of care coordination for individuals with restrictive eating disorders. The hypothesis was that close and routine care coordination among providers would result in better early treatment outcomes (increased weight restoration) than less structured and more sporadic care coordination. A secondary aim was to explore if type of care coordination differentially impacted patients falling below the 25th percentile upon presenting for care.

Materials, Method, and Design

The Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the children’s hospital in a metropolitan area of the United States with which the Eating Disorders Clinic (EDC) was associated approved the current study. This retrospective chart review included medical charts of all patients beginning care in the EDC between January 1, 2008, and September 5, 2013. Demographic information (i.e., age, biological sex, and race) was recorded for all patients presenting for care to determine if patients meeting the below criteria for inclusion in the current study were representative of the larger clinical population served in the EDC. Patients met inclusion criteria if they: (1) presented as underweight (i.e., BMI ≤ 18.5) or had experienced significant weight loss based on their personal growth curve (defined as a diagnosis of weight loss being documented in their medical chart by the physician), (2) had significant patterns of disordered eating; (3) received care from a medical provider (MD or Advanced Practice Nurse-Practitioner supervised by the MD, both with specialty experience and training) in the EDC for at least four months after the initial evaluation, and (4) had a full team of providers (medical, nutrition, and mental health), either within the EDC or split between the EDC and community. We excluded all individuals not meeting one or more of the above criteria from the analyses.

Of note, some evidence-based treatments for anorexia nervosa (e.g., Family-based Treatment) involve solely medical providers and psychotherapists while dieticians serve as consultants to the primary providers. The current study, however, defined a “full team” as being composed of a medical provider, an individual therapist, and a registered dietitian who actively provided direct consultation to families. This is ideal, per the most recent standard of care for eating disorder treatment by the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry (Lock & La Via, 2015). Regarding therapy modality, the EDC therapist utilized a Cognitive Behavioral Therapy (CBT) approach, which appears to be useful for restrictive eating in adolescence (Cooper & Stewart, 2008).

We then divided individuals meeting inclusion criteria into two groups. One group contained individuals who received all core components of care within the EDC (single clinic) while the other group contained individuals who received care from some providers in the EDC and some from providers working at different locations within the community (multiple settings). Two common reasons for an individual to receive services in multiple locations included an established relationship with other non-medical providers in the community when presenting to the EDC for the medical evaluation or EDC non-medical providers having limited availability.
(creating the need to refer to community providers for these services). Initial analyses investigated differences between these two groups, representing patients whose providers used differing structures of care coordination. Additional data extracted from individuals’ medical charts for the primary analyses included which providers were located in the EDC or in the community, frequency of visits with providers seen in the EDC, and weight and height collected at initial evaluation and all subsequent medical appointments within the first four months of care.

Results

In total, 332 adolescents presented for an evaluation at the EDC within the specified timeframe. Of these, 171 patients met the inclusion criteria we described above. Table 1 presents descriptive statistics of demographic information (age, gender, race, and insurance status) for those in single clinic group (n = 94) and those in the multiple settings group (n = 77).

Table 1
Descriptive Information of Each Group and Total Inclusion Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variable</th>
<th>Single Clinic (n = 94)</th>
<th>Multiple Settings (n = 77)</th>
<th>Total Sample (N = 171)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean (SD) Age (years)</td>
<td>14.34 (2.15)</td>
<td>14.78 (2.34)</td>
<td>14.54 (2.24)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female, N (%)</td>
<td>84 (89.4)</td>
<td>68 (88.3)</td>
<td>152 (88.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caucasian, N (%)</td>
<td>81 (86.2)</td>
<td>70 (90.9)</td>
<td>151 (88.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd party insurance, N (%)</td>
<td>84 (89.4)</td>
<td>69 (89.6)</td>
<td>153 (89.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean (SD) BMI z-score</td>
<td>-0.90 (1.12)</td>
<td>-1.08 (1.26)</td>
<td>-0.98 (1.18)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean (SD) BMI percentile</td>
<td>26.73 (25.24)</td>
<td>25.19 (26.17)</td>
<td>26.07 (25.57)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean (SD) rate of change in weight (kg/week)</td>
<td>0.24 (0.27)</td>
<td>.13 (0.33)</td>
<td>0.19 (0.30)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. BMI = body mass index; kg = kilogram

There were no statistically significant differences between patients in the study and the larger patient population presenting for care in the EDC based on the variables of age [t(330) = -0.99, p > 0.05], gender [X^2(1, N = 332) = 0.14, p > 0.25], or race [X^2(1, N = 332) = 1.04, p < 0.25]. In both groups, significantly more adolescents had third-party insurance (89.9% and 89.5%) than Medicaid or financial assistance through the hospital [X^2(2, N = 331) = 7.07, p = 0.03]. This indicates the sample we included in the current analyses is representative of the larger patient population presenting for care at the EDC, and, therefore, the risk of selection bias is small. In examining differences between patients receiving services from a team within a single clinic versus those receiving services by providers at various locations, there continued to be no differences at presentation for age [t(171) = 0.29, p > 0.25], gender [X^2(1, N = 171) = 0.05, p > 0.25], race [X^2(1, N = 171) = 0.92, p > 0.25], or insurance status [X^2(2, N = 171) = 2.81, p > 0.25].

For patients in the single clinic group, the average number of visits within the first four months of treatment was as follows: medical = 6.14 (SD = 2.61), dietitian = 9.00 (SD = 3.54),
and individual therapy = 7.01 \( (SD = 3.11) \). Patients who saw providers in different locations visited the EDC medical provider, on average, 5.62 \( (SD = 2.70) \) times, a dietitian (when in the EDC) 6.59 \( (SD = 3.70) \) times, and an individual therapist (when in the EDC) 3.60 \( (SD = 2.75) \). Frequency of visits with dietitians or individual therapists in the community was not available.

Patients in the single clinic group gained significantly more weight in the first four months of treatment \( (M_{\text{kg/week}} = 0.24, SD = 0.27; \text{range} = -0.63 \text{ to } 0.84) \) than patients in the multiple settings group \( (M_{\text{kg/week}} = 0.13, SD = 0.33; \text{range} = -1.82 \text{ to } 0.98) \), \( t(171) = -2.27, p = 0.025, d = .79 \). This large effect size suggests that approximately 79% of those in the single clinic group demonstrated a weight gain above the mean of those in the multiple settings group. In a hierarchical regression analysis, level of care coordination significantly predicted change in weight above and beyond variance attributable to age, gender, and eating presentation type (see Table 2). This pattern of results approached significance when including only individuals at or below the 25\(^{th}\) percentile for BMI in the regression analysis \( (b = 0.015, b \text{ sem} = 0.008, t = 1.85, p = 0.068) \).

Table 2
Hierarchical Regression Analysis Summary Predicting Change in Weight (kg/day)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>( b ) (SE)</th>
<th>( \beta )</th>
<th>( t )</th>
<th>( R^2 )</th>
<th>( p )-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 1</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>0.04 (0.03)</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td></td>
<td>ns</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>0.01 (0.01)</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>-0.14</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0.03 (0.02)</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eating presentation</td>
<td>-0.01 (0.01)</td>
<td>-0.16</td>
<td>-1.93</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>0.03 (0.03)</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td></td>
<td>ns</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>0.01 (0.01)</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0.01 (0.01)</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eating presentation</td>
<td>-0.01 (0.01)</td>
<td>-0.18</td>
<td>-2.16</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clinic type</td>
<td>-0.02 (0.01)</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

The current investigation explored the impact of types of care coordination on weight gain early in the treatment process. One group received care within a single clinic in which providers met twice weekly for the sole purpose of care coordination. The second group received care at multiple locations, and communication between providers was less consistent and less structured. The data indicate that working with a structured and coordinated team at a single location results in approximately an average of twice as much weight gain within the first four months of care as working with a team that does not have a scheduled coordination time with the full team. Results were consistent whether including all patients in the analyses or if including only those falling below the 25\(^{th}\) percentile for BMI.

This expands Dejesse and Zelman’s (2013) research discussing best practices in medical and nutrition collaboration, which is important in the treatment of restrictive eating disorders.
across the lifespan. Themes the researchers gathered through semi-structured interviews resulted in several themes, including cultivating a provider network, accepting differences, building good fences (i.e., respect the expertise and practice of team members), communicate, value counterparts, seek team consensus, and educate others about one’s role in the treatment of eating disorders. While Dejessee and Zelman’s (2013) study provides professionals with useful information regarding the relationship between medical and nutrition providers, their study did not directly measure treatment outcome data as a result of professional collaboration. Comparison between various models of collaboration also was not their focus but served as a primary variable in the current study.

Similarly, Mitchell et al. (2015) compared treatment utilization of an interdisciplinary team approach (i.e., psychotherapy, medical, and nutrition) with college students (average age = 21.6 years) diagnosed with an eating disorder compared to counseling alone. Results suggested that there were few demographic or diagnostic differences between clients appropriate for treatment and those who were not; however, those a full team treated stayed in treatment longer, offering them more opportunities to work toward healing in a comprehensive manner. The current study also documented positive benefits of a multidisciplinary team, which extends Mitchell et al. (2015)’s results to treatment outcomes (i.e., weight gain) with adolescents. Together, this information supports the stance that utilizing a multidisciplinary approach in both adolescent and young adult eating disorder populations is vital.

Some of the strengths of this investigation include a large sample size and no initial between group differences on any measured variable. In addition, the lack of differences between the sample in this study and the larger clinic population indicates that there is little risk of selection bias and that the study’s results are likely to apply to the larger population of children and teens with eating disorders. Documenting that close and structured care coordination appears to have a substantial impact on early weight gain supports existing standards of care that consistently recommend that providers work closely together to maximize patient outcomes. In addition, this study utilized a sample of adolescents, a population at particular risk for eating disorders (e.g., Holling & Schlack, 2007), who have not experienced the duration of illness many adult individuals with eating disorders have, as recent data indicates the median age of onset for eating disorders is between 12 and 13 years old (Swanson et al., 2011). Understanding what impacts treatment outcomes is crucial in preventing individuals with eating disorders from developing chronic conditions, as well as resolving the physical complications of eating disorders quickly to lessen the impact in overall developmental trajectory (e.g., Golden, Katzman, Kreipe et al., 2003; Sylvester & Forman, 2008).

One difficulty with the current project is that there is no validated instrument with which to measure care coordination. Therefore, we utilized the proxy of location and scheduled interactions between providers for the sole purpose of discussing patient needs and treatment planning. However, we were unable to measure the frequency of coordination for each patient at those meetings (or in between meetings as part of the natural clinic flow) or how often or to what extent providers at different locations coordinated care. Despite this, the significant difference in patient outcomes between the group served solely at one location and the group served at multiple locations indicates that provider proximity and scheduled communication may be important variables. Another limitation is possible confounding variables that may have had an impact on the study’s results such as type of evidence-based treatment providers utilized in the community and level of patient adherence to treatment. Thus, future research is necessary to
replicate the current findings while accounting for these factors. However, the current results remain important in that they provide a framework from which to move forward in the investigation of care coordination as a treatment variable.

We encourage researchers to continue investigating care coordination, both its measurement and its association with patient outcomes, to inform standards of care for adolescents with eating disorders. Our results indicate it can play a vital role in early weight gain in adolescents with restrictive eating disorders, which predicts remission at the end of treatment, long-term outcomes, and lasting recovery (e.g., Castro, Gila, Puig, Rodriguez, & Toro, 2004; Le Grange, Accurso, Lock, Agras, & Bryson, 2014). Gathering data to more fully understand how care coordination impacts patient outcomes can guide the formation of effective outpatient eating disorder treatment teams and support advocacy to insurance companies to provide coverage for the time care coordination requires.

References


**About the Authors**

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**Discussion Questions**

1. For busy practitioners, unreimbursed for care coordination time, what factors would motivate them to make this investment to patient care?

2. How might the move toward medical homes, as part of the Affordable Care Act, impact care coordination for children and teens with eating disorders in the future?
3. How might one more directly measure care coordination?

To Cite this Article

The Effect Model of Billboard Advertising Media

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Abstract

This study explores the individual latent constructs influencing billboard advertising effects. Focusing on the billboard media in Times Square, New York City, this study investigates the proposed effect model of billboard advertising media. The results show that the congruence and symbolic values influenced media distinctiveness. Congruence was positively linked to consumer emotion, and symbolic values influenced media values. Distinctiveness influenced emotion, but did not affect media values. Emotion was found to be linked to media values and attitudes toward billboard advertising. Media values also directly influenced attitudes toward billboard advertising. These results provide potential academic and managerial implications about billboard advertising.

Keywords: billboard advertising, congruence, symbolic values, distinctiveness, media emotion and values
Introduction

Out-of-home (OOH) media are one of the most well-known historical advertising formats (Schaeffler, 2012). It is commonly known that before the modern advertising industry appeared, earlier forms of advertising were based on types of signboards that served as primitive types of advertising (Park, Kim, & del Pobil, 2011). Despite its long history, OOH advertising (advertising using OOH media) has deviated from the main academic interests of advertising research (Katz, 2003). Nevertheless, some believe OOH advertising has various merits. For example, OOH media (e.g., billboards) can receive massive exposure to pedestrians and drivers and are very effective in terms of consumer exposure (Roux & Van der Waldt, 2016; Taylor, Franke, & Bang, 2006). Although it has not gained much academic attention, OOH advertising has its own concrete industrial position (e.g., Jurca & Madlberger, 2015). Furthermore, as OOH media evolve, they have become smarter than ever before by incorporating digital technologies into their appearance and characteristics (Dennis et al., 2014; Taylor, 2015). Digital signage represents digital outdoor that has potential in advertising industries, based on interactivity or other new media technologies (Bae, Jun, & Hough, 2016).

This study starts from the point that there has been limited research on OOH media and OOH advertising. The main research target is billboard media, which comprise the typical types of OOH advertising. In particular, this study is interested in billboards located in Times Squares for several reasons. First, many people such as advertisers and tourists know billboards in Times Squares very well. Also, these media exert various additional effects, along with direct media exposure effects. For example, advertisers using Times Square billboards can use this advertising execution as PR (Public Relations) issues. Moreover, even for brands from other countries, Times Square advertising can be a symbol of global branding in their domestic markets (Cheon & Jun, 2012).

Accordingly, this study focuses on which variables in consumers’ minds influence their attitude toward billboard advertising media, especially in Times Square. More specifically, this study aims to explore how billboard media work via consumers’ perceptions by proposing the effect model of billboard advertising media that explores the effects of individual consumers’ latent constructs on their attitude toward billboard advertising media, including hypothesized relationships. Suggesting the research model, we empirically test hierarchical relationships in this study.

Conceptual Rational and Hypotheses Development

Since consumers easily see billboards and perceive billboard media as a part of their lives, a billboard medium is a representative form of OOH advertising (Taylor, Franke, & Bang, 2006). Recently various types of billboards have appeared, and we can now notice digitalized forms of billboards such as digital signage that has newly entered into media and advertising markets and has gained attention from the media industries for a decade (Bae, Jun, & Hough, 2016). In particular, sometimes people regard billboards located in Times Square as media art, due to their novel presentation styles. Since these billboard media are not only for pedestrians in Times Square but also for effective advertising forms, we explore how the following relevant individual
consumer’s latent constructs influence billboard advertising effects via billboard media in Times Square, New York City.

**Congruence**

Congruence between objects and messages is important in enhancing communication effects (Choi & Rifon, 2012). Varadarajan and Menon (1988) defined congruence as the perceived relevance between two objects and involves various concepts including products, brand image, positioning, and target markets. Academic fields also have used similar concepts, such as fit or similarity. Even though the literal expressions are different, the basic roles are similar. Since Gardner and Levy (1955) first examined the congruence effect between brand and self-image, self-congruence theory (“the self-concept which encompasses an individual’s schema set, or the articulation of the self in memory, and entails a stable and a malleable element”; Plewa & Palmer, 2014, p. 240), increasingly has received study in the marketing and social-psychology literature (e.g., Bosnjak et al., 2011; Plewa & Palmer, 2014; Sirgy, 1986; Sirgy et al., 2008).

Researchers have applied the congruence effect to various issues in the advertising and branding literature, which include spokesperson and brand congruence (Atkin & Block, 1983; Kamins & Gupta, 1994; Misra & Beatty, 1990), consumer personality and brand congruence (Maehle & Shneor, 2010; Nienstedt, Huber, & Seelmann, 2012), price expectation and brand congruence (van Rompay & Pruyn, 2011), reputation and brand personality congruence (Kuenzel & Halliday, 2010), and the effects of self-image and brand congruence (Andreassen & Lanseng, 2010; Mazodier & Merunka, 2012; Plewa & Palmer, 2014).

Likewise, this relationship can adapt to the relationship between media and the environment because media and environments have a close connection and influence each other (Dennis, Michon, & Newman, 2010). Although researchers have applied studies related to congruence in various topics, there are only a few studies regarding congruence between the environment and brand image. Hogg, Cox, and Keeling (2000) demonstrated a clear association between the consumers’ self-image and a drink’s brand image. They also found that an individual’s brand choice can differ, depending on the environment. In other words, the environment has a significant effect on perceptions, not only of one’s self-image but also of the brand image; this suggests that further examination of congruence between media image and the surrounding environment of OOH advertising would be meaningful. As such, our study focuses on the conceptual fit between billboard media and the locational environments where the media are installed. This proposition is based on the cognitive balance of consumers. The more consumers perceive a perceptual fit, the more they hold favorable evaluations of the media.

**Symbolic Value**

A value is an important dimension of OOH advertising. Pohlman and Mudd (1973) identified two values: functional value and symbolic value. They argued that “functional value is that which is conventionally meant by utility as a good, while symbolic value (i.e., image) is the extent to which a purchase enhances the worth of the person in his own eyes (self-esteem) and in the eyes of others (status)” (p. 167).
A common approach applied in advertising to influence an individual’s purchase behaviors is the value-expressive or symbolic value approach (e.g., Johar & Sirgy, 1991; Katz, 2003; Ledgerwood, Liviatan, & Carnevale, 2007; Munson & Spivey, 1980).

Since symbolic value is critical in consumers' purchase behavior, it has been the topic of study in both advertising and marketing (Batra et al., 2000; Wong & Ahuvia, 1998; Zhou & Hui, 2003). Batra et al. (2000) investigated the symbolic values of nonlocal products and brands. The researchers argued that “the apparent increase in demand across the world for certain well-known brands such as Coca-Cola and Levi’s may be largely because they are seen by consumers as symbols of the freedom and affluent lifestyles of the West, and not because they are seen as global brands per se” (p. 94). They also found that the symbolic values of products are more important factors in purchasing products than utilitarian values. Similarly, Zhou and Hui (2003) found that the symbolic value of inexpensive food products also plays a significant role in consumers’ purchase intention. The results showed that symbolic values are more important in determining purchase intention than are utilitarian values (e.g., better quality, better hygiene, and higher nutrition). Furthermore, Wong and Ahuvia (1998) suggested that some can see products as having an instrumental value, hedonic value, and symbolic value. Symbolic value is especially important when consumers purchase luxury items.

Most studies regarding symbolic value have related to products, and only a few have examined the effects of property (e.g., building, place) on symbolic value. In this regard, this study extends the usability of symbolic value to media research, especially OOH advertising media.

**Distinctiveness**

Some have considered the concept of distinctiveness as important in marketing and consumer research, in that distinctiveness helps consumers easily identify a brand in the market (Ehrenberg et al., 2002). For example, Coca-Cola uses the color red and the contour bottle to make its brand distinctive in the market; thus, these color and shape of the bottle help consumers easily recognize and identify Coke. In terms of advertising strategies, some regard distinctiveness as an important cue to create effective advertisements (Ehrenberg et al., 2002). Advertising strategies can emphasize an image of the brand itself by creatively publicizing the brand in advertising deprived of persuasive messages or functional information about the brand. Competitive brands in the market are often distinctive to other similar brands in a category (Ehrenberg et al., 2002). In terms of distinctiveness, color is an essential element for distinctive brands (Gendall & Hoek, 2010; Ju, 2013). A familiar color of a brand helps consumers identify a brand easily, as the color of the brand remains in consumers' minds (Gendall & Hoek, 2010).

To achieve distinctiveness so consumers can perceive a brand easily when they are in a purchasing situation, reminding them of a brand is important (Romaniuk, Sharp, & Ehrenberg, 2007). The key to building distinctiveness is repetition of the same strategy (Romaniuk, Sharp, & Ehrenberg, 2007). Rather than finding the color consumers prefer, using the same colors, regardless of the colors themselves, contributes to establishing the distinctiveness. This distinctiveness is one of the core ingredients for identifying a brand (Stokburger-Sauer & Ratneshwar, 2012). Having distinctiveness helps marketers maintain efficient marketing communication, since consumers are already predisposed to the ideas of a certain brand (Gendall & Hoek, 2010).
Based on the literature above, this study adopts the concept of distinctiveness to measure viewers' perceived distinctiveness on billboard media in New York. Since media for marketing purposes (e.g., brands and advertising) are based on consumers' perceptions, this study uses the concept of distinctiveness to measure the perceptions of billboard media. Therefore, this study examines the effectiveness of congruence between the environment and media on the distinctiveness of billboard media, proposing positive relationships between the two concepts. Therefore, we hypothesize the following:

H1: Congruence will influence the distinctiveness of billboard media positively.

Next, the effects of symbolic value on distinctiveness can also be a proposition. Symbolic value refers to the image transfer between brands and consumers, and this study uses the concept of symbolic value to the relationship between media and advertisers, thereby extending the usability of the concept. Given that advertisers purchase Times Square billboard media due to the symbolic value of the renowned media, it is conceivable that advertisers aim to obtain image transfer effects. This means that the concept of symbolic value can apply to the advertisers' relationship with the media, and provides theoretical support for the second hypothesis. Taken together, we hypothesize the following:

H2: Symbolic value will influence the distinctiveness of billboard media positively.

Emotional Response

For the past two decades, consumers’ emotional response (ER) to advertising has been one of the major issues in advertising research (e.g., Burke & Edell, 1989; Holbrook & Batra, 1987; Morris, 1995; Morris, Woo, & Cho, 2003; Morris et al., 2009). A substantial number of studies have suggested that feelings or emotional responses toward advertising influence consumers' attitudes toward the ad, advertised brand, and behavior (Burke & Edell, 1989; Holbrook & Batra, 1987; Morris et al., 2002; Stayman & Batra, 1991). According to the Advertising Research Foundation (ARF) copy-testing project, emotions were “a direct influence on behavior that is not captured or summed up by attitude judgments” (Allen, Machleit, & Kleine, 1992, p. 500). ER becomes an important factor, since it could supplement cognitive response research that mainly focuses on attitudes toward ads and advertised brands (Batra & Ray, 1986).

In our study, we adopt emotional responses for measuring the effectiveness of billboard advertising. The pleasure, arousal, and dominance (PAD) theory is a well-known emotion theory that appropriately describes human emotions via three dimensions such as pleasure, arousal, and dominance (Morris & Boone, 1998). For the past five decades, researchers have studied and determined that these three independent, distinct dimensions are the key determinants of human emotions (Osgood, Suci, & Tannenbaum, 1957). Later, Russell and Mehrabian (1977) reemphasized that the full spectrum of human emotion can be measured with the three independent emotions such as pleasure, arousal, and dominance. Since then, the PAD theory has been part of studying emotions within the context of marketing and consumer behavior (Christ, 1985; Christ & Biggers, 1984; Morris, Woo, & Cho, 2003; Morris et al., 2009). Therefore, in our research, we adopt emotional responses (Pleasure-Arousal-Dominance) to determine the
effectiveness of advertising, and propose congruence as an antecedent of emotional responses. As such, we hypothesize the following:

H3: Congruence will influence consumers’ emotions toward billboard media positively.

Distinctiveness can be another antecedent of emotional responses toward billboard media. Distinctiveness is effective on attitudes and purchase intentions across product categories, regardless of involvement levels (Ju, 2013). In this regard, the relationship between distinctiveness and consumer emotion can be a proposition. Accordingly, we propose the following hypothesis:

H4: Distinctiveness will influence consumers’ emotions toward billboard media positively.

Based on the roles of symbolic value and distinctiveness, we explore the relationship with media value. Ducoffe (1996) suggested the concept of advertising value. Originally, it was advertising value, but there can be an adaptation to the value of media. Johar and Sirgy (1991) documented that values are a powerful predictor of subsequent attitudes. Given that values play an important role in the perceptions of consumer evaluations, media value can be the consequence of symbolic value and distinctiveness, which we discussed earlier. Therefore, we propose the following hypotheses:

H5: Symbolic value will influence the value of billboard media positively.
H6: Distinctiveness will influence the value of billboard media positively.

Emotion can be set as an antecedent of media and advertising. Given that emotional responses frequently are influencing factors on attitudes or intentions (Morris et al., 2002), researchers can use this concept of emotion in media evaluations. Accordingly, the effects of emotional responses on the value perceptions of billboard media and attitudes toward billboard advertising can be a proposition. Thus,

H7: Emotion will influence the value of billboard media positively.
H8: Emotion will influence attitudes toward billboard advertising positively.

The perception of media links easily to advertising in terms of its media. The advertising literature well documents the relationships. In particular, advertising value links to attitudes toward web advertising (Ducoffe, 1996) and highway tollgate advertising in terms of OOH advertising (Ji, Han, & Jun, 2014). Extending these relationships to media value perspectives, we proposed the relationship between media value and attitudes toward billboard advertising as the last hypothesis in this study. Therefore, our final hypothesis is the following:

H9: Media value will influence attitudes toward billboard advertising positively.
Methodology

Our study applied online survey research to examine the suggested model. Therefore, we collected data samples from the general population. We chose people in the United States as the initial process for exploring viewers’ perceptions toward billboard media in New York. We collected data from the general population intending to identify general viewers’ perceptions toward advertising media in metropolitan areas.

Sample

We conducted the method of an online survey (Amazon Mechanical Turk) to address the hypotheses in our research. We recruited a total of three hundred sixteen (N = 316) participants via paid online survey panels. Out of the total sample, more females (N = 177, 56%) participated than males (N = 139, 44%) in the study. The age of respondents ranged from 19 to 73, (M = 38).

Measurement

We tested six latent constructs in the current study: congruence, symbolic value, distinctiveness, emotional response, media value, and attitude toward billboard advertising. First, we measured congruence (Gwinner, 1997) by three items with seven-point scales (Strongly disagree/Strongly agree). The items include, “The billboard media in Times Square and New York have a similar image,” “The ideas I associate with the billboard media at the Times Square are related to the ideas I associate with New York,” and “My image of the billboard media at the Time Square is very different from the image I have of New York.”

We measured symbolic values (Tsai, 2005) by 4 items with seven-point scales (Strongly disagree/Strongly agree). The items comprise of, “The execution of this billboard media will indicate that the advertiser is a company with taste,” “The execution of this billboard media will prevent the advertiser from looking cheap,” “The media enhance the perception that the advertiser has a desirable corporate style,” and “The media will help the advertiser to better fit into the business setting.”

We measured distinctiveness (Yoo, Donthu, & Lee, 2000) by four items with seven-point scales (Strongly disagree/Strongly agree). The items include, “I know what the billboard media in Times Square in New York look like,” “I can recognize the billboard media in Times Square in New York among competing outdoor media,” “I am aware of the billboard media in Times Square in New York,” “Some characteristics of the billboard media in Times Square in New York come to mind quickly,” “I can quickly recall the billboard media in Times Square in New York,” and “I have difficulty imaging the billboard media in Times Square in New York in my mind.”

We measured emotional responses toward billboard media by AdSAM®, an attitude self-assessment manikin based on the SAM scale (Morris, 1995). Based on the PAD theory, this measurement includes three independent graphically presented characters with 9-point scales. In particular, Pleasure aims to measure how positive/negative the participant feels toward the ads; Arousal aims to measure how involved the participant is in the feeling; and Dominance aims to measure how empowered the participant feels.

We measured media value (Ducoffe, 1996) by three items with seven-point scales (Strongly disagree/Strongly agree). The items include, “I think the billboard media in Times
Square in New York are useful," “I think the billboard media in Times Square in New York are valuable,” and “I think the billboard media in Times Square in New York are important.”

We measured attitude toward billboard advertising media (Muehling, 1987) by three items with seven-point bipolar adjectives. The scale consists of three independent questions: “Bad” to “Good”, “Negative” to “Positive”; and “Unfavorable to “Favorable.”

Table 1
Key Statistics of Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Dimensions or Indicators</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>CFA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Congruence</td>
<td>The billboard media in Times Square and New York have a similar image.</td>
<td>4.48</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>.654</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The ideas I associate with the billboard media in Times Square are related to the ideas I associate with New York.</td>
<td>4.96</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>.839</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>My image of the billboard media in Times Square is very different from the image I have of New York.</td>
<td>4.79</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td>.237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Index</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symbolic Value</td>
<td>The advertising execution of the billboard media in Times Square will indicate that the advertiser is a company with taste.</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>.709</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The advertising execution of the billboard media in Times Square will prevent the advertiser from looking cheap.</td>
<td>4.94</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>.668</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The billboard media in Times Square enhance the perception that the advertiser has a desirable corporate style.</td>
<td>4.95</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>.873</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The billboard media in Times Square will help the advertiser fit into the desirable business setting.</td>
<td>5.04</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>.822</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Index</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distinctiveness</td>
<td>I know what the billboard media in Times Square in New York look like.</td>
<td>4.94</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>.926</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I can recognize the billboard media in Times Square in New York among competing outdoor media.</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>.935</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I am aware of the billboard media in Times Square in New York.</td>
<td>5.33</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>.842</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Some characteristics of the billboard media in Times Square in New York come to mind quickly.</td>
<td>4.92</td>
<td>1.76</td>
<td>.820</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I can quickly recall the billboard media in Times Square in New York.</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>.889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I have difficulty imaging the billboard media in Times Square in New York in my mind.</td>
<td>4.85</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>.599</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Index</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotion</td>
<td>Pleasure</td>
<td>6.17</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>.931</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Arousal</td>
<td>4.96</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>.318</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dominance</td>
<td>5.37</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>.186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Index</td>
<td>5.50</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media Value</td>
<td>I think the billboard media in Times Square in New York are useful.</td>
<td>5.04</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>.867</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I think the billboard media in Times Square in New York are valuable.</td>
<td>4.99</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>.887</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I think the billboard media in Times Square in New York are important.</td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td>.882</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Index</td>
<td>4.92</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude toward</td>
<td>Unfavorable / Favorable</td>
<td>5.06</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>.939</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Billboard</td>
<td>Bad / Good</td>
<td>5.07</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>.900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advertising</td>
<td>Unlikable / Likable</td>
<td>5.13</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>.904</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Index</td>
<td>5.09</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>.95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Results

We used structural equation analysis to test the nine research hypotheses in the present study. We used AMOS 21 to perform the data analyses. As Figure 1 illustrates, the exogenous variables were congruence and symbolic value. Four endogenous variables included distinctiveness, emotional response, media value, and attitude toward billboard advertising.

The hypothesized research model showed suitable results of estimating goodness of fit, in which an $X^2$/degrees of freedom ratio was estimated as 2.89 in the suggested model ($X^2 = 578.85$, $df = 200$). The Comparative Fit Index (CFI) was .93; the Incremental Fit Index (IFI) was .93; and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) was .078. Based on the results above, the proposed model was adequate.

To improve the model, we first examined the significance of the regression weights. We inspected the Modification Indices to identify any inappropriate paths or relationships. The additional analysis identified two observed variables in the distinctiveness construct that had abnormally high scores on the Modification Indices (M.I. = 48.504). Thus, we co-varied them to obtain a more adequate model fit. The revised model shows the enhanced model fit, illustrating that the $X^2$ (522.91) / $df$ (199) ratio = 2.63, CFI = .94, IFI = .94, and RMSEA = .072.

For the next step, we examined the significance of regression weights for each construct in the proposed model. Results supported eight of the nine hypotheses at $p < .05$. In particular, results supported hypotheses one and two, in that congruence (H1: $\gamma = .62$, $p < .01$) and symbolic value (H2: $\gamma = .17$, $p < .01$) related positively to distinctiveness. In addition, results supported hypotheses three and four, since congruence (H3: $\gamma = .29$, $p < .01$) and distinctiveness (H4: $\beta = .21$, $p < .05$) related positively to emotional response to billboard media. In support of hypothesis five, symbolic value (H5: $\gamma = .51$, $p < .01$) related positively to media value, but not distinctiveness (H6: $\beta = -.018$, $p > .05$). Emotional response to billboard media related positively to media value (H7: $\beta = .41$, $p < .01$). Last, emotional response to billboard media (H8: $\beta = .27$, $p < .01$) and media value (H9: $\beta = .74$, $p < .01$) predicted attitude toward billboard advertising.
Figure 1. Final model.

Model Fit

\[ X^2 = 522.91 \text{ (df = 199)} \]

\[ X^2/df \text{ ratio} = 2.63 \]

CFI = .94

IFI = .94

RMSEA = .072
Discussion and Implications

This study attempts to validate the proposed effect model of billboard advertising media, incorporating various conceptual constructs into the model. We summarize the findings of this study as follows: congruence (H1) and symbolic value (H2) influenced media distinctiveness. Congruence (H3) and distinctiveness (H4) influenced the emotional response toward billboard media. Symbolic value (H5) influenced media value, but distinctiveness did not affect media value (H6). Emotion linked positively to media value (H7) and attitude toward billboard advertising (H8). Media value had a positive relationship with attitude toward billboard advertising (H9).

These empirical findings have unique academic implications regarding billboard advertising effects. Traditionally, measuring OOH advertising effects has been a complicated issue among advertising academics. Although some believe OOH media can generate tremendous exposure to drivers, passengers, and pedestrians, it is difficult to measure this exposure systematically (e.g., Cheon, Jun, & Park, 2015; Lichtenthal, Yadav, & Donthu, 2006; Roux & Van der Waldt, 2016). Even the quality of the exposure is in doubt because consumers do not pay attention to OOH media intentionally. However, advertisers invest a great portion of their marketing budget on OOH advertising, and academics need to provide rational support for OOH advertising execution. This study provides empirical support for billboard media value and its effects on billboard advertising. This empirical support is the main academic implication of this study.

More specifically, we found congruence and symbolic value to be significant antecedents of billboard media. We operationally defined Congruence as “the fit between media and city environment” in this study, meaning that as more people perceive the fit, the better they evaluate the media. In other words, the location of media is an important variable when advertisers choose billboard advertising media to advertise their brands. The other variable, symbolic value, refers to “the fit between the media and images of advertisers.” We propose that symbolic value of billboard media in Times Square can transfer to advertisers, and this study confirmed the effect hierarchy of billboard media. This research proved symbolic value to be a meaningful concept influencing media distinctiveness and media value perceptions. This finding could support the high advertising costs in Times Square advertisers pay.

Distinctiveness was a main mediator in the research model. Although we could not find a direct relationship with media value, we found distinctiveness mediated relationships among congruence, symbolic value, and emotional response. This implies that distinctiveness links to the more affective responses of consumers. Conceptually, distinctiveness is different from differentiation, which refers to more cognitive perception. However, distinctiveness relates more to the creative elements and affective responses of consumers (Romaniuk, Sharp, & Ehrenberg, 2007). In this regard, it is another implication in finding the mediating roles of media distinctiveness.

Furthermore, we found a relationship between media and advertising. Specifically, we found both emotional response and media value perceptions to be important antecedents of attitude toward billboard advertising. Emotional response influenced attitude toward billboard advertising, and media value mediated the relationship. The finding indicates that both cognitive and emotional evaluations on media directly affect attitude toward advertising. The present research also shows media and advertising relate closely to consumer perceptions. Since the first
role of billboard media is to draw and attract consumer attention in the advertising business, the results of this study illustrates that the characteristics of media should receive strategic management because media need to exude a particular attractiveness to consumers. Effective advertising media are an important element.

In addition to the academic implications, our study provides potential managerial implications concerning media planning of billboard advertising. Since the media environment becomes increasingly complicated due to emergence of new media, the role of media planning becomes more important. The findings could contain informative guidelines of billboard media for advertisers or media planners at advertising agencies. The hierarchy of consumer perception provides a rationale for the selection of billboard media, given that the individual constructs in the effect model can be significant checkpoints of billboard media. Because congruence and symbolic value are critical elements, these two concepts can become criteria when choosing individual billboard media. At least, we suggest the advertiser avoid billboard media containing incongruent images with the advertisers or brands. That is, we recommend harmonizing billboard media with their respective environments. According to the empirical findings, billboard media with distinctive characteristics can serve as effective advertising media because those media could attract people’s gazes. Our study adds insightful information concerning a strategic understanding of billboard media, and provides reasons as to why location is so important for OOH media.

We can raise another implication in terms of the advertising creativity of billboard media. Advertising effects can classify into two categories, such as message effects and media effects. Message effects refer to advertising creativity, and media effects relate to effects stemming from media characteristics, including exposure. Therefore, media effects are different from message effects. However, image fit and symbolic value can apply to relationships with advertising creative appeals. For example, image congruence between advertising creativity and town images could enhance the message effects of the billboard media, and advertising creativity might need to match with the media. Another implication is the application of distinctiveness. Given that media distinctiveness is an important factor in the effect model, advertising creativity could balance with the distinctive images of billboard media. OOH media might be different from general media because the media format could be creative itself. For example, the unique shapes of the outdoor media can be a tool of advertising creativity, and advertising messages could use shapes as a part of advertising expressions. In this regard, advertisers should consider the characteristics of billboard media and incorporate them into creative expressions.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

A limitation of this study comes from the generalizability of the results, due to the limited location of the billboard media. Even though this study used general samples of U.S. residents, research media had the limitation of billboard media located in Time Squares in New York. Future studies can remediate this limitation by exploring billboard media located at various places to generalize the results of this study. The overall picture may differ and yield insightful findings if future studies explore local highway billboard media as research targets.
References


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Discussion Questions

1. What are the individual latent constructs affecting billboard advertising effects?

2. How will congruence, symbolic values, and distinctiveness influence consumers' billboard advertising attitudes?

3. How will congruence, symbolic values, and distinctiveness influence consumers' media emotion and media values?

4. How will consumers’ media emotion and media values impact their billboard advertising attitudes?

To Cite this Article

Are You Satisfied When You Feel Happy and Sad Concurrently? The Role of Dialectical Thinking

Jun Woo Kim  
Arcadia University

Kyle Bunds  
North Carolina State University

Youngmin Yoon  
Eastern New Mexico University

Sukjoon Yoon  
Texas A&M University

Abstract

This critical review is a first attempt to provide a theoretical framework and to advance our understanding of mixed emotions and their relations to sport consumer satisfaction by examining the role of dialectical thinking in sport consumer decision-making. Therefore, this critical review contributes to the literature on sport consumer behavior and sheds lights on an additional dispositional account of why some individuals are satisfied with game consumption when they experience mixed emotions. Accordingly, the overall purpose of this article is to present a framework for examining mixed emotions in the form of opposite-valence emotions taking place concurrently in a sport consumer through the lens of dialectical thinking. We do so by reviewing a collection of sport consumer emotion related literature and discussing the potential of research focused on dialectical thinking. This conceptual work provides a starting point for further research on mixed emotions and consumer satisfaction in the spectator sport context.
Keywords: dialectical thinking, mixed emotions, satisfaction, sport consumer behavior

Introduction

Consumer satisfaction holds a dominant position at the heart of marketing theory and practice because “profits are generated through the satisfaction of consumer needs and wants” (Churchill & Surprenant, 1982, p. 491). Satisfaction research represents an important topic in the study of consumer behavior because it may result in increased customer-organization relational longevity, customer patronage behaviors, and firm profitability (Kim, Magnusen, & Kim, 2014).

Consumer behavior research has demonstrated that consumption emotions – the subjective feelings that occur when buying or using a product (Ruth, Brunel, & Otnes, 2002) – can have a significant impact on consumer satisfaction. Westbrook (1987), for example, found that emotions directly impact satisfaction in a valence-congruent direction (i.e., positive emotions increase satisfaction whereas negative emotions decrease satisfaction). While there is an extensive body of marketing research detailing the impact of emotion in predicting consumer satisfaction, a few studies have explored whether a consumer can feel happiness and sadness, two opposite-valence emotions, concurrently (cf., Larsen, McGraw, & Cacioppo, 2001; Williams & Aaker, 2002).

A more complete understanding of how mixed emotions, two opposite-valence emotions of happiness and sadness occurring concurrently, influence consumer behaviors is essential. Business decisions can more accurately reflect the reality of sport consumer emotions when revealing the effect of mixed emotions on consumer behavior. The expansion, through critical review, of the depth and breadth of knowledge in the area of two opposite-valence emotions occurring concurrently can help support better informed business decisions related to sport consumerism.

Researchers in the fields of both psychology and consumer behavior have examined dialectical thinking, which Hui, Fok, and Bond (2009) defined as the tolerance of ambivalent beliefs. Hui et al. described the concept of dialectical thinking using Peng and Nisbett’s (1999) three principles of dialectical thinking in Chinese thought: (1) change – two sides of contradiction (i.e., old and new, good and bad, or strong and weak) may lie on different points of a temporal continuum; (2) contradiction – two sides of contradiction could exist in harmony; and (3) holism – everything is interrelated and connected in time and space as a whole, making goods and bads in relative, instead of absolute, terms. That is, “dialectical thinking is widely presumed to be responsible for providing a balanced view on self-relevant information” (Hui et al., 2009, p. 494). Understanding tolerance of ambivalence is important because ambivalence is detrimental in that it contributes to the weakening of attitudes (Cavazza & Butera, 2008). The findings from previous studies on the tolerance of ambivalence are that individuals with higher levels of dialectical thinking tend to experience mixed emotions in both positive and negative events, and they have favorable attitudes toward ambivalent information (Williams & Aaker, 2002). Examining the role of dialectical thinking in the link between mixed emotions and satisfaction is essential because it provides a sense of whether the associations between mixed emotions and satisfaction are stronger or weaker for some people than for others. Though dialectical thinking is an important concept in understanding the mixed emotions (Bagozzi, Wong, & Yi, 1999), previous studies on mixed emotions have not considered the interaction
effects of dialectical thinking on the relationship between mixed emotions and satisfaction. Some research on emotional ambivalence has paid attention to the negative outcomes related to such experiences (e.g., Olsen, Wilcox, & Olsson, 2005). However, evidence indicates that ambivalent information or experience does not always result in negative consequences (Hui et al., 2009; Rafaeli, Rogers, & Revello, 2007; Spencer-Rodgers, Williams, & Peng, 2010). Therefore, in the present study, we systematically reviewed and conceptually proposed an interaction effect of dialectical thinking and mixed emotions in experiencing sport consumer satisfaction by theoretically questioning whether the experience of mixed emotions leads to negative evaluations or positive evaluations when taking dialectical thinking into account.

Importantly, this critical review is a first attempt to provide a theoretical framework for dialectical thinking in mixed emotion situations. This study will advance our understanding of mixed emotions and their relations to sport consumer satisfaction by theoretically examining the role of dialectical thinking in sport consumer decision making. Therefore, this critical review aims to contribute to the literature on sport consumer behavior and sheds lights on why game consumption satisfies some individuals when they experience mixed emotions. Accordingly, the purpose of this article is two-fold. First, present and critically review a collection of mixed emotions and dialectical thinking related literature and discuss the potential of experiencing mixed emotions during consumption of a sporting event. Second, based on the synthesis of information compiled in the critical review, propose a moderating role of dialectical thinking in the relationship between mixed emotions and satisfaction.

An Alternative View on Emotion—Satisfaction Link

Traditional approaches to the study of emotion and satisfaction have suggested that separate dimensions of emotions (i.e., happiness and sadness) can affect the formation of satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Oliver, 1993). That is, consumers experience two summary emotional states, one based on the positive emotion in consumption and the other on the negative emotion. Those who are satisfied with their product consumption typically feel happy, whereas those who are dissatisfied feel sad (Oliver, Rust, & Varki, 1997). The researcher’s findings lead to some consequential questions for understanding consumer emotions in the spectator sport context. For example, how do people feel when watching their favorite team win with a poor performance when they expected a more dominating win? Though the winning of a game itself may be enjoyable (in situations in which the consumer experiences happiness), the accompanying dashed expectations may result in the consumer experiencing sadness. In turn, the next question is: Do the happy and sad cancel each other out, or can they coexist? Despite the increasing interest in mixed emotions in psychology and organizational behavior, there has been little effort to examine mixed emotional experiences in the sport consumer behavior context and its direct effect on consumer satisfaction.

Madrigal’s (2008) study is one of the few with focus on cognitive processes that influence the experience of emotions during consumption of a sporting event. Madrigal hypothesized that a consumer would experience only either positive or negative emotion as a result of the outcome of the game (i.e., winning or losing), which conflicts with the idea of mixed emotions (Carrera & Oceja, 2007; Larsen et al., 2001). Madrigal’s findings are not without limitations insofar as the researcher was measuring sport consumers’ affective experiences—negative emotions (e.g., shame and anger) and positive emotions (e.g., gratitude and pride)—by means of data collection from
different subsamples, consumers who attended either a winning or losing game and disregards the possibility of experiencing both positive and negative emotions as a result of a game. Larsen and colleagues (Larsen, McGrow, Mellers, & Cacioppo, 2004) found that one’s desirable outcomes that could have been better and one’s unwanted outcomes that could have been worse elicit positive and negative emotions simultaneously. This leads to an important question: When sport consumers feel mixed emotions, do mixed emotions result in a high level of game satisfaction? Logic suggests sport consumers will perceive a victory by a favorite team as a positive game outcome, and a defeat as a negative game outcome. However, Madrigal (2003) found that the desirability of seeing a preferred team win directly relates to a person’s goals and has an effect on satisfaction. Assume a preferred team won, but the game could have been better (i.e., disappointing win). In contrast, assume a favorite team lost, but the game could have been worse (i.e., relieving loss). Under these mixed game outcomes, it is questionable whether happy and sad cancel each other out or both emotions can occur simultaneously. Are sport consumers less satisfied with a disappointing win and satisfied with a relieving loss? Conversely, are sport consumers satisfied with a disappointing win and less satisfied with a relieving loss? Previous conceptualizations based on valence-congruent approach provide only static indices of positive and negative emotions subsequent to a team’s win or loss (Kim & Jeong, 2015; Wann & Branscombe, 1992; Wann, Dolan, McGeorge, & Allison, 1994).

Present efforts endeavor to relate mixed emotions to satisfaction via dialectical thinking. It is essential that sport consumer researchers understand the commonalities among the different emotional frameworks, and know how they categorize into similar and dissimilar sets. We begin with an extensive theoretical review of the affective system in the following section. In this section, we first describe the mainstream structures of the affective system Russell’s (1980) valence-arousal model and Watson and Tellegen’s (1985) positive activation-negative activation model, that emotion theorists long debated. Finally, we present evidence that happiness and sadness can occur concurrently and as two opposite-valence emotions.

Contemporary Emotion Theories

Previous emotion studies focused on identifying major dimensions of emotion as well as elucidating their nature. Emotion researchers have been attempting continually to propose basic emotions in order to “provide an explanation of some routine observations about emotions” (Ortony & Turner, 1990, p. 317). The concept of emotion is very complex. Russell (2003) pointed out that there are no criteria for what is and is not an emotion.

Initially, Russell (1980) developed a bipolar dimension of affect within a circumplex model. Russell argued that emotional experiences are dependent on one another and correlated to each other. According to Russell, a circumplex model with two bipolar valence dimensions could interpret emotional experiences most accurately. His model positions the positive and negative emotions of happiness and sadness in close proximity to the two ends of a horizontal pole, implying that “people treat happiness as the diametric opposite of sadness in particular, and negative emotions as the opposite of positive emotions in general” (Larsen, et al., 2001, p. 684).

Next, Watson and Tellegen (1985) developed a new circular structure model of emotion based on the Russell’s (1980) circumplex model. There are similarities between these two models in that several affect terms are located on the circumplex model. Watson and Tellegen’s model is comprised of four bipolar dimensions: positive affect (excited vs. sluggish), pleasantness (happy
vs. sad), negative affect (distressed vs. relaxed), and engagement (aroused vs. still). Their model also rotates the axes 45° and emphasizes two dimensions labeled positive affect and negative affect that the solid lines in Figure 1 illustrate. There are strong positive relationships among emotional states falling in the same octant, and those located in the nearby octant have positive relationships. Further, there was no correlation among emotional states 90° apart, whereas there were strong negative relationships among those 180° apart. Although Watson and Tellegen’s (1985) model shows either positive or negative relationship among the emotional terms, it does not illustrate strength among the emotional terms and densities within the two-dimensional space (i.e., more emotional terms in the high positive and negative affect octant than those in strong engagement and disengagement).


One implication of Watson and Tellegen’s (1985) circumplex model is that two valence dimensions better represent emotion than one or three, which was consistent with the results of factor analyses, a two-factor solution. Further, the model depicts happiness and sadness at opposite ends of a bipolar valence dimension similar to Russell’s model. The main difference between these two models remains that “they make different predictions about the relationship between polar opposite emotions” (Larsen & McGraw, 2011, p. 1096). Russell’s (1980) valence-arousal model shows that polar opposite emotions are mutually exclusive, whereas the Watson and Tellegen’s (1985) PA-NA model revealed a perfectly negative correlation for polar opposite emotions.
Mixed Emotions

Researchers conceptualize positive and negative emotions as two ends of a continuum. Thus, researchers consider positive and negative emotions as mutually exclusive or negatively correlated. Just like “hot” and “cold” are opposing labels to describe temperature, positive and negative emotions describe different regions of a single bipolar dimension. In this perspective, researchers argue that an individual cannot feel extremely hot and cold at the same time (e.g., Russell & Carroll, 1999). Conversely, another explanation of the affective system is to consider positive and negative emotions as two distinct “feeling” qualities. For example, hunger and thirst are two distinct feelings that people can experience simultaneously.

Given these sharp contrasts in how individuals experience happiness and sadness, models of affect usually conceptualize the two emotions as diametric opposites, thus, precluding the simultaneous experience of two opposite emotions (Larsen & McGraw, 2014; Russell & Carroll, 1999). Cacioppo and Berntson’s (1994) Evaluative Space Model (ESM) includes the premise that positive and negative emotions have antagonistic effects. From Cacioppo and Berntson’s perspective, people can experience two opposite emotions such as happiness and sadness either sequentially or simultaneously according to the circumstances.

Evaluative Space Model (ESM)

The ESM (Cacioppo & Berntson, 1994; Cacioppo, Gardner, & Berntson, 1999) provides a sound foundation for conceptualizing a mixed emotional experience. Like other models of affect (e.g., Russell, 1980; Watson & Tellegen, 1985), the ESM includes polar opposite emotions such as sadness and happiness. Researchers initially developed the ESM in the field of attitude, and applied the ESM into the study of emotion. Cacioppo et al. (1999) posited that there is no single structure explaining the human affect system, and emotions within the space of two valence dimensions represent a more comprehensive formulation for illustrating positive and negative activation. Cacioppo and Berntson’s ESM showed that individuals can experience any pattern or combination of positive and negative emotions, illustrating negative and positive emotions as separate (see Figure 2).
In the ESM framework, researchers view the relationship between positivity and negativity not only as a reciprocal activation but also as a coinhibition, uncoupled activation, or coactivation. Coinhibition and coactivation arise “when changes in one system are associated with parallel or opposite changes in the other system, respectively” (Larsen et al., 2001, p. 686). In contrast, uncoupled activation arises when there are changes in one system, but no changes follow these in the other system.

To summarize, Cacioppo et al. (1999) acknowledged that it is important to view the emotional states as a bivariate perspective. One implication of this conceptualization is that, unlike the circumplex model affect, Cacioppo and colleagues posited that with the ESM two opposite-valence emotions hold one of the following relationships: (1) uncorrelated; (2) negatively correlated; and (3) positively correlated. Postulating polar opposite emotions as separable, the ESM provides theoretical support to the proposition that people can feel happy and sad concurrently. It is important to note that mixed emotional situations do not always occur. Rather, researchers conceptualize polar opposite emotions are likely to co-occur in bittersweet situations, as those containing both pleasant and unpleasant elements. The results of gambling experiments (Larsen et al., 2004) revealed that disappointing wins and relieving losses (i.e., mixed game outcomes) led to greater mixed emotions than straight wins and straight losses. In sum, mixed game outcomes can increase sport consumers’ mixed emotional experiences.

**Mixed Emotions in Consumer Behavior Research**

Marketing researchers (Bagozzi et al., 1999; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982) have posited that emotional states impact consumer decision-making in several ways. Nevertheless, comparing the quantity of literature on the independent effect of positive and negative affect on consumer behavior, research on the effect of mixed emotions is relatively little. What follows is a critical review and summary of previous research that has investigated the effects of mixed emotions on consumer behavior.

Ruth et al. (2002) recognized the importance of the relationship between mixed emotions and marketing decisions. Ruth et al. have argued that the intensity of consumption emotions varies and that people can experience mixed emotions during consumption: For example, consumers can pleased to find a discount on the product they desired but at the same time displeased to find out that their color of choice is not available. Consumption emotions repeatedly arise based on the marketing stimuli, which in turn impacts marketing outcomes including the behavior and attitudes toward the advertisement and brand (Oliver, 1993). To that end, Ruth et al. investigated the applicability of the relationship between consumption emotion and appraisal to the experience of mixed emotions. The authors assumed that the pattern of appraisals associates with a single emotion, whereas in the case of mixed emotions, the appraisal pattern is dominant for a single dimension of emotion (i.e., happy, sad) and not clear for another opposite-valence emotion. Results from this study suggested that appraisal patterns were
inconsistent in predicting mixed emotions and in corresponding to any one emotion. From the management standpoint, Ruth et al.’s study provides evidence of mixed emotions when buying and consuming products. Although marketers are interested in target emotions such as happiness or pleasantness, taking into account mixed emotions can provide them with a wide range of emotional reactions in response to the marketing stimuli, and this is important to consider.

In the context of advertising, Williams and Aaker (2002) argued that the experience of mixed emotions has an effect on attitudes toward a persuasive appeal because advertisers often utilize mixed emotions in appeals. To that end, Williams and Aaker provided the example of Diet Coke’s two-page print advertisement shown in Rolling Stone Magazine: “She can make me laugh even when I am mad at her,” closing with “That certain something, Diet Coke” (p. 636). This example illustrates the use of mixed emotions as an advertising stimulus, while much research in marketing has focused on the effect of pure emotions in consumer persuasion.

Previous research examining mixed emotions in consumer behavior (e.g., Olsen et al., 2005; Ruth et al., 2002) also has focused on the negative relationship between mixed emotional experiences and outcome variables (e.g., loyalty or satisfaction). That is, some studies have found positive effects of mixed emotions – through the example of a Honda advertisement that depicts that people can feel negative emotions with cramped space, and positive emotions with open space. Scott (1994) suggested, for instance, that the evaluation of an advertisement is relatively independent of whether the advertisement induces positive emotions. Importantly indeed, people may not evaluate the advertisement by comparing cramped versus open space. Instead, the evaluation is a matter of critical judgment based on subjectively experienced feelings, previous experience, or product involvement (Scott, 1994). Because contradictory elements do not always induce negative outcomes, Williams and Aaker (2002) posited that the degree of discomfort and consumers’ attitudes subsequent to experiencing mixed emotions varies depending on age and cultural background. Results from their study have shown that younger people experienced more discomfort in response to the mixed emotional appeal than older adults. Additionally, Anglo Americans reported more discomfort when exposing to the mixed emotional appeal than Asian Americans.

Accordingly, William and Aaker (2002) suggested that “the use of mixed emotional appeals would be an effective advertising strategy when targeting consumers with an Asian background or the elderly, two markets that may be particularly important given trends in global marketing and demographics” (p. 647). From a broader perspective, while previous studies investigating the impact of mixed emotions on consumer retention variables have only focused on a negative relation, the study by William and Aaker added to a growing interest in examining the moderating role of the propensity to accept duality (e.g., cultural background and age) in the link between mixed emotional experiences and outcome variables.

While previous research (e.g., William & Aaker, 2002) found that the propensity to accept duality is an important factor explaining the relationship between mixed emotions and attitudes, few studies have examined the dispositional tendency to experience mixed emotions. That is, little knowledge about how the consumer’s dispositional style of cognitive event appraisal exists, in particular how balanced attention to contradictory or ambivalent information relates to the possibility of experiencing mixed emotions. Recent research in social psychology (e.g., Spencer-Rodgers et al., 2010) tested the effect of individual differences in dialectical thinking (e.g., two opposing positions may be both true; Hui et al., 2009) on mixed emotions, and those studies commonly found that dialectical thinkers experienced greater levels of mixed emotions
than non-dialectical thinkers in both positive and negative events. Therefore, the interaction effects between dialectical thinking and mixed emotions on sport consumers’ satisfaction are essential for a better understanding of sport consumer decision-making. In the next section, we provide a detailed discussion of the moderating role of dialectical thinking in mixed emotion research.

Cultural Differences in Dialectical Thinking

The concept of dialectical thinking (i.e., dialecticism), the cognitive tendency toward acceptance of contradiction, emerged from the cross-cultural studies in social psychology (e.g., Miyamoto, Uchida, & Ellsworth, 2010; Peng & Nisbett, 1999; Spencer-Rodgers, Peng, Wang, & Hou, 2004). Research on dialectical thinking has identified cultural differences in experiencing mixed emotions. Peng and Nisbett (1999) explored dialecticism by comparing United States (US) citizens’ reactions to apparent contradictions with Chinese reactions in order to investigate whether Westerners were less likely to accept dialectical reasoning than East-Asians. In contrast to US citizens, Chinese participants believed the world constantly changes, it is full of contradiction, and everything connects. Peng and Nisbett (1999) argued that “Chinese deal with contradiction through what might be a compromise approach, showing tolerance of contradiction by finding a middle way by which truth can be found in each of two competing propositions.” (p. 742). In contrast to Asian culture, in Western culture contradiction is something people avoid (Miyamoto et al., 2010). When US citizens face contradictions, they tend toward polarizing attitudes, while Asians are likely to seek a middle way. Williams and Aaker (2002) also suggested that Asian Americans had a more favorable attitude toward an advertisement with a mixed emotional appeal than did Anglo Americans. East Asians’ dialectical thinking led to seeing broader and contradictory connotations of the appeal and to experience more mixed emotions.

Previous research examining dialectical thinking and mixed emotions suggests the nature of the situation (i.e., overall valence of the situation- positive or negative) impacts cultural differences in experiencing mixed emotions (Miyamoto et al., 2010; Peng & Nisbett, 1999). For example, Asians experienced mixed emotions more often than US citizens in predominantly positive events, since Asians’ dialectical thinking leads them to see broader and sometimes even contradictory connotations of a positive event. In contrast, in negative events, both Asians and US citizens may experience mixed emotions because they are apt to find positive implications in order to maximize positive emotions. Folkman (1997) found that even when US citizens experience an extremely stressful event, such as the death of a partner, they engage in positive reappraisal and report experiencing a considerable amount of positive emotion. This implies that cultural differences in experiencing mixed emotions would be greater in positive events because Asians may see more negative implications of happy situations than US citizens (Miyamoto et al., 2010).

Mixed Emotions and Dialectical Thinking as an Individual Level

Cross-cultural studies on mixed emotions have mainly emphasized correlations between negative and positive emotions. Specifically, US citizens showed negative correlations, whereas Asians showed weaker or even positive correlations (Bagozzi et al., 1999; Schimmack, Oishi, & Diener, 2002). However, Larsen and colleagues (Larsen et al., 2001, 2004; Larsen & McGraw,
suggested that experiencing mixed emotions is contingent upon the nature of situations (e.g., graduation days, move-out days, disappointing wins and relieving losses in gambling), rather than cultural differences. A problem with previous research investigating the correlation between negative and positive emotions across cultures is that correlational data do not really examine whether negative and positive emotions occur simultaneously. Correlations only provide an evaluation of the degree of relation between negative and positive emotions across individuals, not their co-occurrence in a specific situation. Therefore, Larsen and colleagues suggested examining the actual concurrence of mixed emotions, instead of the correlation between positive and negative emotions.

Hui et al. (2009) posited that people can experience mixed emotions more frequently in negative situations than in positive situations, implying the existence of self-affirmation motives. That is, “individuals repair their negative experiences and shore up their integrity by elevating their self-esteem and positive mood” (Hui et al., 2009, p. 494). Spencer-Rodgers et al. (2004) found that dialectical thinking decreases one’s well-being since it increases ambivalence (i.e., mixed emotional feeling) toward one’s self. In line with this idea, non-dialectical thinkers may experience more mixed emotions in negative than positive events, whereas dialectical thinkers may experience greater levels of mixed emotions in the positive than negative events (Hui et al., 2009).

Hui et al. (2009) conducted the study of dialectical thinking mainly to elucidate East-West differences in psychological process. In the current research, however, the researchers do not believe dialectical thinking is a necessary facet of Eastern and Western cultures (DeMotta, Chao, & Kramer, 2016; Hui et al., 2009; Li, Sheldon, & Liu, 2015). The study by Hui et al. showed no relationship between dialectical thinking and the independent and interdependent self-construals, the proxies of cultural differences at the individual level. Hence, the results revealed that there is a divergent validity between dialectical thinking and cultural orientations at the individual level of analysis. While Hui et al. attempted to establish the link between mixed emotions and dialectical thinking, they measured the degree of mixed emotions without considering the duration or temporal change of mixed emotions. This will lead to divulging dynamics between the mixed emotions and dialectical self.

Moderating Role of Dialectical Thinking

Olsen et al. (2005) investigated the effect of consumers’ ambivalence on consumer satisfaction and loyalty. Olsen et al. hypothesized that consumers who experience more mixed emotions are less satisfied than consumers who experience less mixed emotions, suggesting a negative relationship between mixed emotions and consumer satisfaction. The authors developed the hypothesis from the previous finding that ambivalent experience is likely to be less extreme due to inherent internal inconsistency (Thompson, Zanna, & Griffin, 1995). With the coexistence of two contrasting evaluations, people tend to incorporate both evaluative tendencies into a single evaluative response. Indeed, the results from the study by Olson et al. showed that consumers with higher ambivalence are likely to be less satisfied than those with less ambivalence. With regard to the relationship between mixed emotions and loyalty, the result of the study showed that consumers with higher ambivalence tend to be less loyal than those with less ambivalence. However, while mixed emotion research emphasizes the important role of dialecticism played in the relationship between mixed emotions and attitude as well as mixed
emotions and behavioral intentions, Olsen et al. did not consider an individual’s tolerance of apparently contradictory or ambivalent beliefs (Hui, et al., 2009; William & Aaker, 2002).

The common findings from the previous studies examining dialectical thinking are that dialectical thinkers experience greater mixed emotions in positive and negative events than non-dialectical thinkers. Only a few studies have investigated the dispositional tendency to experience mixed emotions in the consumer behavior context. According to Hui et al. (2009), little knowledge about how an individual’s cognitive appraisal exists, in attention to contradictory or ambivalent information, associates to the possibility of experiencing mixed emotions. The current critical review addresses this question with a relatively new construct, namely dialectical thinking. As a result, the researchers propose a new conceptual framework that explains the role of dialectical thinking in the link between ambivalence and sport consumer satisfaction (see Figure 3).

![Figure 3. The role of dialectical thinking in the relationship between sport consumer mixed emotions and satisfaction.](image)

The extent to which people can experience mixed emotions may have important consequences. Evidence indicates that advertisements appealing to mixed emotions impact the effectiveness of advertising (Williams & Aaker, 2002) and that mixed emotions promote coping with stressors (e.g., Coifman, Bonanno, & Rafaeli, 2007). In spite of the importance of mixed emotions in the context of consumer behavior, a search of the literature did not reveal any research that has empirically tested the impact or the presence of mixed emotions in sport consumer behavior. In line with Hui et al.’s (2009) idea, the current critical review also provides the first attempt to address an interaction effect of the sport consumer's dialectical thinking between mixed emotions and satisfaction. It is important to explore how sport consumers with high dialecticism versus sport consumers with low dialecticism evaluate sporting events (e.g., disappointing win and relieving loss) that induce mixed emotions because emotions are predictors of decision-making and consumer judgment. Therefore, investigating dialectical thinking may encourage further understanding of the complex and integrative nature of the sport
consumer’s decision-making process.

Conclusion

Through this proposed framework, it is possible to examine systematically whether the experience of mixed emotions leads to negative evaluations or positive evaluations by considering the level of dialectical thinking as an interaction variable. From a broader perspective, this study adds to a growing interest in experiences of emotional ambivalence in the spectator sports setting and what impact such experience might have on satisfaction judgments. Examining the sport consumption emotions based on the ESM sheds light on the controversy over the bivariate or bipolar structure of affective system. Thus, this conceptual article provides a foundation for powerful tests of theory and fascinating insights into the developing of the affective and cognitive antecedents to sport consumer satisfaction.

The impact of dialectical thinking in experiencing mixed emotions and how it affects their satisfaction is an area of knowledge in which there is room for much further development. Although mixed emotions and dialectical thinking have been an underutilized theoretical framework in the study of sport consumer behavior, this conceptual article is a first step in applying mixed emotions and dialectical thinking to the sport consumer context and providing a theoretical framework to test empirically their effectiveness in predicting sport consumer satisfaction. Therefore, this study provides a theoretical framework explaining the moderating role of dialectical thinking in the link between mixed emotions and satisfaction that contributes to the extant literature on sport consumer satisfaction by offering a conceptual point of departure.

The current article offers dialectical thinking as an additional perspective that would enhance our knowledge of sport consumer decision-making. Because emotions are predictors of consumer judgment and decision-making, it is important to explore how sport consumers with high dialecticism versus sport consumers with low dialecticism evaluate the sporting events and experiences (e.g., disappointing win and relieving loss) that induce mixed emotions. Therefore, investigating dialectical thinking may encourage further understanding of the complex and integrative nature of the sport consumer’s decision-making process. From a broader standpoint, this study highlights growing interest in exploring emotional ambivalence in the spectator sports’ setting and what impact such experience might have on satisfaction.

We suggest that sport managers and marketers need to identify sport consumers’ level of dialectical thinking. Researchers (e.g., Hui et al., 2009; Spencer-Rodgers et al., 2004) have found that people with higher dialectical thinking experience mixed emotions more often than do others and that they perceive mixed emotional experiences as positive, which could lead to satisfaction. Sport marketers can use the information of consumer segment profiles with the level of dialectical thinking in order to tap into new niches. Because sport consumers who watched a disappointing win and a relieving loss experienced more mixed emotions than those who watched a straight win and a straight loss, sport marketers can send a positive communication message (i.e., responsive communications) to sport consumers with a higher dialecticism, which could moderate the level of negative consumption emotions after consuming the conflicting game outcomes.


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Discussion Questions

1. Can sport consumers experience mixed emotions while watching the mixed game outcomes, such as a disappointing win or relieving loss?

2. Are sport consumers less satisfied with a disappointing win and satisfied with a relieving loss?

3. Do sport consumers with a higher level of dialectical thinking experience a greater level of satisfaction than those with a lower level of dialectical thinking when they experience mixed emotions?

4. What research design and measure(s) would be the most appropriate to capture sport consumption emotions?
To Cite this Article

Sport Participation and U.S. Sport Culture Influences among College-age International Students

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Abstract

According to a recent report by the Institute of International Education (2015), 975,000 international students study in the United States (U.S.); many of these foreign students participate in some type of sport or athletics; however, researcher in the area of foreign student participation in athletics has neglected them as a study focus. Therefore, it is valuable to study the sport participation of this minority group. The purpose of this study was to explore the behavior and tendencies of international students participating in U.S. sport and athletics to determine if U.S. sport culture influences their sport participation. Thirty international students from a middle-sized university completed a 21-item questionnaire and gave a personal interview regarding their past and current sport participation. Results indicated that U.S. culture did not affect participation, and most participants maintained their personal values and identities by participating in or remaining loyal to sports in much the same manner practiced in their native countries. If subjects deviated from their normal practices, it was due to academic obligations (e.g., focusing on study and work) and technical issues (e.g., language barrier, rule comprehension, and sports preference). Participants reported few instances of racism or discrimination on the playing field and indicated they were willing to participate in sports with anyone, regardless of national origin. However, the present results indicate most subjects frequently practiced and actively watched sports with friends from the same nationality.
Keywords: Sport participation, International students, U.S. sport culture

Introduction

Many international students come to the U.S. to pursue a degree in higher education. These students not only gain the academic knowledge learned in the classroom but also experience emersion in U.S. culture. Sturts and Ross (2013) stated, “[T]he emergence of recreational sports departments and facilities have had many positive effects on college students” (p. 26). For example, according to Windschitl (2008), “recreational sports programs, particularly intramural sports, provide a powerful medium for student interaction” (p. 21). In addition, recreational sport participation has affected students’ perceived sense of campus community (Elkins, Forrester, & Noel-Elkins, 2011), enhanced quality of campus life (Ellis, Compton, Tyson, & Bohlig, 2002), leadership and communication skills (Lindsey, 2012), intrinsic motivation (Cooper Schuett, & Phillips, 2012), healthy-related physical activity benefits (Forrester, Arterbury, & Barcelona, 2006; Haskell et al., 2007), and values clarification (Rothwell & Theodore, 2006). Sports at all levels, from elementary school open play to highly selective for-profit professional teams, have created distinct unity and identity among the athletes, students, and people in the community. Coakley (2015) indicated that college campuses used football as a public relations tool for media attention and to increase student enrollment. Students also used scheduled campus sporting events as a ritualized occasion for taking a break from coursework. Additionally, professional sports including football, basketball, and baseball created a sense of fame for the people in the region.

International students studying in the U.S. bring with them a wealth of sporting backgrounds and interests as well as team loyalties. As a result, their values and identities naturally differ from those of U.S. students. Coakley (2015) studied extensively this cultural divide and pointed out the social and cultural contexts, in which people live, mediate sport participation. Furthermore, he points out that people continually revise their decisions about sport participation; he posits that decisions are not set in stone but rather evolve and as social conditions change, so do decisions. Specific to sport participation, Mullin, Hardy, and Sutton (2014) append that, “environmental and individual factors influence how and how much people become involved with and committed to sport” (p. 59). Within this context, one might postulate that U.S. culture could modulate sport participation behavior of international students.

Race, ethnicity, and sports participation have attracted attention for many researchers and scholars in the field of sport sociology. Pedersen and Thibault (2014) mentioned that “sport is a significant part of many societies of the world; it is not surprising that scholars would be interested in studying its dimensions, scope, and influence” (p. 428). Some of the earlier research focused on sport participation of minority and ethnic groups in the U.S., but none of those groups included international students. It is valuable to study this group as our global society demands cultural understanding, and the insights could help university administrators understand and assist international students in their ability to succeed academically and socially.
Literature Review

Identity

Identity is a basis for self-direction and self-control in our lives. People never form identity permanently because it emerges out of the relationships, and the relationships are constantly changing as people meet new people, as people change, and as people face new situations. According to McGuire (2004), people form and transform identity through socialization processes and social interaction. Sport plays a crucial role in shaping this national identity. For instance, according to Hibberd (2014), U.S. citizens must have felt unified around the 2014 National Football League (NFL) Super Bowl, as it was the most-viewed U.S. television program of all time.

Development of U.S. Sport Culture

People in the U.S. identify with sports. From 1920 to 1960, people referred to baseball as “America’s pastime.” During the 1960s, football emerged as the classic U.S. sport. Campuses used the promotion of football as a public relations tool, and students used it as an occasion for taking a break from coursework. The widespread popularity of institutionalized sport not only provided central reference points of daily conversation but also helped popularize an interlocking set of cultural ideas about the U.S. and its relationship with the world. People have used sports to dramatize “American” ideals; in fact, sport in the U.S. is so popular it has eclipsed traditional modes of national holiday celebration (Pope, 1993).

Sport Participation among Immigrants

Coakley (2015) mentioned a Mark Grey study regarding high school sports and relations between immigrants from Southeast Asia. The school failed to provide these newcomers with sports they wanted to play. When the immigrant students did not try out for football, basketball, baseball, or softball, people saw them as unwilling to become “true Americans.” The established community residents believe that “if those people really wanted to become U.S. citizens, they would participate in true American sports” (p. 29). In contrast to Grey’s research, some Asian young people have used sports to express their assimilation into U.S. culture and to reaffirm social relationships with peers. Pope (1993) indicated that as demands for conformity to "American" norms increased, immigrant groups demonstrated the compatibility of their ethno-cultures with national ideals. They revised ethnic symbols and rituals (including sport forms) carefully to meet the test of acceptability the dominant group imposed while protecting the core values of the minority culture. Immigrant athletes who played “American” games embraced and affirmed their place in the U.S. community. McNulty and Eitle (2002) studied the extracurricular activities and their effects on academic success. They found that extracurricular activities, including participation in sports, pose additional paths to peers’ acceptance that may divert energies away from academics. Schools play a fundamental role in structuring and promoting sports among adolescents that ultimately undermine the objective of maximizing learning. Brown, Jackson, Brown, Sellers, Keiper, and Manual (2003) found that, among Black student athletes, high levels of racial identity centrality were positively in connection with the perception that racial and ethnic discrimination is no longer a problem.
Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the behavior and tendencies of international students participating in U.S. sport and athletics to determine if U.S. sport culture influences their sport participation. The insight of sport participation behavior among international students could help university administrators understand and assist international students in their ability to succeed academically and socially.

Methodology

Researchers used a sample of 30 international students. They selected from a middle-sized institution enrolling approximately 12,000 students in Colorado. A few years ago, this university’s football team joined the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) division I as a new member of the Big Sky conference. To comply with conference requirements as well as to attract potential students, the university renovated several sport facilities and hired a new football head coach.

Participants

From the possible 176 international students registered at the university, researchers selected 30 international students, from 13 countries by mean of purposive sample. The 176 international students consisted of Asians, Europeans, South and North Americans, and Africans. Most were Asians (80%). Taiwanese, Saudi Arabian, and Korean attributed as the 3 most populous groups of international students (45, 27, and 19 respectively). Most participants were Asians (23 students), while the rest consisted of Europeans, Latin Americans, and 1 participant from the African zone. Most participants were male (N=18, 60%) graduate students (66%). Participants studied in various disciplines. More than half came from Education, Sport & Exercise Science, and Business & Economics due to the universities reputation in respective areas. In addition, the majority of participants had been in the U.S. less than one year (up to 50% had been in the U.S. less than one year (M=1year and 9 months, SD=24 months).

Procedures and Data Analysis

Researchers informed participants that participation was voluntary and that responses would be confidential. Researchers instructed them to respond to all items honestly, and the researcher was available to answer questions associated with the questionnaire during its administration. The questionnaires were composed of 21 questions. Part one requested the participants’ demographic information. Part two surveyed the sports and physical activities participation in their home countries and after coming to the U.S. Part two questions probed sport practice, frequency, watching sports TV programs, participating in competition, following sports news, and justifications. The researchers also asked the participants to answer open-ended questions regarding their perception of difference sport cultures, obstacles for sports participation, and suggestions for increasing sport participation.
Results

After interviewing all participants, the result showed that international students participated in sport and physical activities in the U.S. less than when they were in their home countries. The percentage of students participating in sports reduced from 93% to 80%. In their home countries, 48% of participants participated in sports more than once a week, while the number went down to 27% at the U.S. university. According to Table 1, most participants did not change their sport practices. More students participated in fitness and physical workouts. In particular, they chose to participate in soccer and badminton similar to what they did in their home countries.

Table 1
*Sports in which International Students in Home Countries and at University Normally Participated in During their Free Time*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Home country</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fitness, Work out</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soccer</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Badminton</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volleyball</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Running</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennis</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Martial Art</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Snowboarding, Ski</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>At university</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fitness, Work out</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soccer</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Badminton</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Running</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennis</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Martial Art</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Snowboarding, Ski</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Subjects indicated they participated in sports in both their home countries and university for health reasons (40% and 60%) and for fun (20% and 24%). Some students indicated they participated in sports for competition and as a profession, but they no longer practiced for those reasons while residing in the university. Some participants mentioned they could not find companions for practicing sport, so some of them turned to practicing alone for their health,
rather than for fun or for social interactions.

The majority of participants indicated other students did not influence them to practice, but rather felt an intrinsic notion to participate in sports. However, friends from their country also played the important role in influencing them to practice sports, rather than other international or U.S. friends. Forty-seven percent practiced sports with friends from their country, and thirty-three percent practiced alone. Nevertheless, they argued they were willing to play sports with anyone, regardless of race. The participants gave different reasons regarding their sport partners. For those who normally played alone, the main reasons are lacking of companions and concentrating on workout.

Fewer international students participated in sports competitions in the university than in their home countries (27% and 50%). They compete less frequently due to concentrating on study and difficulties for getting into a team. A few international students played for the university men’s soccer team. Some students also participated in flag football intramural sports, but they complained they suffered from an inability to understand the rules of the game, and, therefore, a team leader put them into boring positions. Eventually, they decided to drop out of the competition.

Most of them watched sports programs on television less frequently after coming to the U.S. (90% and 63%). They reported they do not have time to watch or follow sports. From Table 2, some students started watching football on TV once coming to the U.S., while fewer students are watching soccer due to limited media coverage of teams they like. A number of baseball and basketball audiences did not change because these sports have been popular in Korea, Japan, and Taiwan for a long time.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sports that International Students Watched on Television</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Home country</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soccer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basketball</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baseball</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Running</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volleyball</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>At university</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baseball</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Football</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baseball</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soccer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Participants were fewer watching sports at the stadium than they were in their countries (57% and 70%). However, despite fewer students going to the stadium, students went to stadiums more often. Twenty-six percent watched the games at stadium once a month or more frequent,
while only 7% of them went to stadium once a month when they were in their countries.

In Table 3, a number of International students started watching college sports at a stadium including watching professional teams. These are indeed new experiences for them. Due to soccer not being highly popular in the U.S.; international students did not go to a stadium for watching soccer as they did in their home country. As baseball is the popular sport in Korea, Taiwan and Japan, the students from these countries went to watch Major League Baseball as they are used to watching local baseball games in their countries. The result indicated that international students normally went to a stadium with the friends from their country (N=11, 37%), and international friends (N=3, 10%), rather than U.S. friends (N=2, 7%). For the one who never went to the games, they pointed out that they were not interested in watching sports (17%) and that they are too busy to go to a stadium (10%).

### Table 3

**Sports those International Students Normally Watched at Stadiums**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Home country</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Soccer</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baseball</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>At university</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Football</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baseball</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soccer</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ice Hockey</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volleyball</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At the university, fewer international students followed sports news than when they were in their homeland (47% and 70%). In their country, up to 40% spent more than 3 times a week following sports news, most from television (60%), but only 20% spent the more than 3 times a week following sports in the university. Interestingly, only 23% followed the news from television. However, they still watched sport news from the internet.

From Table 4, soccer is still the popular sport, which the participants watched in their countries (33%), but only 13% of participants followed soccer when they came to the U.S. Most participants who followed sports indicated that they preferred watching professional sports than college sports because they have followed those sports since they were in their homeland. Sixty-three percent indicated that they have changed their behavior. Most of them stated that they dropped out from sports because of more responsibility on study (23%), fewer friends to practice sports together (13%), and none of their favorite sports are offered at the university (7%).
Table 4  
*Sports that International Students Followed*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Home country</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soccer</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baseball</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>At university</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soccer</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baseball</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Football</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results showed that 43% felt that U.S. sport culture affected them in sports participation in some ways. Thirteen percent indicated that sports in the USA are more attractive, more exciting, and includes plenty of media coverage. Someone stated he or she followed his or her peers who normally practiced sports. Thirteen percent mentioned they practiced sports for keeping fit and nothing related to culture. Most participants noticed the differences between U.S. sport culture and sports in their country regarding college sports. They indicated that college sports in the USA were more professional, attractive, more equipment and facility and more money support. In addition, more people identify with college sports. Participants mentioned the obstacles they could not involve in sports as they would be. Up to 40% indicated that they had many assignments, and did not have enough time to participate in sport. In addition, they needed to study harder than did other students because of language problems. Some of them did not see any obstacles (23%), needed companions to play the same sport (17%), had language barrier (17%), and did not understand U.S. sports rules (13%). Few participants mentioned that the culture and racism are the problems. They also gave recommendations on how to increase sport participation among international students. Thirty-three percent suggested the Center of International Education should organize interesting sport events for international students. Seventeen percent requested for connection with other students such as email, so they can set up their own activities. Thirteen percent asked for interesting sport events. Ten percent needed more financial support, so the students do not have to work for money, which means more time for sports. Ten percent asked for sport coordinators.

**Additional Comments from Participants**

Most participants indicated they did not feel or experience any discrimination in playing sports at the university. They felt their sport and physical activities reflect personal preferences more than reflecting national identity. In the U.S., there are many opportunities for playing sports. It is easy to access sports facilities. Some participants argued it is unrealistic to expect students to participate in school sports since international students require so much additional time on completing assignments due to language difficulties, and they noticed many international
students already went to the gymnasium. International students focused mostly on studying because this is the primary reason why they came to the USA. In the meantime, most of them just want to learn U.S. sports culture, and not practice sports seriously. U.S. students, by playing U.S. sports, do not need to accept international students. However, if international students can talk or play U.S. sports, it would be easier to get along with U.S. students.

One participant pointed out that international students do not possess skills U.S. sports require. Moreover, most U.S. sports are a team sport. It is difficult to develop skills a team sport requires within a short time. Another student added that most teams recruited the athletes from high schools. Therefore, it is difficult for international students to get into sports teams. Some participants stated university sport teams are not competitive teams. If researchers conducted the study in a university with more competitive athletic programs, the result could be different.

Discussion

From the results, international students have fewer practices, and participations in sport and physical activities in both playing and watching. Most participants concentrated on study habits. In fact, the primary goal of international students is studying. They normally take more time than U.S. peers in completing assignments. After that, they felt too fatigued to play sport. Some students need to work part time to support their living expenses. It is hard for them to be perfect and allocate the time in every dimension. International students’ behavior reflected the ideas about how sport participation related to other interests and goals in their lives. They thought about how sports might fit with the rest of their lives and what they wanted out of their lives in the future, and that is academic achievement. Therefore, students shape their sport behaviors to fit with their academic life.

Most international students still practice and watch the same sports or activities as they did in their countries if there are opportunities. They still search for opportunities to play soccer or badminton rather than learning traditional U.S. sports. The sports they practice and watch reflected their individual preference and most of their sport preferences are the sports that are popular in their home countries such as soccer, badminton, or basketball.

However, they also found the problem in practicing and watching sports that they really want. First, it is difficult to find the companions who play the same sports at the same time. Different class schedule and sports preference are obstacles for them. Some students turned to fitness and practiced alone because of the absence of partners who played the same sports.

A few students started sport participation for their health as they have more opportunities to workout. In addition, few students assimilated with their U.S. peers who normally work out, but they did not watch U.S. sports or follow the games. According to influence of U.S. sports culture to international students, they tended to play sports with friends from their countries because they are closer and easier for communication, so it is difficult for them to learn U.S. sport culture or U.S. sport rules. Participants indicated that they did not experience discrimination in the playing field and they are willing to practice sports with anybody regardless of race or ethnicity. However, in practice, they primarily practiced sports and do many activities with the friends from their countries rather than U.S. students.

Most U.S. sports are team sports, which required team members and team coordination skills for playing. Therefore, it is difficult for international students who did not exhibit the skills to get into the team. Rules are too complicated for them. It is difficult to learn without assistance
from local students. However, most international students decided to attach with friends from their country or spent the time with other things to which they gave higher value than sports. They did not dedicate time to learn the game long enough to start feeling the excitement of U.S. games, despite many opportunities for watching sports.

Most international students did not feel pressure to assimilate into U.S. sports by playing, watching, or following U.S. sports in order for U.S. peers to accept them. Phipps, Cooper, Shores, Williams, and Mize (2015) stated that students “who participate in intramural sports for multiple semester will naturally, have greater opportunities to get to know fellow participants” (p. 116). However, the primary reason for international students was to practice sports for health and fun rather than developing social relationship. Although the chance for playing or watching their favorite sports such as soccer is fewer than in their countries. Some of them decided to drop out rather than turning to U.S. games, which local students dominated. Some international students grouped together to play soccer. This reflected their real sports preference and probably their identities. Critical theory, especially for the minority group who suffered from the different culture by the dominant group, can explain this phenomenon.

**Conclusions**

In conclusion, international students came to the U.S. with different sport and cultural values, experiences and competence in their sport participation. The social context and opportunities for participation can influence their sports participations although most of them still maintain their value and identities by practicing and watching the same sports as they did in their country. Most obstacles were the consequences from academic and technical problems such as focusing on study, working, language barrier, rule comprehension, and sports preference. Most international students did not feel the problems of racism or discrimination, and are willing to practice sports with any students, although they primarily practiced with friends from similar nationality or practiced alone. Collaborations from various parties such as local students, international education centers, and recreation centers can alleviate this situation. However, the international students themselves have to open their minds and start to allocate their time for learning U.S. sport culture. This is a great opportunity for international students to gain a good experience they can take back to their home countries.

Researchers limit the findings of this study in their generalization to other contexts including the small sample size. As a result, the findings of this research may not be applicable to all universities; hence, future researchers need more research to confirm the findings. The study could better contribute to the academic area if the researchers could conduct this study with a broader selection of participants from various universities. In addition, researchers need to investigate gender ideas about sport participation in non-native countries. Therefore, future researchers should look to sample from multiple institutions to help increase the generalizability of the results and to apply findings accordingly across multiple college campuses. Future researchers should examine differences between undergraduate and graduate college students. They should examine students’ participation with regard to the breadth, depth, and quality of involvement to aid in a better representation of data and corresponding analysis.
References


**About the Authors**

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Sungick Min, Ph.D., (min@fredonia.edu), is an assistant professor in the School of Business at the State University of New York at Fredonia. His research interests include the relationship between sport media and professional media relations practitioners, sport marketing, and sport volunteerism.

**Discussion Questions**

1. What further studies would be valuable to enhance this study?

2. Were the findings from this study a surprise? Why, or why not?

3. Based on the results of this study, what recommendations would you have for university administrators?

**To Cite this Article**

Life Forward

Ron Schneider
Founder and President
Star Consulting
Formerly head coach of the Israeli Women’s National Soccer Team, Ron Schneider is founder and president of Star Consulting, a global athletic talent management company, based in Israel. Holding Pro level licenses in sports coaching and coaching education development, Mr. Schneider also has extensive international executive management experience with Cisco Systems, Intel, Bank Hapoalim, Polaros, Cadence Design System, and Gilat Communications.

Well connected in the sports world, he has personal and working relations with top sports organizations such as FIFA (Fédération Internationale de Football Association), UEFA (Union of European Football Associations), USA Sports for Israel, Maccabi World USA, NCAA (National Collegiate Athletic Association), NSCAA (National Soccer Coaches Association of America), and FFA (Football Federation Australia).

**Interview**

by Dr. Hagai Gringarten

*Publisher and Editor-in-Chief*

Q1. Life is about stories. Do you have a favorite story you use as an icebreaker?

I always bring the story of focus and determination – when I was 17, I made up my mind to go to the USA and get a scholarship to play soccer. At that time, I knew little about international soccer or college. So I wrote, then via letters, to get the communication and process going. It took me all through my army service to arrange my next step in life – three years in the mandatory Israeli army service to finally get my athletic scholarship to Adelphi University, study in the USA, and play at the college level. I not only played but also received an All American Athlete award. This is what you can say – pure dedication, focus, and determination – it is Me! A focused and challenge driven person.

Q2. What are the top three characteristics that contributed to your success?

The three qualities are the following:

- Humble human being who always remembers where I came from and where I want to go.
- Honesty is above and over everything I do. To myself and my core family first, and to society as well.
- I am a Professional who knows what I don’t know and always wants to expand my knowledge.

Q3. What life-changing events or decisions have guided your career?

My decision to study in the USA back in the late 70’s, my decision to join Intel in the mid 80’s, my decision to explore my expertise as a leader and a coach – all are decisions that have influenced my career. I can say that I have helped thousands of people over the years to become
better in their professions. I have changed their lives. I was instrumental in the way they developed.

Q4. Tell us of any expressions your parents often repeated with you.

They have always said that I am always on the move. Sleep very little and always be ready to do more. And move on.

Q5. What is the biggest misconception about how to achieve success?

The biggest misconception is that “Everything will be OK.” Nothing is done by itself. I strongly believe that you need to gain more knowledge, more experience, and be ready to do things in order to achieve success, and more, so you can change yourself and your attitude – don’t try to change others. Try to influence them.

Q6. What books have you read lately?

I have read the book *In Pursuit of Excellence* (5th edition) by Dr. Terry Orlick, on how to win in sport and life through mental training.

Q7. Imagine your phone rings, and it’s you from 10 years ago. If you only had a minute to talk, what would you say?

Roni. You should have continued with your job as the Women’s National Team Head Coach because you are a real professional in the field. Coaching skills and leadership they do not teach in any school. You have that gifted qualifications in both – you could have been one of the top in the world.

Q8. What elevator speech would you give children about success in life?

Sport is a road to become better human being: Discipline. Structure. Team work. Goals to reach. Dealing with success and failure. Go for that young person.

Q9. What would you like to see as your life’s legacy?

I would like to see all those people I have mentored to become better coaches continue my ways of teaching the young generation how to be at their best. Stay humble and more so ready to know that knowledge is power, so they should drive to gain more knowledge and share knowledge as well.

To Cite this Interview

“Hat Wimsy at the 2016 Miami Open #011”
2016

by Scott Gillig

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Personal Branding: An Essential Choice?

Hannes-Andrej Machaz  
*St. Thomas University*

and

Keyvan Shokoofh  
*Terex Global (Switzerland)*

Abstract

Many marketers within the business community have long considered branding to be a method that can effectively reduce or eliminate competition for a product and can draw in customers in a similar fashion to the way a magnet attracts metal. Brand identity is all about influencing the public’s thoughts and feelings toward an intended perception (Rampersad, 2008). Branding applied originally to products but now has evolved to include branding of services, and largely through the advent of the Internet, has transformed to include the branding of the personal services individuals can provide to employers through self-packaging and promotional techniques that can allow individuals to shape the public’s digital perception of them. This article explores what personal branding is, the importance of personal branding, the issues one should be mindful of when promoting a digital personal brand, and how one goes about personal branding.

*Keywords:* personal branding, branding, digital branding, self-marketing

What is Personal Branding?

Rampersad (2008) stated,

Successful personal branding entails managing perceptions effectively, and controlling and influencing how others perceive you and think of you. Having a strong personal brand is an important asset in today’s online, virtual, and individual age. It is becoming increasingly essential and is the key to personal success.... Your personal brand is the
synthesis of all the expectations, images, and perceptions it creates in the minds of others when they see or hear your name. (p. 1).

Tom Peters, a highly respected management expert, coined the phrase “personal branding” in a 1997 article in the magazine *Fast Company*. In their article “Marketing and the Recasting of the Professional Self,” authors Lair, Sullivan, and Cheney (2005) explained that personal branding is the modern evolution and further development of what appeared previously in popular self-improvement books. Rather than an approach oriented around self-improvement, Lair, Sullivan, and Cheney (2005) suggested personal branding is more related to “self-packaging” and the ability to positively affect public opinion of one’s digital brand.

Being popular amongst one’s peers is a human trait that has changed as technology has changed. Today, we see articles in which peers bully young children for failing to brand themselves successfully online in school as a very desirable child, or a very popular child, or both. It is no surprise that a human’s desire to be successful at branding his or her social popularity would include the successful branding of career popularity amongst an older age group of those leaving school and entering the work environment.

The Importance of Personal Branding

Personal branding is often a rhetorical way in which one attempts to control the way the public perceives you. Personal branding, therefore, can lend itself to instilling images of creativity, philanthropy, warmth, women’s empowerment, specific talents, gentleness, caring, and a passion of interest in specific areas in other’s minds (Hood, Robles, & Hopkins, 2015). In the article “Personal Branding and Social Media for Students in Today’s Competitive Job Market,” the authors stated:

The most important product a student will market is himself or herself (Stanton & Stanton, 2013); in fact, personal branding is the key to personal success (Rampersad, 2008). Personal branding is a form of marketing communication that was pioneered by Tom Peters (1997), who stressed that individuals are marketers of their own brand and CEOs of their own company. Personal branding is a strategic marketing concept of creating a positive profile as a job candidate, specifically communicating expectations, goals and values (Ollington et al., 2013).... A major concern is if students do not manage their own personal brand, then someone else will manage it for them (Kaputa, 2003). (p. 2)

There is no doubt that a large percentage of businesses use social media for online recruiting and to make decisions on the ultimate hiring of those candidates. Businesses like LinkedIn built themselves based upon these facts. Recruiters use LinkedIn heavily to find prospective candidates who appear to have the qualifications and skill sets they are looking for, whereas individuals tend to use Facebook less by seeking to enhance their business image to prospective employers and colleagues and more for portraying one’s social activities. Prospective employers often consult Facebook before they make a finalized job offer in order to eliminate those candidates whose social profiles display conduct, photos, character, and behavior that does
not look desirable or does not ultimately match what the employer is seeking (Hood, Robles, & Hopkins, 2015).

Hood, Robles, and Hopkins (2015) reviewed the most widely available statistics of social media use for recruiting and ultimate decision making on candidates. They stated the following:

In 2014, a Career Builder survey found that 43% of companies used social media to view applicant information (CareerBuilder.com 2014). Twenty-four percent (24%) of companies used social media to help confirm hiring decisions; 34% stated that information found on social media led to rejection of hires (Roberts, 2009). In 2011, over 90% of recruiters had visited candidates’ profiles on a social media website during the screening process (Swallow, 2011). Waldman (2011) found that 80% of employers used LinkedIn, and 50% used Facebook for recruitment and hiring purposes. (p. 3)

Hood, Robles, and Hopkins (2015) then conducted a study to understand better the experiences of human resource professionals. The study had 298 potential individuals, obtaining 170 useable responses. In this study, 60% of participants were male and 66% held managerial positions, with all stating they were very engaged in recruitment for their companies, amongst other criteria. The results indicated that managers used LinkedIn to search for candidates and that they used Facebook more for exclusion decisions.

Personal branding is even more critical for those who wish to portray and promote themselves as effective and employable workers during the volatile economy we are experiencing in which employers are outsourcing jobs overseas and the U.S. middle class consequently is shrinking. One must attempt to stand out from the crowd and be an indispensable asset to an employer. Today, one does not have job security as employees have had in the past. Today, one must bring value to the company or to the company’s customers to such a degree that the company continues to feel it receives a positive return on its employment expense. These factors fuel an intense competition for the most desirable jobs and this has led to an exponential growth in the use of personal branding by individual workers. It is thus even more necessary that one implement personal branding to sell one’s personal brand to an employer looking to maximize his or her value from the leverage of human capital (Lair, Sullivan, & Cheney, 2005).

The U.S. economy has become more efficient than ever. A very efficient market typically means there is so much competition driving consumer prices down that companies must apply increasingly ingenious use of technology if they wish to increase profit margins. Technology has improved business success substantially and to such a degree that it has replaced many jobs. For example, in any decent size city, a human being spent countless days checking all the electric meters, one at a time. Now, the majority of electric meters themselves are able to report information directly to the company through wireless technology. The U.S. is the world’s role model for entrepreneurial ingenuity. Ingenuity and intellectual capital have helped companies like Google and Apple find huge profits in unknown areas of the market with less competition. Employers are looking for this ingenuity.

Expatriates can incorporate positive aspects of their current host country’s identity while maintaining their own identity as they work to learn local customs, local mannerisms, and local formalities to make themselves uniquely attractive to the new country in which they live. Often, expatriates also can personally brand themselves to other expatriates better than can locals (Park-Tonks, 2013).
Successful personal branding fulfills modern employers’ demand and provides individuals with a clear path to career success in a volatile economy (Lair, Sullivan, & Cheney, 2005).

Issues One Should Be Mindful of when Promoting a Digital Personal Brand

Hood, Robles, and Hopkins (2015) discussed the most important aspects one should convey through digital personal branding and mentioned that anything that detracts from one's desired personal brand can easily cause harm to the ultimate goal.

Of those participants who indicated using LinkedIn, profiles, professional photos, keywords, and specific skills or desired positions were noted as the most important features of the profile. Incomplete profiles, lack of focused search terms, and less professional photos were the features that most detracted or were most likely to exclude a candidate from a job search. Of those participants using Facebook, profiles, photos with alcoholic drinks and other behaviors that could be construed as irresponsible, and political or personal opinion posts were mentioned as detractions from the image of a candidate and reasons for not being pursued as a candidate. (p. 4)

How One Goes about Personal Branding

It is clear that personal branding should not only promote one’s education, skills, interests and abilities but also promote one’s character, work ethic, and professional image. All public photos and posts should complement one’s personal brand. Unfortunately, one cannot truly separate one’s public social profile from one’s public work profile, and it would be improper to assume they are distinct and separate. Rather, one's social profile and social interests reflect directly upon the type of worker an employer is considering hiring. Photos of one dressed professionally will complement a positive professional image far greater than photos in casual wear or photos depicting events that have no correlation to a professional image.

Choosing to refrain from creating an online social media profile is not the answer. Employers may think an individual has something to hide or lacks the skills to communicate effectively in this digital world. Successful personal branding influences the perception that the individual has the skills to communicate effectively in the digital world.

Individuals should attempt to reflect clearly upon their own strengths, weaknesses, and ambitions in an authentic way to attempt to reflect the most positive attributes of their true character. It helps to have a passion for one’s interests in order to portray an authentic love for one’s ambitions and for one’s self. If one does not have passion and does not love one’s self, it becomes increasingly difficult to persuade successfully public perception in a positive manner (Rampersad, 2008).

In “A New Blueprint for Powerful and Authentic Personal Branding,” Rampersad (2008) introduces “an organic, holistic, and authentic personal branding model” through the following four phases:

1. Define and formulate your personal ambition.
2. Define and formulate your personal brand.
3. Formulate your personal balanced scorecard (PBSC).
4. Implement and cultivate your personal ambition, personal brand, and personal balanced scorecard. (p. 5)

This four-step approach to personal branding begins with self-reflection to write down your personal ambition, your dreams, who you are, your values, your intellectual attributes, and what makes you unique. According to the author, these steps further include the creation of a clear and persuasive brand promise one can use as a guiding tool of all further behavior and actions toward formulating your personal brand, which centers on a single core talent one should describe in one’s own personal brand story. An individual uses this story to create a positive emotional reaction by the public to one’s own personal brand. Rampersad (2008) also recommended you even design a personal logo to represent your personal brand as one might do for a product. Rampersad recommended you formulate a personal balanced scorecard as an analytical method for translating your ambition and personal brand into written objectives so successful actions can then take place. Rampersad’s final step is to implement and cultivate all of the three previous steps. Rampersad stated the following:

You have to articulate your personal brand with love and passion, be committed to change, and improve your perceived value in the marketplace and yourself continuously. In addition, try to build credibility and become an expert in your field.... in short, live according to your brand promise. (p. 6)

Each profession has its own features that can lead to a successful personal brand. For example, if one was a pharmacist, posting interesting and informative articles that promote pharmaceutical related health, posting articles or statements that might lend a reader to believe the individual has strong moral values, and posting articles and statements demonstrating one’s growing positive connections with others in the health care profession are all examples of what would help create a successful personal brand (Kleppinger & Cain, 2015).

Another example might be that of an attorney or accountant who uses social media to educate the public on various legal or tax issues on a consistent basis. When the public sees a large number of public posts that demonstrate a professional’s attention to detail on issues that are complex, the public can begin to perceive quickly that an individual is an expert in his or her field. In fact, if the personal branding is very successful, the public might even think of that person every time they think of the related subject matter.

Conclusion

Personal branding is a very important strategy for success in this digital age in order to set oneself apart from the rest by taking control over one’s personal brand through a volatile economy. Personal branding’s value is apparent as the NASDAQ and New York Stock Exchange (NYSE) demonstrated. Each has assigned a current market capitalization valuation of $335.79 billion to Facebook, Inc. (FB) and $16.68 billion to LinkedIn Corporation (LNKD) as of May 3, 2016 (Lair, Sullivan, & Cheney, 2005). Taking control of your personal brand and capitalizing on this blossoming revolution by devoting some substantial time to considering your own personal branding will provide results far better than the alternative.
References


About the Authors

Hannes-Andrej Machaz is a Swiss national currently pursuing a degree in Marketing at St. Thomas University (STU). Currently, he is on the STU Dean’s List and is a Member of the *Phi Alpha Theta* History Honor Society. He is particularly interested in business and the correlation between Europe and American markets, and their economic dependency factors.

Keyvan Shokoofh, originally from Persia, having moved to Switzerland, graduated from the University of Berne with an MBA in Finance, Strategy, & Controlling. Currently, he is the Business Development Director at Terex Global in Switzerland. Previously, he worked for ABB in various positions, such as Sales Director Traction North America, Sales & Marketing Manager, and Global Head of Sales Auxiliary Converter.

Discussion Questions

1. Seek out in a group discussion each member’s uniqueness by listing major skills that apply to him or her. Based upon these, find out what enterprise with which mission statement would be the most appropriate employer for that individual?

2. Academic notations are just one part of making a candidate attractive to an employer. Which abilities show emotional intelligence during the application process?

To Cite this Article

Agenda, Identity, and Attribution: 
Consumerism’s Effect on Modern U.S. Society

Jonluc Borno
St. Thomas University

Abstract

The words, “The new slavery is consumerism” (Mcgill, 2005, n.p.) while appearing hyperbolic, provoke some thought about what consumerism is and how it affects people today. It can be difficult to arrive at a meaning behind consumerism’s effect on society. Merriam-Webster’s (2011) dictionary defines consumerism as “the belief that it is good for people to spend a lot of money on goods and services” (n.p.). The connection between currency and priced services seems like a normal, basic, and incorruptible nexus, but modern consumerism has a prevalent component to its existence known as advertising. One can make the argument that today’s world of consumerism laced with advertising encourages individuals to invest more into spending than producing. Conversely, personal responsibility and flourishing capitalism stand as obstacles to the claim that consumerism is caustic and malevolent. Through the use of Maxwell McComb’s and Donald Shaw’s theory of Agenda Setting, this writer aims to identify and analyze the outcomes which consumerism summons from modern U.S. society.

Keywords: consumption, marketing, capitalism

Where does Consumerism come from?

One has to wonder when the urge to spend money on goods and services became so commonplace in humanity. Identifying the origin is actually pretty simple. One simply need ask: When did I first start watching commercials? A concentrated minority may be able to deny ever having laid eyes on a commercial, but that is definitely not the case for the rest of modern U.S. Avoiding a commercial is almost as difficult as resisting the urge to blink. Those conniving ads do not just exist on television screens anymore. To put this issue in perspective, look at how developed and pervasive technology has become within our lives in 2016. Society has long since evolved past the age of radio, television, or even home computer systems. People can now carry and operate personal computers in the palms of their hands. These personal devices come in the form of smart phones and tablets, which allow us to access virtually any kind of entertainment,
ranging from television programming to music, video games, social media, and independently produced content encompassing all of the former and beyond. The over-arching constant in all of this technology and entertainment is advertising. Capitalism works as well as it does today – to provide this fancy tech for the record – because people purposely use our mediums of entertainment to glamorize the societal lust for new possessions. Hopefully, the present research will provide some perspective on advertising’s connection to environmental obscenity.

To Feed the Sin of Greed

Sonia Maasik’s and Solomon Hunt’s (2012) Signs of Life contains the article, “Consuming Passions,” which opens with a rather interesting proposal in philosophical exercise. The article asks its readers to conceptualize being able to purchase everything they desire. It certainly is fun to conjure up a list of all the things one would like to own, whether it is something as profoundly crucial as scholarship security or as trivial as a new gaming system. The article proceeds to solicit a recount of the items the reader already owns, something that can ruin a dive into material hedonism. Usually, an individual should be able to establish and maintain a sense of appreciation for his or her collective possessions and recourses, no matter how seemingly small. Commercials on television and extravagantly decorated ad on the internet threaten this sense of appreciation by targeting the human psyche. Marketing experts are the shepherds who weave subliminal messages into each ad to bring out the active consumer in everyone who receives those messages. Consequently, a consumer’s susceptibility to losing their identity will take shape once he or she loses his or her sense of appreciation.

An Agenda based on Need

“All over the place from popular culture to the propaganda system, there is constant pressure to make people feel like they are helpless, that the only role they can have is to ratify decisions and consume” (Chomsky, n.d., n.p.).

Consumers allow the well-being of their identity to become vulnerable when they are exposed to the “psychological profiling schemes of American advertisers” (Twitchell, 2012, p. 182). An understanding of Agenda Setting Theory can eventually teach one the basic process of these profiling schemes. If there is one apparent aspect of entrepreneurship, it is that the only thing more important than successfully satisfying needs with a product is creating needs with a product. Now, Agenda Setting Theory argues that the media may not tell us how to think, but it does tell us what to think about (Baran, 2015). Those working in the world of marketing synergize their products with the Agenda Setting Theory in order to effectively summon that need within their prey.

A mother thinks she can assuage her five year old daughter by buying her a Barbie doll, until the daughter comes crying back to her about a commercial that disclosed you also should buy Barbie’s clothes, friends, Barbie’s house, Barbie’s husband, and even Barbie’s motorcycle insurance.

It is phenomenally easy for advertisers to make their consumer audience feel dissatisfied with what they currently own or just recently purchased because there is a euphoric sensation practically hard-wired to activate in our brains when we purchase something we see advertised. For a split second, we feel that euphoria because the advertisement convinced us that the
product is the only thing that would make us happy (Gladwell, 2012). In retrospect, we quickly realize how that euphoric feeling does not justify the expense. Instead of refraining from making the same mistake, though, we ignorantly yearn for that short-lived sensation again and again. Sometimes, we will slap down even more cash to get multiple copies of the same product. This is how consumerism is capable of poisoning our identities. People are completely willing to disregard their own well-being when in pursuit of that drug-like buying sensation (Saad, 2013).

Advertisements on a screen are not the only triggers that put the Agenda Setting Theory in motion. A person could visit to a local store or mall with a small, pre-determined list of legitimate necessities to buy. What follows is carefully positioned smells of perfume or foods, sights of neon-lit products, and artistic arrangements of said products assaulting the consumer’s limbic system. The combination of sights and smells pulls the consumer through every inch of the place until they give in to the dreaded impulse to buy more than they intended to buy (Norton, 2012). Such a sequence of disrupted intentions indicates how dangerously effective the Agenda Setting Theory is when it comes to fruition. What begins as a simple exercise in Icek Ajzen’s Theory of Planned Behavior turns into a subliminally manipulated excursion in consumerism (Case, Sparks, & Pavey, 2016).

Films such as Disney’s Wall-E depict a horrifying vision of what an all-consuming society will do to the planet; not to mention, what humanity itself may look like without any consumption control present in their lives. In the film, technology renders physical movement useless and ads permeate straight up against people’s eyes at every moment (Morris, 2008). Consumerism making alterations to a person’s identity is only the tip of the iceberg because after someone makes all of those needless purchases, they have to lay rueful eyes upon their wallet.

**Preventable Poverty**

In the U.S.A. alone, more than 45 million people are in debt, and roughly 43 percent of families are over-exceeding their income through their spending on a yearly basis (Snyder, 2013). Naturally, we have taxes, we have education expense, and we have the ever increasing prices of just about everything, compared to that of a few decades ago. No matter the case, the consumer population – particularly in the U.S.A. – can benefit from some discipline. It is all too simple to deconstruct everything that marketing campaigns do to get people in their stores and buying their products, but the negative results are completely dependent on whether consumers choose to act on the temptation (Leahy, 2013). An episode of South Park satirizes modern day consumption and concisely defines our preventable poverty by one of its characters stating, “See, there’s a bunch o’ idiots out there who weren’t happy with what they had!...And these assholes just blindly started buying any stupid thing that looked appealing, cause they thought money was endless!” (Parker, 2009, n.p.).

To summarize South Park's rhetoric, any amount of spending that people willingly took part in which was not mandatory bolsters each tragedy of homelessness or bankruptcy in the U.S. This is a theory in itself, and it does not so much take the fault away from the advertising industry as much as it just spreads the fault.

People certainly can do without all the advertisements strewn out across streets and technology, but in the words of Morgan Spurlock from his Supersize Me documentary,
Why should these companies want to change? Their loyalty isn’t to you; it’s to the stockholders. The bottom line: they’re a business, no matter what they say. And by selling you their products, they make millions. And no company wants to stop doing that. If this ever-growing paradigm is going to shift, it’s up to you. (Spurlock, 2004, n.p.)

There is a solid counter to the Agenda Setting Theory that consumers have the ability to apply on their own. It is called Causal Attribution Theory, and it leads one to develop concerted social perceptions by asking oneself why a person needs to buy a certain product (Yu, 2009). Once consumers begin using a little sense with their spending, the benefits of our capitalist economy may finally stop appearing so double-edged. Very few can overstate the emphasis on ‘benefits’ because between capitalism, communism, and socialism, capitalism is the lesser of three evils. Indeed, even with more measured consumerism, capitalism still can be the best social and economic system.

Mass Media’s Cousin: Economics

Those living in the United States are arguably divided on almost every important issue, including consumption. We can look towards the conservative view with disdain, but there are positive aspects of a capitalist economy that are just as un-ignorable as designer shoes on clearance sale. Consider the discourse of The Lorax’s Onceler who denounces the possible end of capitalism by declaring “What do you want? I should shut down my factory? Fire a hundred thousand workers? Is that good economics? Is that sound for the country?” (Depatie, 1972, n.p.). To this, the opposing titular character can do nothing but exasperatedly utter “I see your point, but I wouldn’t know the answer.” Consumption may contradict production to some extent, yet it stands to reason that consumerism is only as obscene as we allow it to be. Let us not forget that people buying products is what fuels the paychecks of those already hard at work and trying to feed their families. Not to mention that when businesses of any size prosper, they can expand and hire more people (Pederson & Stefaan, 2014). Furthermore, one can argue that people’s lives receive a great deal of benefit from the social gathering environment that various businesses provide. Take malls for example; just being able to escape from home life is among the reasons civilians flock to them. Jack Solomon’s Dawn of the Dead Mall describes eco-friendly shopping centers that paint quite the picture of an idealized mall and if Solomon’s visions come to fruition one day, consumerism might just have a fighting chance at redemption (Solomon, 2012).

Conclusion and Reflection

Micheal S. Carolan’s writing inquires that people occasionally manifest a desire to become the products that enrapture them (Carolan, 2005). In the end, is that not one of the greatest natural impulses of humanity? To be desired, envied, and sought after is the ultimate trait that predominates a product’s allure. This product personification dogma interplays almost dangerously well with Agenda Setting tactics in advertising and can lead to some Babylonian results among today’s youth market. Be that as it may, there is still a myriad of reasons to hold faith in consumerism.

Consumerism is not something that needs to completely vanish; it is merely an imperfect part of modern U.S. society that we, as people, need to work beyond. The aptly titled What
Would Children Do with £1 Million? (Power & Smith, 2016) is a contemporary study that explores children's responses to the “Consuming Passions” question about theorizing the acquisition of everything one wants. It was cautiously uplifting to discover that more than half of the questioned individuals stated they would use such a large amount of money for charitable purposes.

As far as preventable poverty is concerned, a benefit of the doubt is in order for even the most vulnerable consumers. It is possible that consumerism bolsters the development of consumer protection by raising awareness within those very consumers of their own vulnerabilities to marketing tactics (Kucuk, 2016). To summarize, the media ultimately can do nothing to set people’s agendas. We are entirely capable of setting and controlling them ourselves.

References


About the Author

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To Cite this Article

Book Review

Book Details


Reviewer

Josefina E. Oramas, Ed.D.

Synopsis and Evaluation

David Livermore’s *Driven by Difference: How Great Companies Fuel Innovation through Diversity* examines the importance of developing effective management practices to guide diverse teams to innovation, with a new view on diversity “as a treasure trove, rich with innovative solutions waiting to be mined” (p. 5). But to mine diversity effectively “requires a deliberate, culturally intelligent process” (p. 5). In the introduction, Livermore defines cultural intelligence (CQ) as the ability to “function effectively in culturally diverse situations (p. 2).

The book contains 11 chapters that address two primary questions: How do organizations utilize the diverse perspectives of multicultural teams to come up with better solutions, and what part of the innovation process do organizations need to be adjusted to leverage diversity for better innovation? Chapter 1 introduces the core elements and concepts behind a culturally intelligent approach to diversity and innovation, exposing shortcomings of existing diversity models and stressing that “the differences that most strongly influence innovation are the varied approaches for communicating, planning, and executing tasks” (p. 12). Thereafter, the book is divided into two parts.

The chapters in Part I describe how to intentionally foster a climate for driving culturally intelligent innovation. This includes paying attention to the diverse perspectives and innovation around us, understanding others’ perspectives to gain new insights into what motivates them, focusing on defining and solving the problem, maximizing the influence of physical space according to personalities and cultures, and understanding the power of trust. The chapters in Part II explain the process, or the “5D” steps for innovation: (1) Define – describe the problem to be solved and identify ways others experience or view the problem; (2) Dream – generate ideas and brainstorm roadblocks, including “evaluation apprehension” and social loafing; (3) Decide – select the best idea to pursue and how to convince users to support it; (4) Design – create and test ideas through the lens of cultural diversity; and (5) Deliver – implement innovations and
global solutions with a plan for a timely launch, one that is flexible enough to allow for unexpected delays and diverse approaches.

Livermore, a national expert on global leadership, offers a well-documented work based on extensive empirical findings (surveys, interviews, and focus groups with thousands of professionals) and best practices from major industries and leading companies across the world (e.g., Google, IKEA, P&G). He asserts that organizational leaders who effectively learn to manage differences can expect expansion into culturally diverse markets, high-quality service to culturally diverse customers, productive global assignments, profitability and cost savings, and multicultural team effectiveness. “The key lies in minimizing the interpersonal conflict from diverse groups and maximizing the informational diversity that exists in the varied perspectives and values” (p. 20).

Despite a variety of recent publications on the topic (Chin & Trimble, 2015; Gotsis & Grimani, 2016), Livermore’s Driven by Difference: How Great Companies Fuel Innovation through Diversity offers a more comprehensive and in-depth view of the link between diversity and innovation. The book is easy to read and understand while compelling and thought-provoking. It suggests a new way of examining, assessing, and improving diversity’s effectiveness and potential to drive innovation. It moves readers toward a diverse and global view of leadership, organizational life, society, and its institutions, leaving readers with a fresh alternative: “Seeing the world through other eyes can either be a constant source of tension and conflict or it can offer you a broader, wider, fuller view of the world” (p. 230). This book is an essential read and road map for scholarship in the areas of organizational leadership, business management, innovation, education, social psychology, and multiculturalism.

In the Author’s Own Words

“Senior executives across the world agree that finding effective cross-cultural personnel is a top management challenge. And CEOs from 60 countries agree that creativity is the number one leadership competency of the future. Leading companies need talent who are creative and adept at working across different cultures. Culturally intelligent innovation offers a way to awaken the sleeping giant within diverse teams. A fusion approach that intentionally utilizes diversity leads to the best, innovative solutions” (pp. 229-230).

Reviewer's Details

Josefina E. Oramas, Ed.D. (joramas@stu.edu), is the Director of the Student Health Center at St. Thomas University and a licensed mental health professional who works as the university’s counselor. She is also adjunct faculty for the School of Leadership Studies teaching in the Master in Executive Management and the Doctorate in Education programs. Josefina holds a Master of Science degree in Psychology and a Doctorate in Education, with concentrations in Organizational Leadership and Human Services Administration.
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To Cite this Review

“Hat Wimsy at the 2016 Miami Open #003”
2016

by Scott Gillig

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Book Review

Book Details


Reviewer

Thomas F. Brezenski, Ph.D.

Synopsis and Evaluation

Those who were shocked at the willingness of the Obama administration to conclude the Iran nuclear deal in the face of overwhelming and vocal Israeli and American Jewish community opposition need to pick up a copy of Dennis Ross’ *Doomed to Succeed: The US-Israeli Relationship from Truman to Obama* and give it a good read. Ross, a Middle East expert who is a counselor at the Washington Institute for Near East Policy as well as a professor at Georgetown’s School of Foreign Service has forgotten more about US-Israeli relations than most political scientists in the field have learned about the subject. He served under three different US presidents in various diplomatic roles all dealing with the Middle East, most recently in the Obama administration.

Dr. Ross takes us on an unexpected journey from the days of the birth of Israel during the Truman administration up until the administration of Barack Obama. When I say ‘unexpected,’ I mean that those who have assumed the United States and Israel were always joined at the hip politically and diplomatically are in for a big surprise. Ross pulls no punches as he describes how the United States, administration after administration, continued to profess support for the nascent state while placing its relationship with Israel distant to its own national interests in the region, often to Israel’s detriment. From courting Egyptian strongman Gamel Abdel Nasser, an implacable enemy of the Jewish state, to denying outright or delaying supply of arms to Israel as the Soviet Union poured offensive weapons into the states surrounding Israel, particularly Egypt, it becomes crystal-clear to the reader that oil and Cold War politics were driving the US relationship with Israel, not any innate fondness or forged bond, regardless of the rhetoric US presidents repeatedly fed to Israeli leaders. US policy in the Middle East was driven by fear that too close a relationship with Israel would bring about an Arab backlash that would create a prolonged oil embargo, the monster under the bed that presidents from Truman to Nixon would fear and thus make it necessary to keep the Jewish state, at least publicly, at arm’s length in the Arab world. Moreover, the US feared that a powerful Israel allied too closely with the United States would create instability in the region and lead to war, which would not be in America’s
best interest, especially since war tends to drive up the price per barrel of crude. Thus, the US often found itself in the position of reigning Israel in, even to the point of threatening the Jewish state with diplomatic abandonment if it did not cave in to US demands to agree to a cease fire or pull back from captured territory. In his section on the Nixon administration, Ross demonstrates this by revealing that Nixon wanted the Israelis to win the 1973 Yom Kippur War for the sake of Cold War politics but not too decisively, and it certainly would not be permitted to annihilate the enemy’s army. This book is a tour de force for anyone seeking to understand the evolution of present-day US-Israeli relations and a re-education for those who believed the United States has always been Israel’s staunch ally and protector in every instance over the nearly 70 year relationship.

In the Author’s Own Words

“Arab leaders came to expect us to pressure Israel, and in subsequent administrations, they would hold up the Eisenhower administration as a model to be emulated. Theoretically, one could argue that if we got something from Arab leaders for such distancing and pressure, it might be worth doing it. But we never did.”

Reviewer's Details

Thomas Brezenski, Ph.D. (tbrezenski@stu.edu), is an Associate Professor of Political Science in Biscayne College at St. Thomas University in Miami Gardens, Florida. His area of expertise is law and government, and his research focuses on mental healthcare public policy. He also has years of teaching experience in the politics of terrorism as well as geopolitics.

To Cite this Review

Editors’ Choice
Recent Books of Interest – Summer 2016

Patricia A. Murray
St. Thomas University


Chris Anderson, the head curator of TED, realized something. In the New York Times bestseller "TED Talks: The Official TED Guide to Public Speaking," Anderson argues that speaking in the digital age should not be approached on the macro, but rather on the small, everyday scale, without a set formula. In the book, Anderson provides insights into the power of the spoken word, which is often considered more powerful than the written. In 48 different TED Talks featured in the book, you can not only learn what makes a successful TED Talk but explore the range of speakers and topics from Monica Lewinsky on bullying, to how bacteria communicate with one another.


Peter Drucker, the revolutionary thinker of modern management, made startling pronouncements on marketing: the only reason for a business to generate profits should be to drive investment in marketing; innovation, without which any business, no matter how vast or profitable, was eventually doomed to stagnation and failure. Cohen, a disciple of Drucker, has compiled a work that involves the reader interested in understanding the roots of the development of marketing and management theory. It is not a book full of startling new revelations, but rather one that provides effective suggestions on developing a map in development of a business, written in a concise manner with a practical approach.

In this memoir, Friedman joins the ranks of others including Orwell, Remarque and Caputo who have written personal, powerful narratives of their own war experiences in other times and other places. In the Middle East of the 21st century, war has become ubiquitous and hence easily forgotten by many, but not all. On a hilltop in Lebanon, in a time not so long ago, a small band of soldiers fought to hold a remote outpost, the pumpkin, while witnessing the flowers (casualties) suffer. It is a story that Friedman tells of war in the second millennium: when victory is unclear, and media images become as important, if not more important, than the battle itself. It is the way war is conducted today, personally encountered and vividly recounted by a soldier on the line.


How does one create a worldwide Jewish renaissance? Rabbi Menachem Mendel Schneerson took on the challenge and trained and encouraged member of the Rabbinate to go forth over the earth to fulfill their mission. The author, a California rabbi who heard the call, explores the work done by his colleagues. A select group, who were dedicating their lives to the welfare of others, and at times risking their own safety and security, struck out to change the world in a meaningful way. If one has never met a Chabad rabbi, this book will be the impetus of seeking one out to learn first-hand how this movement has impacted the role of rabbinate and its influence of contemporary Judaism.


The author who is the founder of Turkel brands based in Miami provides insight into his thesis that it’s not about you, your product or service. Rather it is the customer, the use, the buyer who must be the focus of your business if it is to flourish and grow. After all, Turkel has spent his professional life working toward making this powerful discovery. Readers will learn how to use this simple but extremely powerful influencing technique in their own businesses. Go on a journey with the author to explore a technology-driven, hyper-connected culture; the power of storytelling (and story-selling); brand authenticity and transparency; and more.

   In a world where terrorism is displayed on the front pages of newspapers and is the lead story on the nightly news, the author takes the reader back to 1976 when airplane hijacking and hostage taking was a rare phenomenon. This story is not merely the high drama of the assault on the tarmac, which is utterly compelling, but the meticulous intelligence gathering, analysis of the dangers to the hostages and the assault team charged with rescuing them. It is also the tale of using soft power along with military power to overcome the major challenge of flying over international airspace and refueling the aircraft for the return. The leading characters in this remarkable tale were the architects of the audacious rescue mission, and include a number of intriguingly familiar names, Rabin, Peres, Barak, and a Netanyahu, whose decisions put the ultimately successful plan into motion against odds that today might prove to be insurmountable.


   “Half the money I spend on advertising is wasted; the trouble is, I don’t know which half.” Whether these words were actually uttered by John Wanamaker, Philadelphia department store founder, the point was that efficiency and effectiveness were hard to measure. The authors from the Kellogg School of Management at Northwestern University took up the challenge and present the results of their research in the Best Business Book of 2011. Explaining how to use data-driven marketing to deliver return on marketing investment (ROMI) in any organization, the book provides in-depth examples of how to apply the principles in small and large organizations. With modern measurements and the growth of digital channels, it is possible to hold accountable data driven marketing spending to be more investment than cost.


   During 20th century, when science and technology visibly was the bastion of white males, engaged in great feats, from the triumphs of World War II, NASA’s golden age, the Space Race, the Cold War, there was a group of the unknown and the unheralded. This book shines a bright light on the contributions and successes of a small coterie of Black women, the Hidden Figures of the title. Over time, the five women for whom the inequalities of race and gender shadowed their lives became the “colored computers.” Their ability to use slide rules, adding machines, and pencil and paper to support the U.S.’s fledgling aeronautics industry helped write the equations that would launch rockets, and
astronauts, into space. The work of these African-American women and their pioneering spirit forever changed the world – something we all must acknowledge and celebrate.


The author journeys from Athens to Silicon Valley—and throughout history, too—to show how creative genius flourishes in specific places at specific times. As a travel writer with a sense of humor, the author walks the paths of such geniuses as Socrates, Michelangelo, and Leonardo, and asks “What was in the air, and can we bottle it?” While the author puts a 21st century spin on his quest, in 1925, Parker, Burgess, and McKenzie observed that “Great cities have always been melting pots of races and cultures. Out of the vivid and subtle interactions of which they have been the centers, there have come the newer breeds and the newer social types.” Whether by chance or design, the author has helped to explode perhaps the greatest of all the modern myths about cities, which is that geography is dead.


Working for the U.S. State Department as senior adviser on innovation, Ross traveled the world looking for what the future may hold. The author shows us what changes are coming in the next ten years, highlighting the best opportunities for progress, and explaining why countries thrive or sputter. He examines the specific fields that will most shape our economic future, including robotics, cybersecurity, the commercialization of genomics, the next step for big data, and the coming impact of digital technology on money and market. Blending storytelling and economic analysis, the author offers a vivid and informed perspective on how sweeping global trends are affecting the ways we live. In order to have an understanding of how the world works—now and tomorrow—this book is essential reading for businesspeople, for academics, and for students in every sector, from every country.

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