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Examining Millennials' Perception of Service Gender-Stereotyping Across Four Cultures: An Exploratory Study

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Journal of Marketing Perspectives

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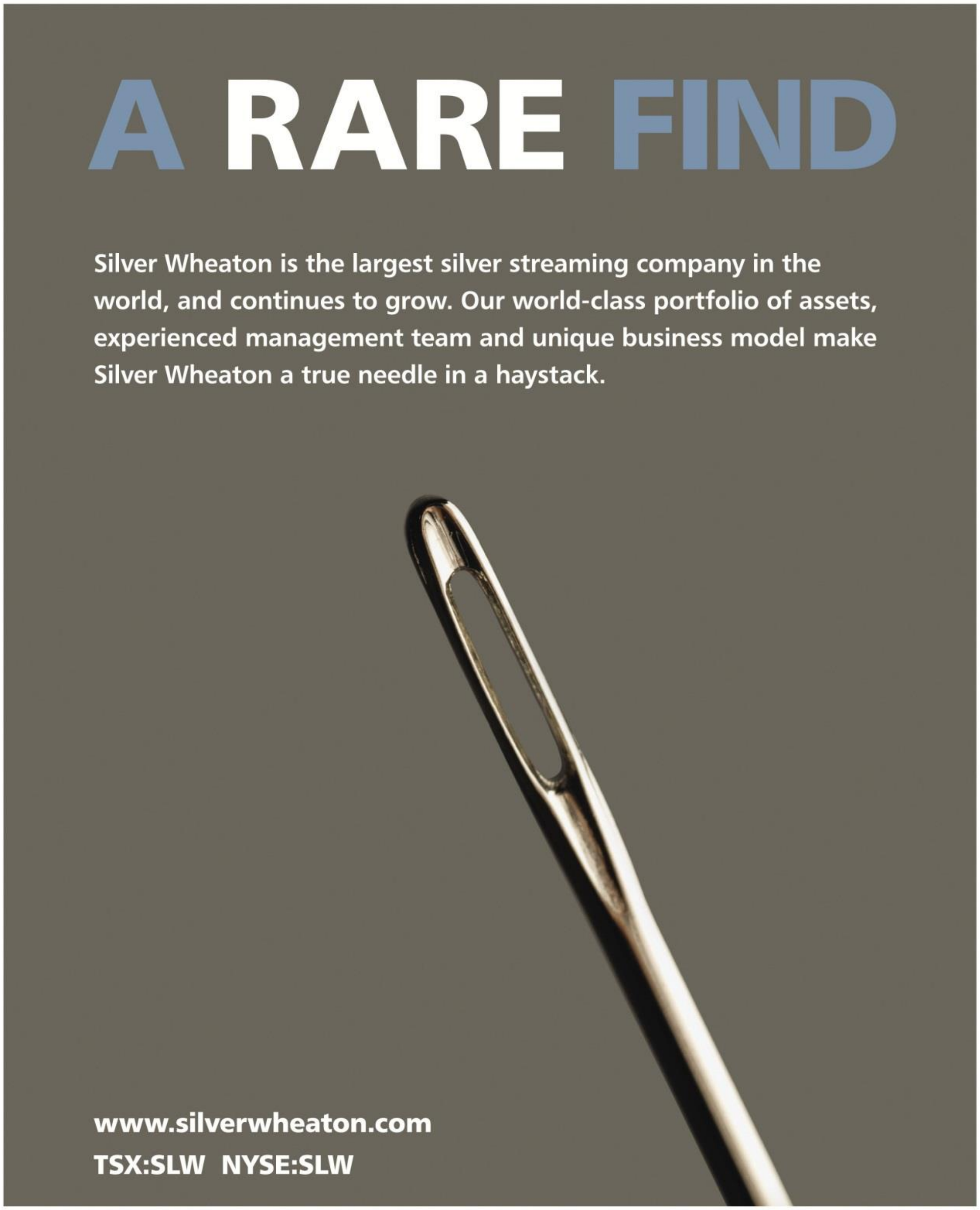

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An Exploratory Investigation of Temporal Distance and Event Promotions: Effects on the Volunteer Call to Action

Robert W. Reich
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Abstract

Pre-event promotion is an important tool for fund-raising campaigns, and sporting events. Local volunteers are often recruited to spread the word and solicit participation in community and cause related events. Frequent promotions with increasingly longer lead-times are techniques regularly employed to create event awareness and solicit participation. This study investigated the effects of temporal distance (distance between the promotion and the event) and its relation to a follow-through call to action of community volunteers. The use of a time horizon analysis in conjunction with Temporal Construal Theory provides insights to human decision-making behavior within a temporal distance context. The exploratory study investigated effects of temporal distance influencers and affective volunteer response to event activities. The report is focused on event marketing and effectiveness using case study methodology applied to the rapidly developing field of event promotion theory and management. The findings, though not conclusive represent interpretive analysis based on principles of disciplined imagination to extend Temporal Construal.

Keywords: Temporal Construal, Temporal Distance, Event Promotion, Volunteers, Motivation, Commitment, Motivation, Theory of Planed Behavior, Event Management, Fund Raising, Ticket Sales

Introduction

Pre-event promotion is a commonly used tool for fund-raising campaigns, and sporting events (Zarantonello & Schmitt, 2013). Frequent promotions with increasingly longer lead times are thought to create event awareness and improve participation (McDonald & Rascher, 2000). This study investigated the effects of temporal distance (distance between the promotion and the event) and its relation to a follow through action. The authors posited that early promotions might have a non-positive impact on volunteer participation. The study sought to recognize optimal time horizon from the event being promoted to mitigate variations in temporal distance influences and the consumers' affective response to volunteer participation.

Studies in consumer behavior have measured temporal distance of sales promotions and the impact on the consumer's purchase behavior. Using Temporal Construal Theory, temporal distance of expiration dates and future purchases indicate that time restricted purchase have a greater impact than future promotion end dates (Trope & Liberman, 2000). Temporal distance may systematically alter the construal of information and could affect initial intent and actual participation (Thomas, Chandran, & Trope, 2007; Trope & Liberman, 2000, 2003).

No research was found that measured the cost/ benefit or attrition probability of pre-event promotion timing or frequency impact on volunteer workers. Previous studies have measured individual responses of consumer reactions to promotional activities such as discounts and promotions for consumer goods (Aggarwal & Vaidyanathan, 2003; Meyers-Levy & Maheswaran, 1992; Zauberman, 2003). Time horizon studies have measured the effectiveness of pre-event lead-time in relation to recognized holidays and traditional gift giving dates (Frederick, Loewenstein, & O'donoghue, 2002; Hutchins, 2008), but no study was found to have measured the effectiveness of temporal constructs of pre-event promotions for fundraising or athletic event promotional activities in respect to volunteer commitment. This research will attempt to fill that gap by tracing participation of pre-event promotions and volunteer effectiveness with selling tickets on behalf of the East Tennessee Cystic Fibrosis Foundation's (ETCFF) *2013 Wine on the Water* (WOW) annual fundraising event. Promotional and sales efforts were initiated throughout greater Knoxville, Tennessee area as early as six months in advance of the fundraiser. The ETCFF is a regional subsidiary of a larger institutionalized organization, which operates semi-autonomously to support the mission and goals of the larger Cystic Fibrosis Foundation (CFFET, 2014; Knox, 2003).

This investigation attempts to link volunteer commitment to Temporal Construal Level Theory. Lieberman and Trope introduced the Temporal Construal Level Theory to address how individuals' decisions regarding events that will happen in their near or distal future are affected by the amount of time left until that event (Liberman, Trope, McCrea, & Sherman, 2007; Trope & Liberman, 2003). The research question we seek to answer asks whether longer lead-times have a negative effect on ultimate volunteer commitment and event participation, or does early commitment result in more commitment follow-through. The use of a time horizon study in conjunction with Temporal Construal Theory will provide insights to human decision-making behavior within a temporal distance context. It is the objective of this investigation to provide guidance for event promotion practitioners who seek to maximize promotional activities. The results will focus on event marketing and effectiveness guided by limited empirical case study methodology (Meyer, 2001) applied to the rapidly developing field of promotion management. The contextual nature of the case study for this application is particularly well suited for this exploration because it allows us to "investigate a contemporary phenomenon within [a] real-life context and address a situation in which the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident" (Yin, 1993, p. 59).

Background

This investigation was developed as a result of collaboration between the Cystic Fibrosis Foundation - East Tennessee Chapter and the Department of Kinesiology, Recreation and Sport Management at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. For many years, the Cystic Fibrosis Foundation has relied on revenue generation on a local and national basis to promote their mission to fund research in the quest to develop a cure for cystic fibrosis. Cystic fibrosis is an inherited chronic disease that affects the lungs and digestive system of about 30,000 children and adults in the United States (70,000 worldwide). Since 1955, the Cystic Fibrosis Foundation has been the driving force behind the pursuit of a cure.

In 2013, Representatives of the East Tennessee Chapter of the Cystic Fibrosis Foundation were asked to guest lecture in classes at The University of Tennessee addressing funding sources and revenue generation for nonprofit, affinity groups and social causes. Leigh Ellington, the area Associate Director graciously shared local practices associated with the fundraising programs and fundraising event activities. The Cystic Fibrosis Foundation is heavily dependent upon community volunteers to organize, execute and operate fundraising events in local markets. The largest fundraising event in the local Knoxville market is the annual "Wine on the Water for Cystic Fibrosis". The event has historically been a significant fundraiser for the organization and has grown exponentially since its inception in 2003.

The Wine on the Water promotion is an event-based fundraiser held on municipal properties on the shore of the Tennessee River. Local sponsorships are sold to eateries, wine distributors and other community services. Benefits of the sponsorship include media exposure, branding association, sampling and recognition as responsible corporate citizens. The event provided patrons with food, wine sampling and entertainment for the price of admission ranging from $50.00 to $70.00 depending on when purchased. Foundation revenues are primarily generated by both sponsorship fees and admissions along with some t-shirt sales. Tickets are sold by volunteer ticket captains who sign-up to both sell tickets directly and recruit additional ticket soldiers. Ticket captains are recruited primarily by word of mouth or social connections.

Organizing captains and marketing the ticketed sales begins in early July for the early October event with personalized captain web pages, distribution of media and collateral and training for the ticket captains. Although the event has been regarded as well attended and financially successful, students wondered if the volunteer response might not have had greater results with less lead-time and ticket sales. Deliberations ensued regarding volunteer motivation and considered the possibility that a stronger call to action for both volunteer captains and potential attendees might have resulted in even greater success if the event was not so distal to the initial rollout. It had not been determined if a significant relationship between ticket sales and marketing rollout existed, particularly when introducing the element of volunteer ticket captains. The opportunity to gather data associated with volunteer success and dates of sales associated with individual promotion of the Wine on the Water event presented itself with the support of the East Tennessee Chapter of Cystic Fibrosis Foundation (ETCFF). The ETCFF agreed to collect and provide post-event data for interpretation.

Theoretical Background

Volunteer Motivation, Commitment and the Theory of Planned Behavior

Many organizations, particularly nonprofit, affinity and cause-related organizations are significantly dependent upon volunteerism (Leete, 2006; Milligan & Fyfe, 2005; Schlegelmilch & Tynan, 1989). "Organizations that promote the plight of a single cause rely heavily on volunteers who are sympathetic to that cause" (Craig-Lees, Harris, & Lau, 2008). Volunteers provide a broad range of support from intellectual, scientific and professional services to administrative, fundraising and event planning (Chelladurai, 1999; Nesbit & Gazley, 2012). Volunteer commitment is determined by many interpersonal motivations (Bang & Ross, 2009; Clary & Snyder, 1999; Clary et al., 1998; Finkelstein, Penner, & Brannick, 2005; Steel & König, 2006). Quite often the fulfillment of commitment and personal satisfaction of contributing to community is a significant motivation for many, especially those who feel connected to the community (Gardó, Granizo, Moreno, & Imizcoz, 2014; Lamb & Ogle, 2016). Previous research by Twyn, Farrell and Johnston (2002) also suggested that "for many special event volunteers, volunteer motivation is multifaceted and for some can be viewed as a serious leisure experience, one which is motivated by the desire to contribute to society and to develop the self".

Corresponding to the theory of planned behavior, an individual's decision to engage in a behavior such as participation in an activity or commitment to volunteer time, will depend on three general factors (Stevens, Kevin Steensma, Harrison, & Cochran, 2005). The first factor is the subjective norm or the pressure felt from salient social referents by the individual to pursue a course of action. The second is the individual's attitude toward the course of action, cause or its anticipated consequences (personal costs and benefits). The third factor is confidence that one can successfully carry out the action (Ajzen, 1985; Ajzen, 1991). Ajzen (1991) theorized that the more an individual believes they have the requisite skills and resources needed to perform the behavior of interest, the more likely they will do it. Ajzen also posits that these criteria must be present in a subjects' decision reference, either consciously or intuitively before an action is committed (Ajzen, 1985; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

According to Clary and Snyder (1999), volunteer motivations have been refined further into six specific values. The first is self-effacing "*Altruism"* associated with humanitarian concerns for others. *"Understanding"* describes the effort to acquire new learning experiences or apply skills that might otherwise go unexploited. A third value is referred to as "*Social"*, the desire to strengthen social relationships and satisfy normative expectations. The fourth value is "*Career"* oriented, the effort to gain career-related experience or increase job prospects and professional networking. The fifth value is considered "*Protective"* describing the need to reduce negative feelings about ones' self, or address personal problems and related concerns. Finally, "*Enhancement"* expresses the desire to develop, emotionally and increase one's personal self-esteem (Clary & Snyder, 1999; Clary, et al., 1998).

Volunteerism is a service that one person provides to another or to the public out of his or her own free will and without any material reward (Cnaan, Handy, & Wadsworth, 1996; Yanay & Yanay, 2008). There are also individual therapeutic motivations, whereby volunteerism is undertaken to reduce loneliness, overcome depression, or deal with personal or societal guilt (Bellamy, 2001; Yanay & Yanay, 2008). The expectation of emotional or psychological rewards can change over time in light of a volunteer's changing assessment of the reality that he or she is confronting or anticipating may lead to a change in commitment, or even dropping out altogether (Jamison, 2003). Original desire to participate might stem from a perception of ought, (or should) and move at the point of the actual performance of doing (Clary & Snyder, 1999; Clary, et al., 1998).

While individual motivations for volunteerism have been linked to such values (Finkelstein, 2006; Finkelstein, 2008; Finkelstein & Brannick, 2007; Hardin, Koo, King, Zdroik, & Bemiller, 2007;

Love, Hardin, Koo, & Morse, 2011; Won, Park, & Turner, 2010), no single value explains greater motivation than the others and motivations appear to change with time and circumstance (Finkelstein, et al., 2005; Yanay & Yanay, 2008). Motivation, and hence commitment to perform voluntary service may not rest solely in one or any combination of values discussed above, but may be a result of "co- production" of needs to address several values including satisfying the balance of social identity and leisure perspective (Bang & Ross, 2009; Lockstone-Binney, Holmes, Smith, & Baum, 2010; Parker, 1997). Social identity affects the individuals' perceptions, cognitions, evaluations and attributions about issues, or causes, impacting emotions as well as behaviors while satisfying needs for belonging (Underwood, Bond, & Baer, 2001).

An individual's motivation to volunteer or commit to volunteerism is a combination of behavioral factors including the sense of social pressure, individual needs fulfillment and intrinsic rewards anticipated by the individual (Becker, 1960; Lamb & Ogle, 2016; Love, et al., 2011). These motivations are complex and can change as a result of time and situation.

Based upon such considerations regarding volunteer commitment and motivation to follow-through, we offered the following propositions:

PI: *Early registration has a non-positive impact on volunteer follow-through*.
P2: *Early commitment to fundraising efforts of volunteer captains has a non-positive impact on sales production*.

The next section will investigate how distal (distant) time might influence the relationship of commitment and performance of volunteer activities.

Construal Level Theory

Significant research on temporal construal has focused on the consequences of temporal distance—the effects of construing future events, or behaviors as being in the distal (distant), versus proximal (near) future (Liberman, et al., 2007; Trope & Liberman, 2000, 2003). Trope and Lieberman (2000) demonstrated that events happening in the distal future are likely to be perceived by individuals in abstract perspectives, while more proximal events will be perceived with greater specificity and analyzed under more scrutiny for risks and benefits (Spassova & Lee, 2013). An economic perspective of Construal Level Theory suggests that individuals use more abstract, higher levels of analysis when considering future benefits than near term events. Higher-level examinations are characterized by generalizations, broad view perspectives with vague expectation of future benefit (Trope & Liberman, 2003). Proximal events tend to be considered with greater low-level, more concrete analysis with the anticipation of more immediate outcomes and therefore the commitment to follow-through may be affected by the level of construed obligation at the time of the promise (Trope & Liberman, 2000, 2003).

Prior research has shown that an individual commitment to an event or production is considered with greater analysis when the delivery date is proximal and place higher value on proximal rewards (Liberman, et al., 2007; Trope & Liberman, 2000, 2003). Promise of delivery at a future time may occur with less contemplation or future utility prior to commitment (Ebert, 2001; Frederick, et al., 2002; Gilbert, Gill, & Wilson, 2002).

In alignment with Construal Level Theory regarding considerations of distal events, consumer research illustrates cases of early "lock-in" as a binding choice, which enhances the probability to remain loyal to the commitment of future events but recognize the mediation of high and low levels of construal considerations (Rogers & Bazerman, 2008; Zauberman, 2003). Future lock-in, in particular, affects commitment in that it facilitates binding to should-choices (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Rogers & Bazerman, 2008). Recognizing the temporal distance between when a decision is made and when its consequences/ benefits are felt, the future lock-in effect capitalizes on the ways that perceptions of the distant future are different than those of the near future (Rogers & Bazerman, 2008). Future lock-in structures a choice so that it is binding in the future, but does not carry the full impact of an immediate behavior although it mediates the follow-through decision (Kahn & Dar, 2014; Khan & Dhar, 2006).

Based on concepts of Temporal Construal Level commitment we offer the following propositions:

P3: *Volunteer commitment is negatively associated with the temporal distance from the event date*.

P4: *Volunteer follow-through is negatively associated with the temporal distance from the date of the commitment*.

The next section describes the conceptual background leading to the study and the source of data.

Data and Methodology

Ticket sales, purchase dates, sales and salesperson data were provided by ETCFF for the period of July 1 through October 4, 2013 (the event date). Each captain was provided a web site where tickets could be purchased anytime from the period the captain was activated through the event. Many tickets were purchased at promotional events or directly through the CF website, but attribution for the sale was captured by various means. Tickets were also sold at the gate the day of the event and sales credit was captured when possible.

There were two large, well-marketed sponsor-based open house promotions, which were held through the efforts of sponsor/captains. Ticket sales directly related to those promotions were attributed to the appropriate captains. Tickets purchased on captain websites following the promotion were also tracked.

Survey Instrument

A Likert type survey was sent to volunteer captains regarding their individual efforts to market and promote ticket sales. Participants were incentivized with a reward of one free ticket to the 2014 event for participation in the survey. Questions included demographic data and use/value of provided support material (see Appendix 1). The survey was pretested with employee representatives of ETCFF and academic researchers. Some minor adjustments in wording and an open-ended question regarding suggestions for the future were added. The survey was mailed to volunteer captains by the ETCFF within two weeks of the event along with a personal cover letter from the Associate Director of the ETCFF (Appendix 2). A second e-mail request followed ten days later. Surveys were sent to 35 ticket captains. Nineteen surveys were started but only 16 were completed or sufficiently usable resulting in a 46% response rate. Surveys returned contained some missing data. The Descriptive Statistics are reported in Appendix 3.

Sales Data

Sales data provided ticket sales attributed to individual captains along with date of purchase, and cost of ticket. Ticket prices had a discounted incentive for early purchase starting at $50.00 increasing to $60.00 two weeks before the event and escalation to the ultimate value-price of $70.00 day of the event. Sales data was correlated to the two large promotional dates and identified with personal promotional efforts of the captains. Each ticket sale and corresponding date was logged as an individual item accredited to a sales captain and logged separately to determine the success associated with a promotion represented 1,160 unique data points attributed to 14 of the sixteen survey respondents.

Data Analysis

Analysis methodology and presentation formation is based on the recommended practice of Robert K Yin (2009, 2012) for case studies based upon theoretical propositions. Case background, theoretical premise, hypothetical propositions and data presentations point to relevant contextual conditions are described followed by theoretically based interpretations (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007; Yin, 2012). An A-priori computation for required sample size was run using G*Power 3.17 statistical calculation tool (Buchner, 2009). Based on analysis of a t-test correlation of point biserial model testing with a medium effect size, and error probability of .05 and a .90 probability, the total sample should be 34 individual respondents. Although our initial sample size included 35 potential respondents, only 16 surveys were retuned which does not attain statistical power reliability. A Sample size of 16 would produce a sparse 0.57 reliability power. Based on such calculations, regression based analysis was not deemed feasible and generalization limited (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010; Langley, 1999).

According to Mitchell(1983), case studies are not necessarily based on statistical inference. The inferring process emerges from the theoretical foundations among the structures of the case study (Maxwell, 1992; Meyer, 2001). The information gathered and reported as a case study, however, could provide beneficial guidance for Cystic Fibrosis Foundation, future researchers and other volunteer-dependent organizations (Yin, 2012). The information could also be useful when forecasting sales result with a volunteer group.

Reporting of Data

The following section will provide an overview of the size, dates of tickets sales and associate clusters with known promotions. The next section will report demographic characteristics of the respondents. The subsequent section will report marketing and promotional information gathered by the survey instrument. The final section reports the additional comments and feedback from the survey respondents. Description and notations will accompany specific items.

Ticket Sales Reporting

Chart 1

Historical Perspective of Ticket Sales

Historical Perspective	Captains	Tickets sold by Captains	Total Dollars	Avg. ticket price
2011	14	192	4,600.00	24
2012	26	286	14,300.00	50
2013	37	464	27,250.00	59

Chart 1 depicts historical sales of Wine on the Water events in Knoxville Tennessee since 2011. It demonstrates incremental growth in captain sales and ticket costs. The data reflects growth in participating sponsors and organic event expansion.

Chart 2

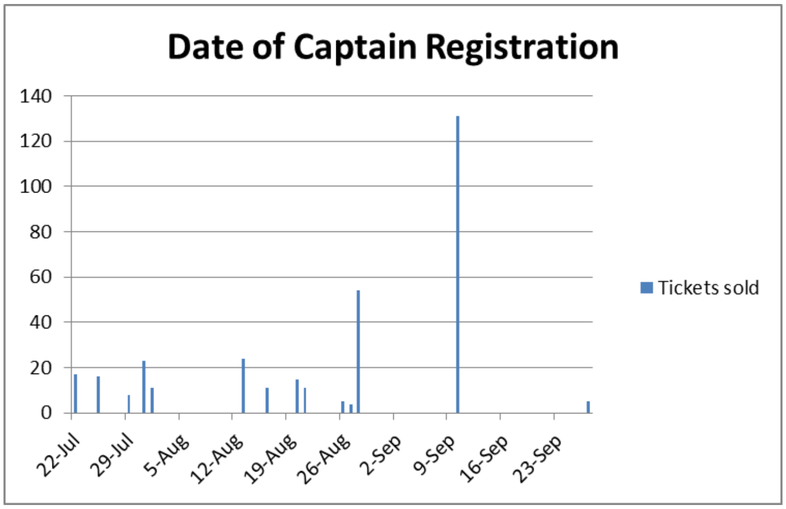
Wine on the Water 2013 Ticket Sales by Sponsored Promotion

Pre-event Sponsors	RBA 8.20.13	Cork W&S 9.24.13	Main Event WOW 10.04.13
est. Attendees	50	85	1750
Total Tickets sold for event	0	53	1160
Tickets sold by Volunteer Captains			464
Tickets sold directly through CFF Chapter			696

Chart 2 represents estimated attendees at sponsored events and the overall day of event attendance. It is interesting to note that survey respondent sales accounted for 10% of total ticket sales. The difference between attendee figures and ticket sales is accounted for by sponsors, sponsor packages, guest passes, sales volume awards, (captains were awarded one free ticket for every ten sold) and volunteer help.

Chart 3

Ticket Sales by Captain Registration Date



The chart above depicts the total number of tickets sold by captains in association with the date the captain register to sell tickets for the event.

Chart 4

Ticket Sale Clusters by Date Sold

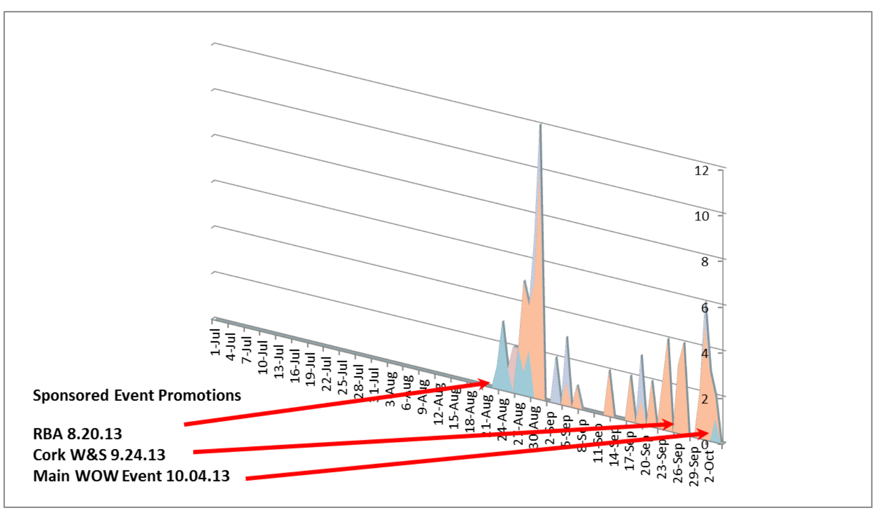


Chart 4 displays total ticket sales of all entities by date sold. RBA indicates promotion date of event sponsored by Renewal by Anderson. Cork W&S identifies Cork Wine and Spirits sponsored event date. Main WOW Event is the actual Wine on the Water fundraising event.

Respondent Demographics

Age: Twenty-five percent of the respondents indicated they were between 49 and 54 years of age. 19% were over 55 years of age and 19% were between 42 and 48 years old. 13% were 31 to 36 years old and 6 % were in the groups 25-30 and 18-24 years old each.

Gender: 81% of survey respondents were female and 19% were male.

Employment type: 56% reported they were employed professionals, 19% were involved in education, 6% were directly involved in the medical field and 13% indicated they were associated with community or cause-related services. Only one person (6%) was retired.

Household income level: 33% indicated a household income level of less than $50,000; 40 % indicated household levels between $75,000 and $100,000; 13% reported household incomes between 50,000 and 74,000, and the remaining 13% expressed an income level greater than $200,000.

Tenure in community: 71% said they have lived in the community more than 20 years. 12% indicated 10 to 14 years, and 6% 1-4, 5 to 9 and 15 to 20 years respectively.
Affinity with CF: 81% of the volunteers indicated they knew someone with CF. 19% did not, but were interested in the cause.

Involvement with other causes: 56% responded that they were involved in other causes. 44% were not. 12% of the volunteers were involved in multiple causes. Examples of other cause affinity were Optimist Club, United Way, American Heart Association, Cancer Support Community, Great Starts, Legal Aid of East Tennessee, American Cancer Society, Juvenile Diabetes Foundation, Dogwood Arts Festival, Leukemia & Lymphoma Society's Light the Night Festival.

Marketing and Promotional Efforts of Captains

Home based and social event sales promotion: Only one volunteer indicated they sponsored a private home event specifically designed to sell tickets. Two sponsor/captains recognized awareness of other ticket sales promotions. 93% of the responding captains did not host a home event. 81% of the respondents indicated they did promote ticket sales at social gatherings and outings with friends. 19 % did not. Those who did specified a dedicated and consistent effort to sell tickets at social gatherings they attended.

Professional or social networking opportunities: 81% of the respondents indicated they did not promote ticket sales at professional or social networking opportunities, 19 % showed they did.

E-mail campaigns: 81 % signified they did promote ticket sales and event attendance by direct email to friends and relatives. 19% did not; of those who did, the average distribution was up to 60 people with an average of 20. There was an average of 3 reminders sent.

Personal social media: 69 % of the respondents posted WOW event and ticket information on their personal social media. The most common indicated by rank were Facebook, Twitter, personal blogs and LinkedIn.

Office and work environments: 81 % indicated positively that they promoted event and ticket sales in work environments. 50% indicated they began promotions the day of availability, 25 % the approximate date they signed on. 75 % expressed an average audience of three persons; however, one captain reported audiences of 15-25 and one in excess of 60.

CF provided web support: 38% of the respondents actively managed a CF provided personal web page for ticket sales. 56 % did not and one volunteer was not aware of the opportunity to customize of manage the personal CF web page.

CF provided point of sale (POS) material: 47 % used the POS to market the event and personal ticket sales. 53% did not.

Pervious event participation: 100% indicated they had previously attended WOW events. 81% had attended multiple years.

Open-ended Comments

Methods of sales and event information distribution identified were Facebook, word of mouth-friends and family, word of mouth around the office, verbal reminder of the event to friends, and personal calls. When asked, *What could have been done better?* The following responses were received. “I met my goal so I was happy with that.” “I did not find promoting the event or selling tickets to be a challenge.” “My web page had some difficulty at first; there was no actual purchase button.” “I think the webpage and emails were best for me!” “Promotional material should be available earlier.” “Website could be available earlier.” ”Advance ticket sales and the mailing of tickets did not flow well this year.” “I did not promote outside of family and friends simply because I do not feel comfortable with the selling aspect.”

Discussion

This research is exploratory by design and nature. Analyses of the results are interpretative, but grounded in theory. Theory extension is a synthetic process built upon disciplined imagination and exploration (Chermack, 2007; Weick, 2002). “There will always be an unmodifiable step that relies on the insight and imagination of the researcher” (Weick, 1989). The following discussion represents the authors’ best-effort interpretation based on recommended practice and the opportunity to extend relevant theory.

Four hundred sixty tickets were sold by thirty-five volunteer ticket captains. The average number of tickets sold by volunteers was thirteen. The median ticket sold by the group was eight tickets. Four registered volunteer ticket sales captains sold no tickets. The registration date of the non-selling registrants was July 25^{th} August 20^{th} and two on August 21^{st}. There was no information about when, where, or how the non-selling captains registered, their relationship to the organization or each other, as the non-selling captains did not respond to the survey request. There are several possible explanations for volunteer dropout. One could be based on the Construal Level Theory in which due consideration was not given the detailed evaluation of what the commitment entailed when made (Cunningham & Kwon, 2003; Gourville, 1998; Trope & Liberman, 2003). Another might be that the volunteer felt "guilted" into the commitment due to sincere affinity for the cause or peer pressure at the time of registration (Bellamy, 2001). Additionally, personal circumstance change during the period between commitment and delivery such as travel, relocation, illness or simply loss of interest (Yanay & Yanay, 2008). Finally, the volunteer might have felt ill equipped, (i.e. lack of training or confidence in the selling process) (Yanay & Yanay, 2008). One comment from a survey responder stated: "I did not promote outside of family and friends simply because I do not feel comfortable with the "selling aspect"." Individual perceived behavioral control refers to perceptions of ability to perform a given behavior and might have resulted in volunteer nonperformance (Ajzen, 2002).

Ticket sales by registration showed no evidence of distal affects in total tickets sold by individual captains. Early registrants appear to have been active throughout the pre-event sales period with notable success immediately following personal efforts and sponsor events. Success clustering is also evidenced across the sales team and can be associated with the larger, sponsored promotional events. PI, "Early registration has a non-positive impact on volunteer follow-through" and P2, "Early commitment to fundraising efforts of volunteer captains has a non-positive impact on sales production" were not supported.

There was clear evidence of ramp-up in ticket sales as the event date became more focal, however, the sponsored events, individual events and most likely media announcements, both funded and unfunded public service mentions, were likely more prevalent as the event date neared. We had no data on media exposure in relation to the event date. There were prevalent spikes in both foundation direct sales and captain sales beginning 40 days out from the event. This is in large part due to concentrated efforts by Tennessee Children's' Hospital, University of Tennessee Hospital, Windows by Andersen and a promotional event by Cork Wine and Spirits. Although that same 40-day period accounted for 85 % of total ticket sales, the remaining 15% were sold between July 1 and August 23. This point may speak more to the effects of the promotional activities, but could also be a factor explained by the Construal Level Theory related a call to action by the participants (Trope & Liberman, 2010). This concept is rationally aligned with both the Theory of Planned Behavior and the Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen, 1985; Ajzen, 1991; Deci & Ryan, 1987; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). The Theory of Planned Behavior and the Theory of Reasoned Action help to explain the intent of individuals to commit to participate, and the actual behavior. Theory of Reasoned Action suggests that a person's behavior is determined by his/her intention to perform the behavior and that this intention is a function of his/her attitude toward the behavior (Deci & Ryan, 1987; Harrison, 1995). The best predictor of behavior is intention (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Intention is the cognitive representation of a person's readiness to perform a given behavior, and it is considered to be the immediate antecedent of behavior(Ajzen, 1985). This intention is determined by three things: an attitude toward the specific behavior, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control(Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

The Theory of Planned Behavior holds that only specific attitudes toward the behavior in question can be expected to predict that behavior. In addition to measuring attitudes toward the behavior, we also need to measure people's subjective norms – their beliefs about how people they care about will view the behavior in question (Ajzen, 1991). To predict someone's intentions, knowing these beliefs can be as important as knowing the person's attitudes. Finally, perceived behavioral control influences intentions. These predictors lead to intention. The more favorable the attitude and the subjective norm, and the greater the perceived control, the stronger should the person's intention to perform the behavior in question (Ajzen, 2002). Based on the theory of Planned Behavior, the Theory of Reasoned Action and the temporal proximity arguments, attendees may have had a greater impact on the intention to purchase tickets and hence, clustered their call to action focal near the event date. Therefore, despite best efforts of the ticket captains, the overriding effect of consumers' intent to purchase might have had a moderating effect beyond the control of the volunteers. There is insufficient data to make such a determination with this investigation. Correspondingly, Chart 3 does not indicate that volunteer commitment is negatively associated with the temporal distance from the event date since 85% of the ticket sales were attributable to volunteer captains. As a result, the authors do not have confidence that P3, "Volunteer commitment is negatively associated with the temporal distance from the event date" can be supported with this evidence.

It may be interesting to note that cluster peaks, (Chart 4) took a significant jump around the two heavily marketed sponsor promotions. *Replacement by Andersen* (RBA), a sponsoring firm, hosted a wine and food-paring event to promote ticket sales on August 20, 2013. Although tickets were not directly sold at the event, new captains were recruited and a spike occurred immediately following the event. *Cork Wine and Spirits* held an open house wine-tasting event corresponding to a spike immediately following the event. A significant spike is seen on the day of the event accounting for both captain sales (Blue) and direct ETCFF chapter sales and gate sales (Orange).

Other incidental promotional clusters are associated with promotional activities of The Cystic Fibrosis Care Center September 30 through October 4; The University of Tennessee Medical Center August 31; and notable clusters associated with volunteer captain efforts, September 13, October 3 and August 28. It is possible that temporal distance has an effect on the call to action upon those intended to purchase tickets. We see no evidence that volunteer ticket captains behave differently than other participants, therefore we feel there is sufficient evidence that P4: "Volunteer follow-through is negatively associated with the temporal distance from the date of the commitment" could be supported. The next section highlights of the demographic and marketing results of the surveys.

Volunteer Demographic Results

Fifty seven percent of the survey respondents were between the ages of 31 and 54 years of age. The most productive sales captains were between 49 & 54 years old. Volunteers were overwhelmingly female in excess of 80% of the respondent population. 56% were working professionals not related to the medical or educational fields. Mean income level of volunteers was between $50,000 and $74,000, but 40 % had family incomes in excess of $75,000. The min/max for income levels ranged from less than $55,000 to over $200,000 annually. Over 71% of the respondents were longtime residents of the community, greater than 20 years. These findings are indicative of community participation and its relationship to charity volunteerism (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007). 51% of the respondents indicated they were active with other cause-related volunteerism. Correspondingly, 81% of the volunteers have known someone with Cystic Fibrosis, which signifies significant affinity with the cause and its beneficiaries (Cnaan & Amrofell, 1994). A demographic review of the volunteer captains showed a propensity of volunteers to be young adults to middle (50 years+) aged professionals with income levels akin to active, successful professionals. The gender was overwhelmingly female and a review of ticket sale success was heavily skewed toward gender. It is not unlikely that ETCFF volunteer captains are involved with other cause related charities and most have a personal connection to Cystic Fibrosis. There was a strong connection to long tenure in the community, especially among those who volunteer with other causes implying that volunteers are often vested in their communities and willing to contribute to the social well-being in individual terms of personal efficacy, responsibility and support. (Omoto & Snyder, 2002).

Marketing Activities of Volunteer Captains

93% of the respondents did not sponsor a home or social event to sell tickets, but 81% indicated they did market Wine on the Water at social events attended and the majority indicated they did so multiple times. Over 80% of those surveyed said they did not attempt to sell or market tickets at professional events, however promotions at the two hospitals were very successful. 81% did promote ticket sales with clients, vendors and co-workers when appropriate. It is possible that not all companies recognize such promotions as appropriate in a professional work place. Some companies have policies limiting such practices. The following example from the Missouri department of transportation reflects limitation on fundraising in some workplaces. “Fundraising also includes the selling of raffle tickets or tickets to events such as dinners or dances to benefit individuals, groups of people, or organizations” (Transportation, 2009).

Email notifications were popular promotional tools with 81% of the respondents indicating they use email to promote the event and sell tickets. 69 % took advantage of personal social media to promote Wine on the Water with all respondents indicating that Facebook was the media of choice. Word of mouth was far and above the most commonly mentioned source of promotion.

Despite the fact that ETCFF provided customizable, personal web pages for volunteer captains, only 38% took advantage of the marketing opportunity. Not all parties were aware of the opportunity. Point of sale material was also available to volunteer captains for use with individual promotional activities and events, but only 47% used the materials.

A review of the personal marketing efforts of volunteer captain respondents indicate that electronic messaging and email were the most popular means of marketing beyond word of mouth. The respondents indicated repeated efforts to market to friends and family by word of mouth at home and at social events. Work promotions were limited and little effort was made to promote the event in other professional situations.

Limitations and Future Research

Due to the exploratory nature of the investigation, it is neither a pure case study nor did it have an opportunity to extract multi-sourced data for analyzation. As with many studies, the opportunity to construct the research model was limited by access to the available data (Yin, 2012). Absent from the data gather and design phase, was the opportunity to collect participant data relating to the call to action from a temporal perspective, specifically, including event participation perceptions of construal –level decisions might have helped to identify a relationship between volunteer captain activities and the participant's purchase decisions. Casting the two within a temporal distance /decision-making framework might have led to additional insights.

Additional quantitative data would have facilitated the use of a stronger model and regression analysis of contributory factors related to temporal distance associated with the call to action. Had the sample been larger, or additional cases been available, the quantitative requirements for analytical power may have been satisfied and facilitated greater support for generalization of theory extension. Duplicating this study with multiple year Wine on the Water events, or other similar events is an opportunity for future research. Modification of the survey instrument and extension of survey population to event participants could shed additional light on temporal effects, the decision-making process and support event ticket sales research based on both Temporal Construal Theory as well as the Theory of Planned Behavior. Merging extant tools such as Special Event Volunteer Motivation Scale (SEVMS)(Farrell, Johnston, & Twynam, 1998) or the Volunteer Motivation and Satisfaction Scale (VMS) (Bang, Alexandris, & Ross, 2008; Bang & Ross, 2009) and a temporal construal scale (Liberman & Trope, 1998; Trope & Liberman, 2000) with a larger sample might provide additional insight for further investigation.

Finally, the capture of additional data regarding the release of advertising, point of sale material, and public announcement media could have important impact on the ability to measure a relationship between event recognition and ticket sales from the perspective of event marketing and the actual temporal distance of purchase.

Contributions and Managerial Implications

This investigation is the result of a fortuitous opportunity to investigate the behavioral responses to a regionally recognized cause related, volunteer activity. The opportunity resulted in an attempt to understand the relationship of volunteer commitment and success in relation to the temporal distance of event activity and associate the phenomena with generally accepted grounded theories of behavior. It is a first-step in an attempt to inspire additional study of volunteer participation in cause-related and community events, and identify unique characteristics of volunteer participants contained within temporal distance. This study sought to provide a source of aggregated information for enhancement of volunteer activity and incorporate a better understanding of how time relationship and event promotion are associated with ticket sales success of volunteer captains and the ETCFF in total.

The contribution to theory is the association of Construal Level Commitment with temporally distal events and the foundation of volunteer commitment. The study makes a case for further consideration of the use of temporal effects interpreted through Construal level Theory (Trope & Liberman, 2000), Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1985) and Theory of Reasoned Action (Deci & Ryan, 1987), with volunteer dependent cause related fund-raising events. Generalizability within case study research should be based on the assumption that theory may be useful in making sense of similar persons or situations (Maxwell, 1992).

Event promoters and fund-raising managers might benefit from this study by the acquaintance with possible implications of temporal distance upon volunteers and participants when planning events and event rollout. It may also be beneficial to managers who enjoy ample time to plan, and launch the event. Early launch allows volunteers and participants the opportunity to assimilate marketing efforts and process ads (Meyers-Levy & Maheswaran, 1992). However it also demonstrates the implications of launching along temporally focal distances to leverage theoretical implications of temporally regulated and commitment based decision-making. Finally, although it is unclear when and why temporal distance effects influence commitment and behavior, managers should recognize that volunteer commitment is likely influenced by the temporal distance from the focal call to action.

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Appendix

Appendix I Survey Letter

Cystic Fibrosis Foundation - East Tennessee
5401 Kingston Pike, Suite 230
Knoxville, TN 37919
www.cff.org
www.knoxville.cff.org
www.facebook.com/cffeasttennessee

November 13, 2013

Dear Wine on the Water Ticket Captain,

Thank you so much for helping make our 2013 Wine on the Water event such a success! Our ticket captains were a significant contribution to this year's milestone fundraising and attendance results. In an effort to continually improve our ticket captain program, please consider helping us by completing this three-minute survey on your experience. All who complete the survey will be entered to win a free ticket to Wine on the Water 2014!

The survey is voluntary, mobile friendly and brief. Please visit the link to access it: http://survey.az1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_eJNCdV9l0xx7Jhr

Thank you for continuing to help us add tomorrows to the lives of those with cystic fibrosis!

Adding Tomorrows,

Leigh Ellington
Development Director
Cystic Fibrosis Foundation - East Tennessee
5401 Kingston Pike, Suite 230
Knoxville, TN 37919

Appendix II Survey Questions

Your recent efforts as a Ticket Captain for the 2013 Cystic Fibrosis Wine on the Water event has made a significant contribution to the effort of finding a cure. We are asking you to participate in the following survey to help us better support you and Ticket Captains like you with future events. Your participation is another valuable contribution to this worthy cause. The survey should take less than 7 minutes. All questions are voluntary. You may skip any question to proceed to the next or you may exit the survey at any time. The information you provide will be kept confidential and will be retained in secured limited access files for research purposes only. You will not be identified in the findings and results will not be shared with any other organization, commercial or nonprofit. Thank you for your support of Wine on the Water and for supporting Cystic Fibrosis research.

I understand that participation in this survey is voluntary and I may exit at any time.
- ❍ Yes (1)
- ❍ No (2)

Q1 What is your Age?
- ❍ 18-24 (1)
- ❍ 25-30 (2)
- ❍ 31-36 (3)
- ❍ 37-42 (4)
- ❍ 42-48 (5)
- ❍ 49-54 (6)
- ❍ 55+ (7)

Q2 What is your Gender
- ❍ Male (1)
- ❍ Female (2)

Q3 Which choice best reflects your current employment type
- ❍ Medical (1)
- ❍ Professional (2)
- ❍ Education (3)
- ❍ Community or Cause-related Service (4)
- ❍ Community Volunteer (5)
- ❍ Retired (6)

Q4 Which choice best reflects your immediate family income level
- ❍ < 50,000 (1)
- ❍ 50,-74,000 (2)
- ❍ 75-100,000 (3)
- ❍ 101-149,000 (4)
- ❍ 150-200,000 (5)
- ❍ > 200,000 (6)

Q5 How many years, total have you resided in the Local Community?
- ❍ (1)
- ❍ 5-9 (2)
- ❍ 10 -14 (3)
- ❍ 15-20 (4)
- ❍ >20 (5)

Q6 Do you know anyone who has or has had with Cystic Fibrosis.
- ❍ Yes (1)
- ❍ No (2)

Q7 Are you actively involved with other cause-related or community based not for profit fundraising efforts?
- ❍ Yes (1)
- ❍ No (2)

Q8 You answered that you are involved with other community or cause related not for profit fundraising efforts. Please list the organizations other than Cystic Fibrosis that you are actively involved in fund raising.
The next groups of questions are related to personal efforts to sell Wine on the Water (WOW) tickets as a Ticket Captain. Please think carefully about any added effort you personally made beyond the two sponsor- based pre-event promotions at Corks Wine and Spirits and Anderson Windows.
Q10 Did you sponsor or host a home dinner at which you attempted to sell WOW tickets?
- ❍ Yes (1)
- ❍ No (2)

Q11 Home gathering
- ❑ How many (1) ____________________
- ❑ Dates held (2) ____________________
- ❑ Estimated number of participants (3) ____________________

Q14 Did you meet friends at a social gathering, (bar club or other) where you made an attempt to promote WOW tickets?
- ❍ Yes (1)
- ❍ No (2)

Q17 Social Gathering
- ❑ How many times (1) ____________________
- ❑ Dates (2) ____________________
- ❑ Estimated number of attendees (3) ____________________

Q18 Did you promote ticket sales at a community or professional networking gathering?
❍ Yes (1)
❍ No (2)

Q16 Community or networking efforts
❑ How many (1) ____________________
❑ Dates held (2) ____________________
❑ Estimated number of participants (3) ____________________

Q19 Did you send Emails to friends or family to promote the sale of tickets for WOW?
❍ Yes (1)
❍ No (2)

Q20 Emails
❑ How many people did you send information to? (1) ____________________
❑ How many times (2) ____________________

Q21 Did you post WOW ticket information on your personal social media?
❍ Yes (1)
❍ No (2)

Q22 Social Media
❑ Face Book (1)
❑ Google Groups/Google + (2)
❑ Twitter (3)
❑ Personal Blog (4)
❑ Other (5) ____________________

Q23 Did you promote WOW ticket sales at work based or office promotions?
❍ Yes (1)
❍ No (2)

Q24 Work and office promotion
❑ Date ticket sales were announced (1) ____________________
❑ Date(s) you promoted it (2) ____________________
❑ Approximate audience exposed (3) ____________________

Q25 What other method you used to urge friends and associates to purchase WOW tickets if not addressed above?

Thank you for participating. The survey is concluded.

Appendix 3 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive Statistics

Survey Questions	Mean	Std. Deviation	Analysis N	Missing N
What is your Age?	4.67	1.799	15	2
What is your Gender	1.80	.414	15	2
Which choice best reflects your current employment type	2.67	1.234	15	2
Which choice best reflects your immediate family income level?	2.57	1.697	14	3
How many years have you attended Wine on the Water?”	5.40	2.798	15	2
How many years, in total have you resided in the local community?	4.25	1.291	16	1
Have you ever known anyone with Cystic Fibrosis?	1.20	.414	15	2
Are you actively involved with other cause-related or community based not for profit fund raising ef...	1.41	.507	17	0
Did you personalize your CFF web page, created for the event?	4.57	.514	14	3
Did you sponsor or host a home dinner or gathering at which you attempted to sell WOW tickets?	1.93	.267	14	3
Did you ever attempt to promote WOW tickets when meeting friends at a social gathering (restaurant,...	1.21	.426	14	3
Did you promote ticket sales at a community or professional networking gathering?	1.86	.363	14	3
Did you send Emails to friends or family to promote the sale of tickets for WOW?	1.21	.426	14	3
Did you post WOW ticket information on your personal social media?	1.36	.497	14	3
Did you promote WOW ticket sales at your office or in other work related situations (meetings with...	1.21	.426	14	3
Did you display or distribute any of the Wine on the Water provided materials? (Handouts, posters,...	11.57	.514	14	3
Did you operate a Wine on the Water information booth?	9.77	.439	13	4

Retailing in a Global Environment: A Case of Prague's Novy Smichov

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ABSTRACT

The primary subject for this case is the interconnectedness of shopping center owners, retailers, and consumers in a global retailing setting. Secondary issues include customer segmentation, retail targeting, and evaluating market expansion opportunities. The case is appropriate for upper-level undergraduate students enrolled in retail management, consumer behavior or marketing strategy courses. It is designed to be taught in a class period or could be used as an individual or group paper assigned outside of class. The case has been tested in the classroom over two semesters. It is also used for assessment of BBA Marketing strategic learning objectives (grading rubric included).

Key Words: global retailing, interconnectedness of global firms, retail strategy, targeting, global consumer behavior, management of shopping centers

Saturation in the Retail Market – 2015

The management team for Klepierre examined the latest data on one of their shopping malls, Novy Smichov in Prague, Czech Republic, and the results were not what they wanted to see. After a phenomenal growth rate in square meters of retail space over the past 20 years, retail competition was increasing just as saturation of shopping centers occurred. Prague's population has fluctuated over the past 35 years between 1.19 million and 1.24 million, but the growth has been small due to lower birth rates. Thus population growth is not likely to increase demand for retail locations. Occupancy rates are still relatively high, and Novy Smichov remains profitable. But without new customers, each retail center will have to work harder to retain profitability. Some competitors posted losses for consecutive years, and a few smaller centers actually closed. Clearly a new strategy is needed to account for changes in the retailing environment.

Background of Retailing in Prague

During the 1980's, many customers in Prague lacked the financial means and/or availability to purchase a variety of goods and services. This changed rapidly as Czechoslovakia emerged from the control of the USSR in 1989 and developed an independent market economy. Years of pent-up demand, combined with international companies ready to do business with newly liberated consumers, led to an explosion of retail and other business in the region. Similar growth occurred in neighboring countries, including East Germany, Poland, and Hungary. Prague remained the capital of the Czech Republic following the split of the country into two separate political entities: Czech Republic and Slovakia.

The first shopping centers in Prague opened in the mid-1990s, followed by larger, Western-style malls in the early 2000s. By 2010, retailing in the Czech Republic had nearly caught up with the averages in the rest of the European Union. Czech available retail space had reached 191 square meters per 1,000 citizens, close to the EU average of 231 square meters per 1,000. A few smaller centers were completed in 2012, and a few failures were redeveloped into new concepts, but no major construction is planned.

Description of Novy Smichov

Novy Smichov was built in 2001 by Delcis, a French firm, and immediately was acquired by Klepierre, a French real estate investment firm controlled by US-based Simon Property and BNP Paribas, a French banking interest. At nearly 60,000 square meters, Novy Smichov is one of the largest retail centers in central Europe. It's location on the west side of Prague in the Andel neighborhood provides easy access to most of the population of the Prague metro area. Shoppers with cars will find over 2000 parking spaces, and the center is mere blocks away from major highway intersections. The entrance is directly across the street from a subway line, and is also a stop for busses and trams, making it attractive to commuters from all areas of the city. The immediate neighborhood consists of small retailers, restaurants, business-class hotels, banks, a few apartment buildings, and some corporate offices, such as L'Oréal's European headquarters.

The three-story enclosed shopping center contains a hypermarket (Tesco) as its anchor, along with more than 150 shops and restaurants. Other attractions include a 12-screen theater complex, a health club, a bowling alley and a food court. Tesco ranks second worldwide in retailing (behind Wal-Mart). Within the Novy Smichov location, Tesco sells groceries on the first floor, and general merchandise on the second floor. With nearly 7,000 stores worldwide, Tesco operates in 12 countries across Asia and Europe. Their market share for groceries is about 30% in the UK. Tesco has over 300 stores of various formats in the Czech Republic, but only 3 are Tesco extra (hypermarket) stores, which gives Novy Smichov some exclusivity.

Specialty stores in the center include many international retailers that European shoppers would expect in a shopping center that targets middle class to upscale shoppers (but not luxury stores). For example, Zara is a Spanish clothing and accessories retailer that controls design, manufacturing and distributions of its unique merchandise. Zara has over 2000 stores located in 88 countries worldwide. Marks and Spencer is a British department store. Founded in the late 1800s, Marks and Spencer has stores across Europe, Asia and Africa. Bata is a shoe retailer with over 5,000 stores in over 70 countries, manufacturing their products in 26 countries. H & M (Sweden), Tommy Hilfiger (US), L'Occitane (France), and Samsung (South Korea) are among the other global retailers featured at Novy Smichov, along with local and regional offerings. Most stores would be familiar to shoppers in Prague, as well as visitors from other countries in the European Union and the region.

The food court has a variety of local restaurants and international fast food chains. McDonald's, KFC, Sbarro and Panda sit alongside creperies, pizza stands, a sushi bar and cafes offering Czech cuisine. Dining options are convenient for shoppers, as well as for people who work and live in the neighborhood.

Novy Smichov had a major remodel in 2011. The clean, modern building offers free Wi-Fi for shoppers. The enclosed facility keeps customers comfortable during Prague's cold winters and warm summers. There is little room for expansion at the location, and the high occupancy rate with long-term leases means Novy Smichov will continue to target a mostly middle-class resident market. Management claims over 20 million visitors to the center every year, which suggests local residents shop there frequently. Most shoppers use the local currency, the Czech crown, although major credit cards and Euros are frequently accepted.

Competition in Prague Retail Environment

Novy Smichov has several competitors in the Prague market. Each major shopping center is spread out around the city geographically, and all are relatively new developments (since 2001). Most are located at subway stations or near public transportation. See chart for details. Palladium is the closest competitor to Novy Smichov in terms of size and offerings. However, they have reported significant losses in recent years and may not have the financial resources to compete with Novy Smichov.

Table 1: Major Shopping Centers in Prague, Czech Republic

Shopping Center	Features	Location
Arkady Pankrac Built in 2008	Supermarket, drugstore, food court, many specialty stores	Across from Pankrac metro station (red line)
Palac Flora Built in 2003	4 Floors of shopping with over 120 stores, food court, multiplex with IMAX theater	Across from Flora metro station (green line)
Palladium Redeveloped from old Army barracks near Old Town	5 Floors with over 170 shops and 30+ restaurants. Many specialty stores are the same as at Novy Smichov, as well as other popular international brands, including ECCO, Foot Locker, Puma and Starbucks	Central location connected to metro namesti Republiky station. Over 900 underground parking spaces

In addition, the center city has several streets near Wenceslas Square that are lined with shops targeting visitors. Tourism is a growing part of Prague's economy, so the downtown location is close to local attractions where tours congregate. Offerings are a combination of pricy designer labels and local souvenirs. Neither category is considered to be a threat for Novy Smichov's current target market.

Constraints and Interconnectedness

Novy Smichov has a high occupancy rate with little turnover in stores. Tenants have long-term contracts, which contributes to the stability of the center. This limits the ability to recruit many new retailers over the next several years. Keeping the existing shoppers satisfied is paramount. Strategies to attract new shoppers cannot put the existing business at risk. Finally, each retailer has its own brand strategy. While global retailers make adjustments to accommodate local tastes and needs, the general brand image and product offering cannot be modified for a single location. Retailers are impacted by worldwide demand for their merchandise, manufacturing costs, and competition. So the retail strategy of the individual tenants is beyond the control of Novy Smichov's management. New strategies for Novy Smichov must fit the consumers you want to attract, but you cannot alter the existing store mix to attract a different market segment.

Need for Solution

Moving forward, Klepierre needs a strategy that will retain their dominant position with local shoppers. Any future growth will most likely come at the expense of other large shopping centers, since population growth is not very high, and the average age of consumers is increasing. Klepierre is not considering expansion to other locations in Prague, or any major changes to their existing store mix. Three possible strategies have been identified to increase sales at Novy Smichov.

Options

Option 1 is market penetration. Novy Smichov will need to find ways to increase frequency of visits or obtain a higher share of wallet for their existing customers. The presence of a large grocery store (Tesco), entertainment (movies, health club) and restaurants already provide reasons for multiple visits per month. Convenience for drivers and those taking public transportation remove some barriers for repeat business. Option 1 will need to develop a strategy to deepen the loyalty of existing customers.

Option 2 is to target business travelers as an additional revenue stream. Prague has research facilities for numerous multinational corporations, including Honeywell, Sun Microsystems and Siemens, along with pharmaceutical companies and 12 universities. With over 30 hotels located in less than a half mile of Novy Smichov, the shopping center is a convenient place to pick up forgotten telephone chargers, replace a stained shirt, or pick up a meal after meetings. Presumably many of the hotel guests will stay in Andel's business district to be close to their customers or business associates. Option 2 will require determining where business travelers stay, which companies they are visiting, and how to reach them with advertising once they arrive in Prague.

Option 3 is to target tourists who are vacationing in Prague, which has become a popular tourist destination since the fall of the Iron Curtain. Tourists come from all over the world to enjoy Prague's architecture and art, historic attractions, museums and entertainment. Half of the tourist dollars spent in the Czech Republic are spent in Prague. Germany, Russia, the United States and Italy are the home countries for most visitors. Option 3 will require an understanding of what tourists buy and what barriers they face in shopping, such as language and currency exchange. It will also require a feel for the relative attractiveness of Novy Smichov's merchandise relative to product and price comparisons from the tourists' home countries. Much of the merchandise will be familiar to tourists from nearby countries, while the prices could be higher or lower than at home.

Each of these options must be researched and evaluated in order to select and implement additional secondary target markets for Novy Smichov. Recommendations should consider the fit of any new segments with the existing retailers, as well as the likely frequency of proposed segments' visits to the shopping center.

Instructor's Manual

Case Synopsis

Retailing in Prague, Czech, has grown drastically from the early 1990s through 2015. After the fall of the USSR, numerous international retailers flocked to underserved markets in central Europe. By 2010, retail space was approaching similar density with the rest of the EU. Intense development in the shopping mall sector resulted in saturation of the retail market in Prague, at the same time population growth has faltered due to declining birth rates.

Novy Smichov is a well-situated multi-use development located on the west side of Prague near highways and public transportation. At nearly 60,000 sq. meters, it is one of the largest retail centers in central Europe. Built in 2001, the center is owned by a French real estate investment firm. Retail occupancy is high, and the center boasts of over 20 million visitors every year.

Facing intense competition, Novy Smichov must find new ways to bring customers to shop without deterring current customers. Several options for market development or market penetration are discussed. Students must research potential segments and recommend a solution that recognizes the interconnectedness of various players.

Case Objectives

Depending upon the course in which this case is used, several objectives are appropriate. In a consumer behavior course, the case would ideally be presented after introducing the concept of cultural influences. In a retailing course, the topic would fit after retail behavior and types of shopping areas. In a general marketing or marketing strategy course, the case illustrates market segmentation and targeting. Finally, in a program evaluation context (as in assurance of learning or accreditation review) the case is an opportunity for students to demonstrate secondary research skills and application. Following are objectives used in program assessment:

1. Students will demonstrate an understanding of principles of consumer behavior, particularly demographic and geographic influences.
2. Students will demonstrate understanding of cultural and sub-cultural influences on consumer behavior around the globe.
3. Students will use appropriate secondary research sources in their understanding of global consumer behavior
4. Students will be able to apply knowledge of the interconnectedness of global dynamics.

Starting the Discussion

A good starting point is to ask students to recall any shopping experiences they have had when travelling. Was the purpose different from when they shopped at home? Did they purchase different items? Did it matter whether they travelled for vacation or work? Some students may have experience shopping in other countries. They can share ways in which the shopping environment differed from one country to another. Were the stores familiar? Did they recognize brands from their home country? Did sizing or payment options differ? Were there any other observations that made shopping abroad different from routine shopping excursions?

Ways to Teach the Case

This case can be used for class discussion, or as a written out-of-class assignment. If assigned for teams, each team member may research one of the options, with the entire team contributing to analysis and recommendations. If assigned to individuals, particularly for assessment, you may want each student to focus on one option only. Thus, the questions may refer to evaluation of all alternatives, or simply to make an up or down recommendation of one alternative.

Discussion Questions

1. Describe the retail competition in Prague, and how it affects the demand for shopping and recreation at Novy Smichov. Are there serious concerns for the shopping center management and retailers?

   Discussion may center around the implications of a low or even negative birth rate, immigration rates, economic factors, such as unemployment rates or average income, and even weather and climate. Answers should reflect a moderate level of concern over intensifying competition and aging markets. Answers should also distinguish between the interests of Klepierre and individual retailers.

2. Research the situational, demographic, and socio-cultural aspects affecting consumer behavior in Prague. Research should include (1) information on population characteristics and how they impact demand for products and services, and (2) information on the Czech culture and how it impacts consumption.

   This question will tap into the students' ability to apply research from a variety of sources, including business press, travel guide books, scholarly research and government documents. Answers may look at consumption habits of the Czech population, impact of an aging population, cross-border shopping, economic factors, or a description of shopping/eating/entertaining in Prague.

3. In what ways is the retail environment in Prague inter-connected with people and corporations in other cultures?

There are many ways the environment is inter-connected, including Klepierre's responsibility to its French shareholders, the focus of individual retail chains and their countries of operation, relative cost advantages of goods sold in multiple countries, and worldwide economic factors that impact consumption. Answers may also reference differences in currency used, exchange rates, import/export fees, ethnocentrism, appropriate clothing or food within cultures, differences in expectation regarding customer service and language differences.

4. Evaluate one or more of the options mentioned in the case. Describe advantages and disadvantages of your option(s) to increase business at Novy Smichov. Conclude with a yes/no recommendation on whether to proceed with your chosen option, including an explanation of how to proceed if you vote yes.

   Generally, answers will view Option 1 (market penetration) to have the most potential for repeat business and higher payoff on the cost of reaching new customers. Option 1 also has the advantage of similarity with current market segments. This option is more tactical than strategic. Option 2 (business travelers) should explore specific companies located near Novy Smichov, where they might be staying, and tactically, how to reach them. Business travelers may or may not be similar to the local population in demographic characteristics, and thus might fit the products and services provided at Novy Smichov. Option 3 (tourists) will confront the diverse makeup of the tourist population, with the majority of vacationers coming from nearby countries, as well as the United States, Russia and increasingly from Asia. Tourism does not have as much repeat business as other customers, and the diversity means fewer customers will speak Czech or be familiar with the Czech crown.

5. Include a reference list of appropriate sources that you used in your investigation, cited in APA style. Appropriate sources would be recent, objective, and preferably attributed to an expert source (that is, not anonymous).

   This question pushes students to consider possible source bias, as well as the usefulness of outdated information. Students who are rely on Wikipedia or a quick Google search may need to be directed to a good business librarian to find enough information to answer the questions.

Rubric

Rubric for Global Consumer Behavior Objectives

Objective	1 Needs Improvement	2 Meets Expectations	3 Exceeds Expectations
Objective (1): Students will demonstrate an understanding of principles of consumer behavior, particularly demographic and geographic influences.	Student merely offers demographic and geographic statistics without discussing the impact on consumption.	Student partially links population characteristics with impact on the demand for and use of products and services.	Student paints a detailed description of population characteristics and how they impact demand for and use of products and services.
Objective (2): Students will demonstrate understanding of cultural and sub-cultural influences on consumer behavior around the globe.	Student describes elements of a different culture without explaining their impact on consumption.	Student thoroughly describes cultural influences on consumption in another country; makes limited comparison with consumption in the United States.	Student thoroughly compares and contrasts consumption in another culture with consumption in the United States.
Objective (3): Students will use appropriate secondary research sources in their understanding of global consumer behavior	Student meets the minimum requirements for number of sources; Source quality is insufficient (outdated, biased, lacking in expertise, or inappropriate for a college paper, such as Wikipedia).	Student uses appropriate quality sources of information on consumption in the US and another country. Some sources are insufficient or over-relied upon.	Student uses a wide variety of current, reliable sources of information on consumption in the US and another country to achieve a detailed and balanced description.
Objective (4): Students will be able to apply knowledge of the interconnectedness of global dynamics.	Student mentions at least one example of interconnectedness between people living in another culture (besides the US) and those from other cultures.	Student describes one or more examples of inter-connectedness between people living in another culture (besides the US) and those from other cultures	Student explains one or more examples of inter-connectedness between people living in another culture (besides the US) and those from other cultures

Name: _________________ CWID: ____________________ Semester ________ Section _____________

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The Best Play for NCAA Division II Sports Marketing is the Social Media Pivot

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ABSTRACT

Sport events provide significant benefits to universities in the form of increased prestige and revenues (Toma & Cross, 1998). However, Division II universities face greater challenges in marketing sports events than Division I schools. Social media may be the tool for overcoming the difficulties of Division II universities face in sports marketing. This qualitative paper investigates and identifies and how social media might be used by Division II universities to attract, engage and excite fans towards greater ticket and merchandise purchases. More specifically, three types of sport spectators (temporary, devoted and fanatical fans) are identified and recommendations for how social media can be used as an effective marketing tool are discussed.

Keywords: *Sports Marketing, Social Media, NCAA Division II, Basketball Fan Attendance, Fan Type Classification*

Introduction

Millions of fans annually attend collegiate sporting events (Campbell, 2001; DeSchriver & Jensen, 2002). As such, collegiate athletics are a highly visible aspect of academia that can lead to greater university awareness and prestige (Toma & Cross, 1998). For example, top 25 NCAA Division I men's and women's basketball programs get considerable recognition through the media, drawing attention from large fan bases which can lead to revenues through ticket sales, merchandise sales, business sponsorships, television broadcasting rights and increased student enrollment. Even though most of the sports marketplace attention is focused on Division I university programs, sporting events can be an important source of revenues and overall marketing of smaller Division II institutions as well (Brokaw et al., 2006; DeSchriver & Jensen, 2002). However, compared to Division I, Division II sports programs face greater challenges than Division I universities. Brokaw et al. (2006) argue that Division II disadvantages are partly the result of limited marketing resources and lower athletic program budgets.

For universities to take advantage of the peripheral benefits of their athletic programs (fund raising,) they must attract a large number of fans. In addition, the fans must have a satisfying experience, which is a precursor to building the loyalty and traditions which lead to a sustainable fan base (Yang & Peterson, 2004). Even though smaller universities generally have fewer marketing recourses, effective, low-cost newer social media technologies may minimize their competitive disadvantages. In other words, it is the view of the authors that recent innovations and uses of social media tools may be the great sports marketing equalizer for smaller colleges and universities.

The primary purpose of this qualitative study is two-fold. For one, this study investigates various factors that motivate spectator attendance for NCAA Division II basketball games. A secondary purpose of this research is to offer strategies for the use of inexpensive and readily available social marketing tools which can create greater fan interest and involvement leading to increased attention and sales.

Literature Review

Sports Fans

Various researchers have studied motivational factors that lead spectators to attend sporting events (Pease & Ahang, 2001; Courneya & Carron, 1992). Some research has found that the number of the fans attending sporting events is positively related to the winning success of a given team (Baimbridge, 1997; DeSchriver & Jensen, 2002; McDonald & Rascher, 2000; Wan & Dolan, 1994; Well et al., 2000; Whitney, 1988; Zhang et al., 1995). However, Fisher & Wakefield (1998) found that fan motivation may not be related to team performance. Research has also shown fan attendance to be directly related the marketing effort for a given sport event (DeSchriver & Jensen, 2002; McDonald & Rascher, 2000; Well et al., 2000).

To better understand the motivations behind sports consumption, Hunt et al. (1999) developed a conceptually-based typology of sports fans. Specifically, Hunt et al. (1999) offered a classification of different types of sports fans which included "temporary", "devoted" and "fanatical" fans, respectively. As the name implies, "temporary" fans are low involvement fans who can dissolve their association with the team quickly and easily. According to the "theory of self" some fans may use objects (e.g., a sports team or specific athlete) as a means of defining themselves to themselves and to others (Belk 1988; 1990; Ball & Tasaki, 1992). These fans can be classified as "temporary fans" because they may only be attracted to a team as long as it is winning in order to associate themselves with team victory and, thus, "bask in reflected glory" (Cialdini et al., 1976). The field of psychology has long understood the need for others to achieve success vicariously through others.

Another fan segment can be referred to as the "devoted" fan. According to Ball and Tasaki (1992), there are some people who become so attached to an object (e.g., sports team) that the object is used by the person to maintain his or her perception of self. Hunt et al. (1999) describes fans who are strongly attached to their team as "devoted" fans. A characteristic of the "devoted" fan is that he/she becomes personally attached to the team. As such, the "devoted" fan can be expected to remain loyal to a given team regardless of whether the team is winning or not. In addition, the "devoted" fan maintains that loyalty and even when physically remote from the immediate location of the team. Even if these fans are physically unable to attend sports events, they will seek out connections to the team and players and will purchase sports merchandise that shows their affiliation to the team.

A third type of fan is the "fanatical" fan. The "fanatical" fan is like the "devoted" fan except that he/she will engage in behaviors that are more extreme. For example, the "devoted" fan will attend games regularly and buy team merchandise, but the "fanatical" fan may paint their body in their team colors and may even construct "shrines" to honor their team at their home.

Social Media

Sports marketers can effectively reach each of these fan types with limited financial resources through the use of social media marketing tools. The era of social media has been around for about a decade. LinkedIn launched in 2003, followed shortly after by Facebook, YouTube and Twitter. The popularity of social media tools is extensive. For example, Facebook has more than 500 million users and Twitter has nearly 200 million users (Pradiptarini, 2011).

According to recent Pew Research Studies (Perrin, 2015), social media is growing in popularity. Perrin (2015) finds that approximately 90 percent of young adults (18 to 29 years old) use of social media regularly. And, social media use is not limited to young adults. Nearly two-thirds of all American adults (65%) are active users as well (Perrin, 2015). The Pew studies show that even seniors are becoming common users with 35% of all those 65 and older report using social media.

Along with increased popularity among users, social media sites have also helped to provide business with higher returns by allowing business to reach new consumers and to build more salient relationships with existing consumers (Rooney, 2011). If used effectively with other marketing efforts, smaller universities may be able to use emerging social media tools to inexpensively attract, engage and excite fans. Thus, capitalizing on the benefits of sports marketing for increasing university enrollments, revenues and enhancing the image of the university. In the discussion, below, suggestions are provided for how universities can use social media as an effective marketing tool for various types of fans.

Discussion

It is apparent that Division II universities face challenges attracting fans to basketball events. Nevertheless, all Division II programs likely have some fans that fit the "devoted" description and it is these fans that offer the highest level of sustainable support. These fans are already committed to the sports program, but marketing efforts should be made to provide them with greater access to the players and coaches. Social media tools such as Twitter, Snapchat, and Flicker would engage and involve fans by helping them better connected with the team.

Using social media, promotional games could be created to intensify fan excitement with contest such as participating in a mannequin challenge. The mannequin challenge is viral internet video where participants create a video where people remain frozen in action while the video is recorded. Fans might be asked to recreate tailgating activities or dressing up as their favorite players. After the contest, winners could be selected to receive various rewards such as discounted ticket prices, discounts on merchandise or concessions, on field/court access during an event, reserved parking and seating or other services might encourage continued support.

The “fanatical” fans are already loyal, but marketing efforts should be developed to increase this group’s level of satisfaction. Because these fans are highly emotionally attached to the team, satisfaction may come from giving them an outlet to express themselves. For example, blogs could allow them to express their joy with a win or their frustration with a heartbreaking loss. Also, getting insights from the players and coaches might help them to understand why certain outcomes occurred in a contest. Also, tools like Flicker, and Instagram would allow them to share photos of their antics during a game (e.g., face painting, unusual costumes, or demonstrating their excitement with friends). In this way, fanatical fans could be more personally engaged with the team and school spirit.

A significant challenge faced by Division II schools is to attract new fans to basketball games and to encourage “temporary” fans to become more loyal “devoted” or “fanatical” fans. For Division II universities, the largest and potentially most attractive “temporary” fans consists of the university student body. Although some students may only be associated with the university on a “temporary” basis, they could be a vital component of the fan base. Increasing student attendance, even if only while they are associated with the university, may create a more exciting atmosphere that could attract other members of the local community who may receive satisfying experiences from attending games and, thus, eventually become “devoted” fans.

Marketing efforts are needed to cultivate greater awareness, interest and engagement for all types of sports fans. Getting fans engaged and involve serves as the foundation for sustainable success. It is important to note that such strategies must be designed with a continuous, long-term, view because building traditions takes a long time. The following social media marketing recommendations could be used with all types of fans to increase fan attendance, fan loyalty and sports revenues for Division II universities:

- Use social media and text messaging to provide students with messaging of upcoming sporting events. In addition, social media can be used to inform the student body of outcomes and personalize stories that highlight various student athletes.

- Use social media to conduct public relations efforts. For example, use social media to get real-time information about numerous outreach events where athletes can reach out to the community stakeholders such as churches, local businesses, elementary, middle, and high schools.

- Use social media to create virtual communities that partner with local businesses to promote attendance through discounts at restaurants, local stores, etc.

Conclusions

The industry of sports has grown tremendously over the last few decades, constantly improving and developing new methods to attract larger crowds of athletes, fans, and sponsors. However, many Division II universities faced challenges in marketing their sporting events. It is important to understand that there are multiple fan segments and to effectively increase a fan base, the marketing strategy must identify, understand these segments and strive to develop marketing strategies than will appeal to each group.

For any NCAA Division II university, there are those “devoted” and “fanatical” fans who already have intrinsic motivation to attend basketball games. However, the “temporary” fans (e.g., students) need extrinsic incentives to be aware and become interested in university basketball events. Hopefully, with greater attendance the marketing efforts can also increase fan satisfaction and, thus, generate sustainable fan. Social Marketing may be the key for smaller universities to attract, engage and involve fans so as to increase their support of athletics programs. More research is needed to gain a deeper insight of each fan segment and what social media strategies will best motivate them to attend Division II sports events.

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Examining Millennials' Perception of Service Gender-Stereotyping Across Four Cultures: An Exploratory Study

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ABSTRACT

The main objective of this study is to examine millennial perceptions of gender effects on service quality across four different cultures. Specifically, the study examines gender helpfulness and service quality as perceived by male and female millennials from different cultures. The effects of service gender stereotyping were evaluated for male and female oriented services. The results showed that with some exceptions, millennials seem to have similar perceptions regarding gender-helpfulness and service quality across cultures, which shows millennial perceptions are similar even with cultural differences.

Keywords: *Gender helpfulness, Service gender-stereotyping, millennials, Culture effects, and Gender*

Introduction

In recent years, work places across different cultures have experienced two major trends. First, more women have joined the work place, and second millennials have started entering the workforce. In response to the first trend, several studies have shown that males and females have different attitudes, perceptions, and expectations. The main goal of this research was to investigate whether gender similarity or dissimilarity of customer and service provider had any impact on performance and/or the outcome. For example, researchers have shown that gender and gender-role stereotyping can influence recruiting and hiring (Gallois, Callan, & Palmer, 1992; Graves and Powell, 1995; Pinar, McCuddy, Sounders, & Boersma, 2009; Pinar, Eser, & Hardin, 2007). Also, past research regarding the gender effect on sales performance (Crosby et al., 1990; Smith, 1998) found that gender similarity between a salesperson and customer is positively related to the quality of their relationship, and ultimately to sales performance.

The second trend prompted research geared towards millennials. For example, researchers have covered gender differences in students' (millennials') perceptions of their aptitudes for different majors and the utility of available majors (Lackland and DeLisi, 2001), as well as gender influence on career choices and advancement perceptions (Malgwi, Howe, and Burnaby, 2005) and representation of the genders in science careers (Kamerāde, 2007). Prior research also examined the perception of whether an occupation or service is perceived as being male-oriented or female-oriented (Pinar, Wilder, Filipek, & Karaatli 2016; Pinar, Schiffel, Strasser, & Stuck 2013; Pinar et al., 2009), which provides evidence for gender-service stereotyping. In addition, a study by Fischer, Gainer, and Bristor (1997) showed that customers' perception of service quality was impacted more by occupational stereotypes (services/occupation-status) than by the gender of a service provider.

With more women in the work force, it appears gender equality is on the rise, and the gender gap is closing - albeit slowly. More young adults (millennials) are entering occupations previously dominated by one gender. This trend seems to be occurring across different cultures. Yet a question still remains as to whether gender has an effect on quality of service. A study by Pinar et al. (2016) provides support for the assertion that service gender-orientation stereotyping still exits. Another factor of interest is whether one gender is perceived to be more helpful than the other, or whether they are equally helpful. However, since there is no prior research dealing with gender helpfulness, this exploratory study aims to investigate if men and women are perceived differently in terms of helpfulness and/or service quality. As more women join the workforce in a global marketplace, the results could be helpful for developing strategies for a better quality of service. Moreover, these factors of service gender-stereotyping and gender are examined across different countries to determine whether culture of the country plays a role. While a country may include different cultures (or subculture), this study considers a country's overall culture. Therefore, from now on country and culture will indicate the same meaning and will be used interchangeably.

As globalization and social media brings cultures closer, differences across cultures may be disappearing, which may be especially true for millennials. In fact, recent research (Dakus, 2013; Dolloite 2016; Smith & Turner, 2015) suggests millennials have moved well beyond the integration of demographic differences and have been widely recognized for their acceptance of diversity, and they are known as being well immersed in the diversity within the global marketplace (Sujansky & Ferri-Read, 2009) These findings suggest that millennials from different cultures could have similar perceptions regarding the effects of service gender-stereotyping on service quality, as well gender helpfulness. Specifically, this exploratory study addresses two main objectives. First, the study explores whether service gender-stereotyping has any effect on service quality; and second, whether gender has any impact on perceptions of helpfulness in different cultures.

Background

As stated above, a recent trend in both developed and developing countries is that more women have entered the workforce in various industries, including services. This has triggered a new stream of research to examine the potential effects of gender on such issues as recruiting, selling effectiveness and sales performance, and service quality and service outcomes. For example, researchers have shown that gender and gender-role stereotyping can influence hiring decisions (Gallois et al., 1992) and/or impact hiring recommendations (Zebrowitz, Tenenbaum, & Goldstein, 1991). Other studies also examined the gender effect in such areas as accounting (Hardin, Reding, & Stocks, 2002), academic hiring and tenure policies (Steinpreis, Ander, & Ritzke, 1999), and banking (Fernandez & Weinberg, 1997). These studies related to gender dyadic relationships suggest benefits of matching the gender of buyer and seller (Churchill, Ford, & Walker, 1997). However, other studies demonstrate no such benefit of matching buyer/seller gender (Dwyer, Orlando, & Shepherd, 1998; Jones, Moore, Stanaland, & Wyatt, 1998), as shown in a study by Dwyer at al. (1998) that the mismatched gender dyads significantly outperformed the gender-matched pairs.

Concerning service gender-stereotyping, a study by Pinar et al. (2016) found that some services are perceived as male-oriented, while others are perceived as female-oriented. This is consistent with the findings by Pinar et al. (2009) that the18 college majors included in the study were perceived by students (millennials) as being either male-oriented, female-oriented or, gender neutral. These findings indicate that gender stereotyping of college majors was influenced by the students' own gender. Pinar et al. (2009) state that despite all the recent efforts and progress in the diversification of careers, gender stereotyping among high school seniors and college freshmen still exists.

To address the potential gender effect on service quality, researchers have investigated whether relationships exist between the gender of customers and service providers and perceived service outcomes (Fischer et al., 1997; Iacobucci & Ostrom, 1993; Mohr & Henson, 1996; Moshavi, 2004; Rind & Bordia, 1996). The underlying premise for these studies is that customers may have different preferences or biases for a specific gender of a service provider that may affect their evaluation of perceived service quality. More specifically, in some service encounters customers might prefer to receive service from the same gender service provider, indicating a gender matching bias (Fischer et al., 1997; Mohr & Henson, 1996; Moshavi, 2004), whereas in other service encounters they may prefer to receive service from a service provider of the opposite gender, indicating a gender mismatching bias (Hall, 1993; Kulik & Holbrook, 1998). These findings imply an existence of service gender-stereotyping that could be the result of a perception that some services are better offered by males while other services are better offered by females. Then, the question to be addressed is that, given services (majors) are classified as male or female-oriented (Pinar et al., 2016; 2013), does service gender-stereotyping have an effect on service quality?

A review of the literature shows that the main theories used to help explain different effects of gender are the Similarity-Attraction Paradigm (Byrne, 1971; Byrne &Neuman, 1992; Graves & Powell, 1995) and the Self-Categorization Theory (Turner, 1982, 1985). These theories are utilized in prior gender studies to explain the effects of gender similarity on gender dyadic relationships in various business settings (e.g., Graves & Powel, 1995; Dwyer et al., 1998; Crosby et al., 1990). The Similarity-Attraction Paradigm (SAP) defines similarity as the degree to which members of a group are alike in terms of personal characteristics or other attributes (Byrne and Neuman, 1992; Smith, 1998). The SAP suggests that individuals tend to be attracted to, or seek membership in, groups that are (demographically) similar to themselves. An important and integral aspect of SAP involves self-categorization (Turner, 1982; 1985). Self-Categorization Theory (SCT) suggests that individuals are positively disposed toward categories of socially-defined characteristics that reflect personal similarity and vice versa. Thus, SCT indicates that social categories such as gender, age, and race (McNeilly & Russ, 2000; Messick & Mackie 1989) can produce perceived similarity to other members of a category or group, which in turn could trigger stereotyping of the out-group. Research (Baron and Pfeffer, 1994) indicates that similarity is an important basis of interpersonal attraction as well as social integration and cohesion. Byrne and Neuman (1992) stated that sex similarity seems to have a very strong influence on perceived similarity and interpersonal attraction.

Concerning service gender-stereotyping, the SAP and the SCT suggest that the quality of service offered could be influenced by service-gender classification in a way that a given gender would perceive male-oriented (female-oriented) services are best offered by a man (woman). As suggested by the SCT, this is due to perceived similarity (or consistency) between service-gender classification and service provider gender, which would confer and/or reinforce the service gender-image with service provider gender. Regarding gender helpfulness, the SAP and the SCT predicts that male customers would perceive men as being more helpful, while female customers would perceive women as being more helpful. This is because the SAP predicts that gender similarity will have positive effects on performance by increasing interpersonal attraction and increasing cognitive biases (Linville & Jones 1980), which could lead to more open communication and decreased interpersonal tension. The SAP and the SCT collectively provide the foundation for addressing our RQs.

Finally, this exploratory study is aimed to compare the perceptions of these issues among male and female millennials, across four cultures with the expectation that there will be more similarities among same gender millennials. Due to recent globalization and the growth of social media, cultures have become closer and more similar than different, which is especially true for millennials. Moreover, the expectation of more similarities among millennials across the four countries (U.S., Turkey, Ireland, and Jordan) is increased by their overall acceptance of diversity.

Millennials and Services Gender-orientation

Millennials or Generation Y are often discussed in terms of technology and how different their characteristics are from baby boomers. This generation is also widely recognized for their acceptance of diversity (Dakus, 2013). It is a part of their culture socially and in a business setting to promote inclusion and engagement. Not only do they promote new programs to encourage diversity but they also stray away from existing methods. According to a recent Deloitte report (Smith and Turner, 2015), these individuals encourage collaborating in diverse groups where different ideas are brought together. Moreover, millennials not only encourage diversity much more than previous generations but they have redefined the very thought of diversity.

It is relevant in today’s global marketplace to ask if millennials have the same perceptions regarding cultural and social diversity around the world. In fact, research indicates that no other generation in history has been as immersed in diversity within the global marketplace as millennials (Sujansky & Ferri-Read, 2009). Regardless of the definition of diversity, there is sufficient proof that millennials across cultures are all intrigued by diversity and are unique in viewing cognitive diversity as essential for an inclusive culture (Smith and Turner, 2015). For most generations, diversity is something for which they have had to become accustomed, and for millennials, diversity is a given, diversity is a part of them, it's who they are as a generation.

Deloitte (2016) conducts annual surveys with nearly 7,700 millennials from 29 countries to learn about their values and ambitions, drivers of job satisfaction, loyalty challenges, and their increasing representation in senior management teams. The survey report shows that globally millennials believe in an inclusive working culture and a strong commitment to equality. Another Deloitte report regarding millennials and diversity (Smith & Turner, 2015) indicates that millennials move well beyond the integration of demographic differences. They base diversity more or less on cognitive diversity of mixing unique perspectives within a team. Furthermore, they do not define diversity as a mixture of people from different races, religions, or genders, but rather a mixture of different thoughts, ideas, experiences, perspectives, and opinions. For millennials, it is not always about the physical being of inclusion, but the diversification of the knowledge that these people bring to a group.

Universum partnered with INSEAD and The Head Foundation to conduct a comprehensive survey in 43 countries in order to better understand the millennials' view of diversity (Tattanelli, 2014). The findings of this survey show that the millennials' view of cultural diversity consists of traits such as personality, work styles, LGBT, accents, personality and religion. The above studies overwhelmingly suggest that millennials hold the same perception and ideas regarding cultural and social diversity. They have learned to celebrate and embrace diversity, and they expect that same type of culture to exist in the organizations they join (Sujansky & Ferri-Read, 2009).

A potential reason millennials have such an interest in advocating for an inclusive culture is that they feel their employee experience is affected by whether or not an organization fosters an inclusive culture (Smith &Turner, 2015). Individuals in the Millennial Generation are more actively engaged, empowered and true to themselves when they feel as though their organization values diversity. Given their positive perspectives and attitudes about diversity and promoting inclusion, male (or female) millennials are expected to have similar perceptions regarding the effects of service gender-stereotyping on service quality and gender helpfulness across the different cultures covered in this study. Moreover, since millennials will comprise nearly 75% percent of the workforce by 2025 (Bentley University, 2013), they will decide the future of the working environment (Smith and Turner, 2015). Given their importance as future customers, millennials' perceptions of service gender-orientation could have important implications for businesses, especially services, in different cultures.

Cultural Values and Gender

Socio-cultural context determines that there are significant differences between middle Eastern (Turkey and Jordan) and Western (the U.S. and Ireland) work-related values, societal norms regarding gender roles, and attitudes towards women in business (Aycan, 2004). However, it is important to note that as the Middle East is changing and modernizing, there is a movement toward more equality in gender-role stereotypes in the workplace, especially in urban areas, in higher socio-economic classes, and among higher-educated women (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2009; Askun &

Askun, 2010). Moreover, recent research (Dakus, 2013; Dolloite 2016; Smith & Turner, 2015; Sujansky & Ferri-Read, 2009; Tattanelli, 2014) shows that this change and progress for gender-role equality is more apparent among millennials across different cultures. Therefore, this study is aimed to investigate whether the cultural differences influence the perceptions of gender helpfulness, and the effects of gender-stereotyping on service quality among millennials across different cultures. Given that there are limited studies about the role of culture on gender similarity (e.g., Mobley, 1982; Schaubroeck &Lam, 2002; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989), this study is conducted with millennials in four countries, the United States, Turkey, Ireland, and Jordan, to investigate the effects of gender-stereotyping on service quality, as well as gender helpfulness as perceived by each gender in these cultures.

Objectives of the Study

The main objective of this study is to examine the perceptions of millennials regarding gender effects on service quality across different cultures. More specifically, the study examines the effects of gender-stereotyping of service quality as perceived by male and female respondents (millennials), and also if men or women are perceived to be more helpful when asked for help during a service encounter. The specific research questions (**RQs**) the study will address are to: **RQ1)** Investigate the effects of culture on male millennials as it pertains to their perceptions of service quality. **RQ2)** Investigate the effects of culture on female millennials as it pertains to their perceptions of service quality. **RQ3)** Investigate the effects of culture for both gender millennials as it pertains to their perceptions of service helpfulness. It is important to note that, while it is desirable or a good idea to compare male vs female millennials, these three RQs will focus on examining males and females separately, not by male versus female, across four cultures.

Methodology

The survey instrument is designed to include questions that determine the effect of gender on service quality during service encounters. To address RQ1 and RQ2, respondents were asked, based on their past experiences, if they perceived they had received better quality and more satisfying service from male or female service providers. Initially, the service industries selected to include in the study were bank teller/officer, coffee shop server, fast-food restaurant server, cell-phone service provider, pharmacist, doctor, dentist, and professor/teacher. However, a study by Pinar et al. (2016) found that doctors and dentists are classified as male-oriented services, and bank teller/officer and teacher/professor as female-oriented services. As result, this exploratory study used these services to address RQ1 and QR2. The effect of gender similarity/dissimilarity on perceived service quality was measured with a 7-point Likert scale ranging from -3 = definitely men, to 0 = equally, and to +3 = definitely women. To address RQ3, the survey instrument included a question that asked respondents if men or women were more helpful. This question was measured with a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from -2 definitely males and 2 = definitely females. The final survey is presented in Appendix A.

Since the study was conducted in four countries (the United States, Ireland, Turkey and Jordan), the questionnaire was translated into Turkish and Arabic and later back-translated into English (Ball, McCulloch, Frantz, Geringer, & Minor, 2002). The survey instrument was pretested in these countries, where pretests were conducted in different languages of the questionnaire with respondents similar to the target respondents. These pretests provided useful input for improving the survey questions and for establishing face validity of the constructs (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005). The survey also included such demographic questions as gender, age and student classification. The final survey was administered to university/college students in the United States, Ireland, Turkey, and Jordan. The main reason for selecting university students is that they represent "Millennials, which is the focus of this study. To focus only on the U.S. students' (millennials), international students were excluded from the study during data collection to represent American millennials. Also, since there were no international students in the sample data collected from attending universities in the other three countries, the survey included only students from these counties. This assured that the respondents or millennials represent their respective cultures. This study included freshman, sophomore, junior, senior, and graduate levels. This process produced 503 useable surveys in Turkey, 280 in the United States, 200 in Ireland, and 204 in Jordan.

Respondent Profiles

Table 1 shows the selected respondent profiles for all respondents, as well as for each country. As whole, 48.4% of respondents are male. Male respondents for Turkey are 44.3%, 67.1% for the U.S., 32.7% for Ireland, and 48.5% for Jordan. The remaining respondents were female. There is a nearly even distribution among undergraduate respondents for the entire population, although the distribution is a slightly different for each country. Finally, the average age overall is 22.2 years, whereas the average age of the respondents from each country is 21.8 for Turkey, 21.4 for the United States, 23.9 for Ireland, and 22.6 for Jordan.

Table 1: Selected Respondent Profiles

	All		Turkey		USA		Ireland		Jordan	
Gender	**n**	**Percent**	**n**	**Percent**	**n**	**Percent**	**n**	**Percent**	**n**	**Percent**
Male	571	48.4	221	44.2	186	67.1	65	32.7	99	48.5
Female	609	51.3	279	55.6	91	32.9	134	67.3	105	51.5
Class	**n**	**Percent**	**n**	**Percent**	**n**	**Percent**	**n**	**Percent**	**n**	**Percent**
Freshman	283	24.1	175	34.9	30	11.0	61	30.7	17	8.3
Sophomore	254	21.6	137	27.3	50	18.4	38	19.1	29	14.2
Junior	217	18.5	57	11.4	76	27.9	30	15.1	54	26.5
Senior	282	24.0	76	15.2	83	30.5	47	23.6	76	37.3
Graduate	140	11.9	56	11.2	33	12.1	23	11.6	28	13.7
	Mean	**Sd. Dev.**	**Mean**	**Sd. Dev.**	**Mean**	**Sd. Dev.**	**Mean**	**Sd. Dev.**	**Mean**	**Sd. Dev.**
Age	22.2	4.22	21.8	3.65	21.4	3.11	23.9	6.7	22.6	3.15

Analysis and Results

To address RQ1 and RQ2, based on prior research (Pinar et al., 2016), the study included male-oriented and female-oriented services, where male-oriented service are doctor and dentist, and female-oriented services are bank teller/officer and professor/teacher. The summated mean scores of these services were used in our analyses. Since the study is focused on examining millennials, respondents who were not millennials were excluded from the study. These changes yielded 465 respondents from Turkey, 250 from the U.S., 162 from Ireland, and 198 form. A one-way between groups ANOVA was conducted for each of RQ1 and RQ2. Culture was a factor and focus of this study. Respondents were classified into one of four cultures according to the country in which the survey was conducted (Turkey, USA, Ireland, and Jordan). Male and female respondents were then separated into two groups to analyze independently. All post-hoc comparisons were conducted using Bonferroni adjusted alpha levels. The results for RQ1 and RQ2 are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Comparisons of Effects of Service Gender-Stereotype on Service Quality by respondent Gender Across Cultures

Gender Orientation	Turkey		USA		Ireland		Jordan				
Male Respondents	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	df.	P-value	Bonferroni Mean Comparisons
Male Oriented	-0.12	1.45	-0.86	1.24	-0.57	1.34	-0.61	1.45	3, 505	0.001	1-2***; 1-4**
Female Oriented	0.44	1.81	-0.04	1.21	0.29	1.49	0.43	1.52	3, 506	**0.018**	2-4**
Female Respondents	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	df.	P-value	Bonferroni Mean Comparisons
Male Oriented	-0.28	1.58	-0.06	1,12	0.17	1.19	-1.04	1.32	3, 559	**0.001**	1-3**; 1-4***; 2-4***; 3-4***
Female Oriented	0.36	1.79	-0.03	0.83	0.02	1.28	0.67	1.69		**0.004**	2-4**; 3-4**

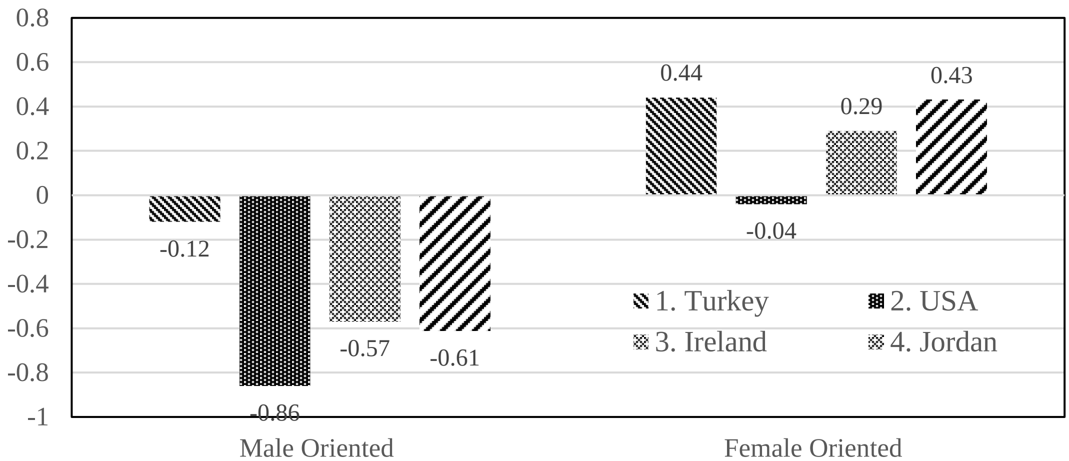
Scale: -3= Definitely Females & 3 = Definitely Male; p-sig.: * p < .10, **p < .05, ***P < .01

p-sig.: * p < .10, **p < .05, ***P < .01

The objective of RQ1 was to investigate the effects of culture on male respondents as it pertains to their perceptions of service quality. Services were previously classified as either male or female oriented. Results are presented for each orientation beginning with male perceptions of male oriented services. There was a statistically significant difference in the mean service quality scores for male oriented services for the four countries ($p < .001$). Post-hoc comparisons showed statistically significant differences between Turkish males and males from the United States and Jordan, but not from Ireland. Differences were the strongest between Turkish and American men at the $p < .01$ level, and followed by Jordanian men at the $p < .05$ level. Observed differences in mean scores among American, Irish, and Jordanian men were not statistically significant. One-sample t-tests (test value=0) showed that all males, except from Turkey, perceived that men provided the best service for male oriented services ($p < .01$).

The second part of RQ1 was to investigate the effects of culture on male respondents for female oriented services. A statistically significant difference was found in the mean scores for service quality as perceived by male respondents from each of the four countries ($p = .48$). Post-hoc comparisons showed statistically significant differences between American and Jordanian males at the $p < .10$ level. All other differences were not statistically significant. One-sample t-tests (test value=0) showed that American and Irish men were essentially neutral in their evaluation ($p > .10$), while Turkish and Jordanian men perceived that women provided better service for female oriented services ($p < .01$). Figure 1 shows the results for RQ1 in graphical form.

Figure 1: Male Respondents' Perceptions of Service Quality by Service Gender Orientation



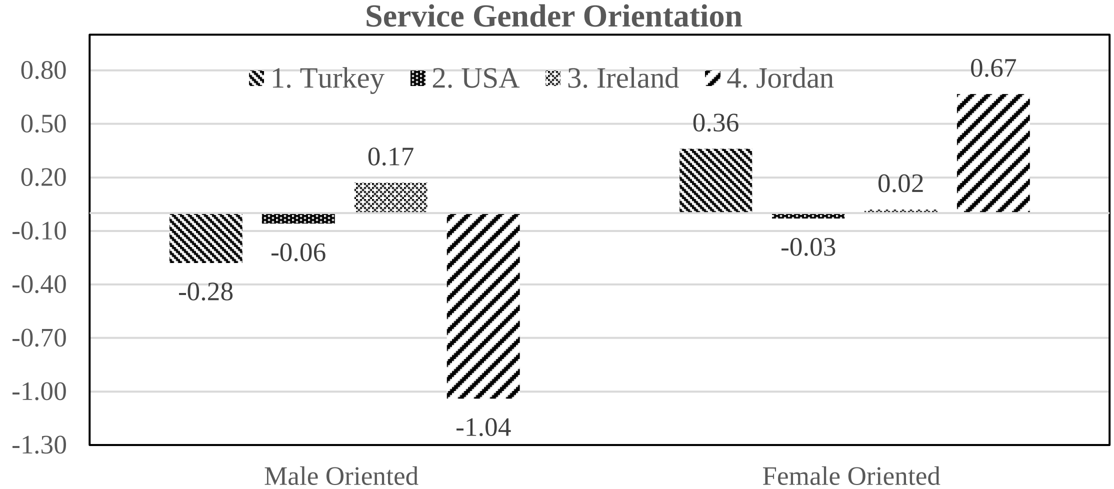
Scale: -2= Definitely male & 2 = Definitely female

The objective of RQ2 was to investigate the effects of culture on female respondents as it pertains to their perceptions of service quality. Services that are considered male oriented will be discussed first followed by those that are considered female oriented. There was a statistically significant difference in the mean service quality scores for male oriented services across the four countries ($p < .001$). Post-hoc comparisons showed statistically significant differences between Jordanian women and all other women at the $p < .01$ level. The difference in mean scores between Turkish and Irish women were also statistically significant at the $p < .01$ level. All other pair-wise differences were not statistically significant. One sample t-tests (test value=0) indicate that Turkish and Jordanian women perceive that men provide better service ($p < .01$), whereas American and Irish women are neutral in their evaluations ($p > .10$).

The second part of RQ2 was to investigate the effects of culture on female respondents for female oriented services. A statistically significant difference was found in the mean scores for service quality as perceived by female respondents from each of the four countries at $p = .007$) level (Table 2). Post-hoc comparisons showed statistically significant differences between women from Jordan and the USA and Ireland at the $p < .05$ level. All other pair-wise differences were not statistically significant. One sample t-tests (test value=0) show that Turkish and Jordanian women perceive that women provide better service (p < .01), whereas American and Irish women are neutral in their evaluations (p > .10). Figure 2 shows the results for RQ2 in graphical form.

In addition to service quality, the objective of RQ3 was to investigate the effects of culture on perceptions of service helpfulness among male and female respondents across four countries. Table 3 presents the One-way ANOVA comparisons for helpfulness. Male respondents will be examined first, followed by female respondents. There was a statistically significant difference in the mean scores between the four countries (p < .001). Post-hoc comparisons showed statistically significant differences between Jordanian males and males from all other countries (Table 3 and Figure 3). This difference was significant at the p < .01 level for both Turkey and the USA and at the p < .05 level for Ireland. The pair-wise differences between Turkey, the USA, and Ireland were not statistically significant (p > .10). Based on one-sample t-tests (test value=0), Jordanian men believe males are more helpful in providing services (p < .01) while non-Jordanian men believe women are more helpful in providing services (p < .01 for Turkish and American men and p < .05 for Irish men).

Figure 2: Female Respondents' Perceptions of Service Quality by Service Gender Orientation

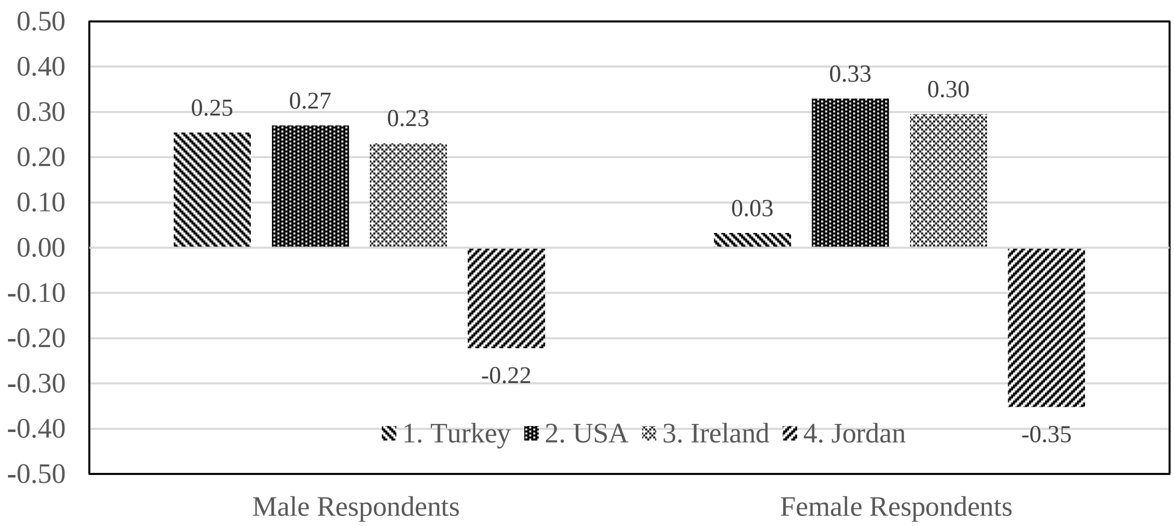


Scale: -2= Definitely male & 2 = Definitely female

RQ3 continues with an analysis of the effects of culture on perceptions of service helpfulness for female respondents. The results show a statistically significant difference in the mean scores between the four countries (p < .001). Post-hoc comparisons in Table 3 and Figure 3 showed statistically significant differences between Jordanian females at the p < .01 level when compared to all other females; the findings that are similar to that shown with men. The one-sample t-tests (test value=0) show that Jordanian women believe males are more helpful in providing services (p < .01) while American, and Irish women believe women are more helpful in providing services (p < .01); Turkish women were effectively neutral (p > .10).

Table 3: Comparisons of Helpfulness of Gender by respondent Gender Across Cultures											
Helpfulness	Turkey		USA		Ireland		Jordan				
Respondent Gender	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	df	P-value	Bonferroni Mean Comparisons
Male Respondents	0.25	0.93	0.27	0.8	0.23	0.89	-0.22	1.18	3, 505	**0.001**	1-4***; 2-4***; 3-4**
Female Respondents	0.03	1.01	0.33	0.84	0.30	0.85	-0.35	0.94	3, 556	**0.001**	1-2***; 2-4***; 3-4***
Scale: -2= Definitely Females & 2 = Definitely Male; p-sig.: * p < .10, **p < .05, ***P < .01											

Figure 3: Perceptions of "Who is more helpful - Male or Female?" by Gender Across Cultures



Scale: -2= Definitely male & 2 = Definitely Females

Discussion and Limitations

This study examined the effects of service gender-stereotyping on service quality as well as gender helpfulness as perceived by male and female respondents (millennials) across four countries - the United States, Ireland, Turkey, and Jordan. Regarding the effects of gender-stereotyping on service quality, the results found statistically significant differences among the male and female millennials for both male-oriented and female-oriented services. Figure 1 shows that all male millennials perceived that generally male service providers are better at offering male-oriented service and female service providers are better offering female-oriented services. Figure 2 shows similar perceptions for female millennials, except in Ireland for male-oriented services. The results for both male and female respondents from each country, except female-oriented services, are significantly different from zero which indicates the existence of service gender-stereotyping and service provider matching bias. These findings are consistent with the predictions of the Similarity-Attraction Paradigm (Byrne, 1971; Byrne and Neuman, 1992; Graves and Powell, 1995) and Self-Categorization Theory (Turner, 1982, 1985), which also suggests an existence of service gender-stereotyping among millennials regardless of their gender in different cultures.

In addition, comparisons across cultures found significant differences among millennials from the four countries for both male-oriented and female-oriented services, which is not consistent with the recent research regarding diversity among millennials in a global marketplace (e.g., Dakus, 2013; Deloitte 2016; Smith and Turner, 2015). These findings could be due to cultural differences regarding gender role differences and attitudes ((Aycan, 2004; Sanal, 2006), which also suggest that despite recent globalization and social media millennials may not be as diverse as the above recent research suggests.

The results regarding gender-helpfulness in Figure 3 show significant differences for male and female millennials across cultures. For both male and female respondents, the study found a significant difference in perceived helpfulness scores between Jordanian males and all other males, but no difference among male millennials from the United States, Turkey and Ireland. These findings, with the exception of Jordan, are consistent with recent research that male millennials have similar values and perceptions regarding diversity and inclusion (Dakus, 2013; Dolloite 2016; Smith and Turner, 2015; Sujansky & Ferri-Read, 2009; Tattanelli, 2014), regardless of cultural differences.

This study also found that, with the exception of Jordan, male and female millennials perceive women as more helpful than men when asked for help. More specifically, since Turkish, American and Irish male millennials perceive women, opposite gender of respondents, as more helpful, this contradicts the predictions of Similarity Attraction Paradigm (Byrne, 1971; Byrne and Neuman, 1992; Graves and Powell, 1995) and Self-Categorization Theory (Turner, 1982; 1985), but it is consistent with the finding about gender mismatched by Dwyer et al. (1998). The results for Turkish and Irish female millennials indicate that women (same gender as respondents, are perceived as more helpful, which supports the predictions of Self-Categorization Theory and Similarity Attraction Paradigm, and it is also consistent with prior gender similarity research (Churchill et al., 1997; Crosby et al., 1990; Smith, 1998). It is interesting to note that in Jordan both male and female respondents (millennials) perceive men as more helpful than women. This finding indicates that despite the recent modernization efforts in Jordan, men, unlike women, have had a long history in the work place, which may have created the expectation or common belief that men are more helpful.

These findings could have some managerial implications for global companies. One implication is that despite globalization and the growth of social media there still seems to be differences even among some of the millennials regarding service gender-stereotyping. Companies in different cultures must be careful when recruiting men and women for their service positions. This is especially true for Jordan or countries with similar cultures to Jordan. Second, since there seems to be a general perception of service gender-stereotyping and service quality match, global companies could be aware of these findings in developing human resources and hiring policies in different cultures. Finally, given that women are perceived as more helpful than men by both genders in three cultures, global companies must either recruit more women for service positions and/or train men to improve their "perceived" helpfulness. Since helpfulness and service quality are important for customer satisfaction, these implications could be critical for creating customer loyalty and retentions, which are important for success and profitability of the firms in different cultures.

Limitations of the Study

The findings of this study provided insights about gender-helpfulness and the effects of service gender-stereotyping on service quality as perceived by millennials in different cultures. However, our results and conclusions must be viewed in the context of the potential limitations of the study. The first limitation is that this study covered limited service industries. Future research could cover more service industries in order to gain better insights regarding these issues. The second limitation is that the study by (Pinar et al., 2016) used to classify service gender-stereotyping was conducted in one country with domestic and international students. A future study should be conducted in different countries to get better insights for these classifications. The third limitation is this study compared male and female millennials separately across the four cultures. Comparing male versus female millennials could provide different perspectives about millennials in the global marketplace. The forth limitation is that the study was only in four countries/cultures. Including millennials from more countries or from different regions of the world may expand our understanding of millennials' perception of these issues and the role of culture on the gender effect for service quality. A final limitation of this study is that it does not consider the practical significance of the statistically significant differences found in the respondent's scores - an analysis of the effect size may be worthwhile.

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Appendix A: Survey Instrument

1. In your mind, do you think men or women could generally offer better customer service?							
Business or Service	**Definitely Men**			**Equally**			**Definitely Women**
Bank teller/officer	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
Doctor	3	2	1	0	1	2	3
Dentist	3	2	1	0	1	2	3
Teacher/Professor	3	2	1	0	1	2	3
2. In your mind, generally who is more helpful when you ask for a help?							
Definitely Women: -2 Women: -1 Both equally: 0 Men: 1 Definitely Men: 2							
The following questions are just for classification purposes.							
3. Your Gender: Male _____ Female ______							
4. Your Classification: Freshmen ____ Sophomore ____ Junior ____ Senior ____ Graduate (Masters and Ph.D.) ____							
5 Your age: _______							

Impact of Indian Movie Industry on The Marketization of India Inc.

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ABSTRACT

This research article focuses on how the Indian film industry has helped market "India Inc." to the outside world since the Govt. of India accorded 'industry' status to the business of film-making in 1998. Specifically, this article focuses on how the biggest film industry in the world went through decades of chaotic and unprofessional managerial regimes to acquire the status of one of the most sought-after marketing platforms by different entities—both Indian and international. We also discuss how the 'marriage of convenience' between Indian film world and the game of cricket added fuel to the marketization of the Indian film industry, and overall, this article leaves the reader with several interesting and groundbreaking ideas for future research.

Keywords: Indian films, Hindi movie, corporatization, media marketing

1. Introduction

The current research focuses on how the corporatization of the Indian film sector has influenced and been influenced by the marketization of what is popularly referred to as 'India Inc.'. Irrespective of whether such movies/TV shows were actually the products of the Indian film industry, recent events suggest a strong Indian presence in the form of one or more aspects of film-making such as direction, theme, screenwriting, production, storyline, actors etc. in multiple ventures that have garnered both national and international acclaim at the box office.

In the first segment of this article, the author first defines the scope of the current research, lays out a brief history of Indian cinema for the 'uninitiated' reader and then presents a theoretical framework and motivation for the research. The second segment of this article discusses the post-corporatization phase of the Indian film sector and the subsequent evolution of the film industry as a major marketing tool of what is often referred to as 'India Inc.' both in and outside India.

2. Background

Indian movies boast of a worldwide audience spanning across almost six continents (3.3m viewers in North America, 2.3m in UK, 2.6m in the Gulf States and 1.1m viewers in South Africa as its biggest markets). The Indian movie industry produces arguably about 1000 movies a year (which translates to almost 3 movies a day, including weekends). At its peak, the Indian movie industry churned out an incredible 1325 films in 2008 and 1255 films in 2011. India was way ahead of second ranked US, with 819 films (Gonzalez, 2013).

Until a couple of decades back, however, the Indian movie industry was still entrenched in post-colonial managerial practices run only by a handful of movie houses, production companies and studios, that used to be managed by patriarchal individuals/families (the likes of Kapoors, the Chopras etc.). These handful of movie houses called the shots and controlled each stage of movie production from ideation to commercial screening. Movie production functions consisted mainly of patchwork and ad hoc type arrangements, where major responsibilities were executed by a few experienced film personalities who had been around long enough to navigate the circuitous alleys of the industry, and who knew which strings to pull and whose palms to grease in order to get things accomplished.

However, since the Govt. of India accorded ‘industry’ status to the business of film-making in May 1998—often referred to as the ‘corporatization’ (Punathambekar, 2013) -- the entire film landscape has undergone a sea-change. In the space of the last 18 years, what was so far a disjointed, casual and largely chaotic conglomeration of powerful individuals from the movie industry, was put on a trajectory of transformation towards a ‘modern’ organization…an organization that began to work in a more professional, organized and corporate-type model.

The bold step of giving a corporate structure to the Indian movie industry by the Indian government also had both short and long term consequences for the Indian entertainment sector in general and the film industry in particular. It changed the perception of the film world both in the eyes of the Indian populace as well as industrialists. The Indian intelligentsia began to take Indian movies more ‘seriously’, care about what is ‘good’ and what is not, and began to contribute to the development and growth of the movie medium in a positive manner through constructive criticism and intellectual participation.

Moreover, from a business perspective, the government’s formal approval spurred development of in-house, structured and more professional movie establishments such as directorial, financial, technical, scripting, editorial and other infrastructural ventures.

Concurrently, the formal recognition of the Indian movie sector as a mainstream industry ‘upgraded’ the outlook of the Indian film sector to the outside world. Foreign collaboration and participation in Indian movies -- both in acting and otherwise -- are not new. But what the Indian government’s action did was to open up exponentially bigger and better opportunities in terms of joint collaborations, sharing technical expertise, distribution, financing and copyrights.

And this sea-change in perception happened both ways i.e. while foreign movie houses and venture capitalists began to show interest in Indian movie operations, Indian industrialists purchased stakes in western companies (such as Anil Ambani’s Reliance Industries partnering with Spielberg’s DreamWorks Studios), even as Indian actors lapped up major roles in Hollywood movies and TV network series etc. (Priyanka Chopra in *Quantico*, *Baywatch*; Deepika Padukone in *The Return of Xander Cage*; Anil Kapoor in *24,* Amitabh Bacchan in *The Great Gatsby* etc.). On the other hand, Hollywood actors playing major roles in Indian/Indian-based movies are also becoming more common (Patrick Swayze in *City of Joy*; Martin Henderson in *Bride and Prejudice*; Josh Hamilton in *Outsourced* etc.)

None of these changes happened overnight, and the transformation is still in progress. Nonetheless, the Indian movie sector is a force to reckon with and needs to be taken seriously, even as the average non-Indian moviegoer still synonymizes Bollywood movies as mere mishmash of ludicrous events interspersed with catchy songs and hysterical dancing around trees.

Part of this radical transformation from ad hoc operations to astute professionalism is reflected by several international awards bagged by Indian-based/origin movies and/or Indian film personalities: *Slumdog Millionaire* (based on an Indian story with all major roles featuring Indian actors, bagged eight Oscars in 2009, including three Oscars by A R Rahman and 2 other Indians); *Life of Pi*, also based on Indian theme, won four Oscars in 2013.

In this article, therefore, we theorize and analyze how the corporatization of the Indian film sector has played a critical role in the marketization of 'India Inc.'—a popular nomenclature used to describe the *new* India, signifying its open-door policy towards new businesses and foreign collaboration. We first lay out a brief history of Indian cinema prior to its gaining industry status to get the uninitiated reader up to speed; then we discuss how this unique form of mass entertainment has influenced and was influenced by the Indian common man; we then focus on how Mumbai is not just the center on Indian cinema but also harbors links to other cinema hubs such as Hollywood, New York and London; and how TV and digital media have had their stakes changed forever by the ever-increasing push from the Indian cinema industry. Special mention must be made of how the marriage between two of India's biggest objects of obsession -- movies and cricket -- has changed both entertainment and sports landscapes of India beyond imagination. The article concludes with several interesting and groundbreaking ideas for future research especially from a marketing standpoint.

3. Brief History of Indian Cinema

Bombay (now Mumbai) is the heart of Indian cinema. The megacity churns out several blockbusters (by Indian standards) every year. Our current research focuses on Hindi and/or Indian-based movies, which are the most popular both in India and abroad. It must be noted, however, that of all Indian movies produced (numbering to over a 1000 per year), Hindi movies (popularly and somewhat loosely referred to as 'Bollywood' movies) are the most popular. In fact, India became the largest producer of films in the world with 433 films as early as in 1971. Till date, India has given birth to about 27,000 full length feature films, not to mention the countless other documentaries, short movies etc. (Pillania 2008).

India's first feature film was King Harishchandra, a silent movie released in 1913, while the first official 'talkie' was Alam Ara in 1931 (Pillania, 2008). The industry was worth \$1.8b in 2006 (A.T. Kearney, 2007) and is expected to reach revenues of \$4.5b by 2016 (Ghosh, 2013). Ironically, less than 4% of Indians go to the movies regularly. Add to this the fact that Indian movies cost considerably less to make (\$1.5m vs. an average Hollywood movie costing \$47.7 m). Arguably, it is relatively easier for the distributors and producers of Indian movies to turn a profit, and the possibilities are endless. However, India has about 13,000 movie theaters compared to 40,000 in the US (Ghosh, 2013). Table 1 shows a timeline of the major events characterizing Indian cinema.

Table 1 A TIMELINE OF LANDMARK EVENTS IN INDIAN FILM HISTORY

1896 First film screening by the Lumiere Brothers at Watson's Hotel, Bombay (now Mumbai).
1897 First films screened in Calcutta (now Kolkata) and Madras (now Chennai); daily screenings started in Mumbai
1912 *Pundalik*, probably India's first feature film
1916 Universal Pictures sets up Hollywood's first Indian agency.
1918 Indian Cinematograph Act enacted.
1925 *Light of Asia* first co-produced film with a German company.
1931 *Alam Ara* India's first talkie
1932 The East India Film Co. started making regional films and Motion Picture Society of India founded
1933 *Sairandhri* was probably India's first color film (processed and printed in Germany).
1935 First All India Motion Picture Convention.
1940 Film Advisory Board is set up by the Government of India.
1952 First International Film Festival of India held in Bombay.
1952 The Indian Cinematograph Act of 1952 replaces the Cinematograph Act of 1918.
1958 The Indian Copyright Act comes into force.
1959 *Kagaz Ke Phool*, the first Indian cinemascope film, is made by Guru Dutt and shot by V. K. Murthy.
1960 The Film Institute of India is founded in Pune.
1960 K. Asif's *Mughal-e-Azam*, the most expensive feature film in Indian film history.
1967 The first 70mm wide screen film is shown in India.
1971 Significant reduction in Hollywood film screenings in India due to expiry of contract between MPEEA and Govt. of India
1971 India becomes the largest producer of films in the world with 433 films.
1992 Increase of foreign films released in India due to government's new liberalization policy.

Adapted from Acharya, 2004

4. Theoretical Framework and Motivation

Movies have been the staple diet for entertainment of the Indian common man both in terms of affordability and quality. Even until a decade ago, a movie visit would cost no more than a couple of dollars including concessions. Given the mass scale at which they were (and are still being) produced, there was something for everyone, irrespective of age, sex, education level, economic or social status or interest. Indian movie stars are considered larger than life, often catapulted to the same pedestal as venerable religious figures not just by the illiterate people but even by the cognoscenti! Such are the top movie stars' fan following that people will do virtually anything (bordering on absurd and hysterical) to catch a glimpse of their 'demi-Gods'.

However, it is only in the recent years that Indian movies have garnered attention of mainstream academics, much to the satisfaction of Indian movie buffs who have traditionally lamented the lack of serious research in this field. Nonetheless, such interest does not come even close to that of Hollywood: a quick search involving the terms 'Bollywood' and 'Hollywood' in the 'abstract' field of ABI/INFORM Complete database yield 4,004 and 65,918 results respectively.

This study draws from several theoretical underpinnings. The globalization hybridity theory, for example, originated in the 18th century and was fueled mainly by the accusation of cultural and genetic 'contamination' in several countries including the US. This negative outlook was mainly accentuated by the European invasion, which basically displaced the indigenous population in those countries.

However, early in the 19th century, the globalization hybridity theory acquired a new meaning, being stoked by anti-colonization movements. Several countries and/or regions experienced strong pushback against European colonization and hegemony. A fallout of the above movements was hybridity theory that emerged mainly in Africa, Latin America, Asia, and the mixed populace in the West. The fundamental characteristic of a 'hybrid' population is their lack of strong attachment or adherence to any specific cultural norms. Instead, the population imbibes idiosyncrasies of the local environment, typically characterized by fusion between the indigenous and the foreign cultures (Kraidy, 2002).

The current research also invokes the cultural differentiation theory (Flew, 2007), which proposes that culture, over time, undergoes varying levels of metamorphosis due to external, internal as well as evolutionary reasons. Some of these changes and metamorphoses are so extreme that traits of the original culture give ways to 'morphed' versions and are hard to relate back to its roots. Such phenomena, evidently, are more common in large, cosmopolitan societies with a steady flow (both inwards and outwards) of multinational, multicultural, multi-racial, nomadic and opportunistic population (such as the US) rather than in closely-knit, conservative and traditional societies (such as in India).

Finally, our research also borrows from nuances of cultural art forms that depict, for example, media (especially films) as tools of 'soft power' that mold, influence and eventually transform people's feelings and perceptions about their self-beings and surroundings in which they thrive. Consequently, such soft power leads to the creation of social capital that connects the diaspora by a common theme (Nye, 2004), irrespective of where they physically exist.

The role of soft power becomes critical when individuals choose to live in a foreign (not a place of birth) environment for a prolonged period of time either due to immigration, educational or employment opportunities. Under such circumstances, the individual is torn between merging with the local (foreign) culture and retaining whatever he/she can of his/her indigenous culture. The end product is often a hotchpotch of both traditions and practices leading to a totally different 'hybrid' culture, which motivates our current discussion, and is frequently referred to as the 'Indian-American', 'Asian-American' or *Desi-American* subculture (Pendakur, 2003).

It is this intermingling and hybridity of cultures and its desperate attempt to cling on to whatever little is left of their original 'Indian' culture that binds the Indian diaspora by a common thread—which, in many cases, happens to be movies. Research shows that no matter what their age, profession, education level, marital status, income bracket or region of domicile is, Indian movies are not just about actors, songs, and dances but almost a way of life for the Indian diaspora spread throughout the globe ((Karan, 2013). Even the so-called 'second-generation' Indian offspring (born and brought up in a foreign country) who have little, if any, direct connection to their homeland, seem to have a special liking for Indian-based films.

But what makes our topic of discussion even more interesting and relevant is that a considerable segment of non-Indian population (especially in the former USSR, the US, many European countries, the middle East, South Africa and Australia) who barely know Hindi (the Indian national language), seem to have a strong liking for Hindi movies and songs. There are numerous big cities and educational institutes in these countries that host regular 'Bollywood' shows and/or dance competitions, where foreigners participate more enthusiastically than their Indian counterparts (Kapur, 2014).

In other words, this is a perfect example of globalization hybridity, characterized by a two-way effort by the guest population and the host population to embrace each other's cultures and mannerisms -- despite little -- if any, historical ties towards each other. The author himself has met and interviewed several American and European persons who are more versed with Bollywood films, songs and movie stars than the author himself (who is Indian), and who regularly organize 'Bollywood parties' at their homes. Despite being immersed in foreign culture by virtue of their geographical location, the non-resident Indian (aka NRI) population strive to distinguish and distance themselves either by clinging on to their religious traditions, marrying within their own community, or by emphasizing education as well as family values etc. This is another solid example of the cultural differentiation theory that we earlier referred to (Punathambekar, 2013).

5. Post-Corporatization Of Indian Film Sector

Thanks to the recognition of 'industry' status given to Indian films by the government in 1998, the sector witnessed several changes, both immediate and long term -- some inconsequential, while others profound. Given the vast and diverse nature of such changes, it is only appropriate we first discuss how corporatization altered the equation that the film industry developed with international entities, and then we explore the effects on the domestic entertainment scenario.

5.1. The International Perspective

As noted earlier, the Indian movie industry has evolved considerably over the years, and due to the further liberalization steps initiated by the government's policies since the late 1990-s, there has been a flurry of activities that involved international participation. Such activities assumed different formats, such as foreign capital injection and investment, foreign personnel participation (acting, direction, production etc.), film awards, role of the Indian diaspora (shooting in foreign locales, incorporating Indian values and themes etc.). In the following sections, we review each of these developments in brief, with appropriate anecdotes wherever applicable.

5.1.1. Foreign Capital Injection and Investment

One of the foremost effects of corporatization was felt in the business-chemistry between Indian film industry and Hollywood. To be sure, this led to the flurry of foreign direct investment projects (FDI-s) in the Indian entertainment sector. Spielberg's DreamWorks Studios, for example, got its much-needed cash ($875m to be precise) from India's Reliance BIG Entertainment (Duke, 2009). The deal was also financed by Walt Disney and eight other multinational banks. To put it in the words of Michael Lynton, chairman and chief executive of Sony Pictures Entertainment: "The fact is that the business in India is becoming more and more like the rest of the world. It looks much more like a business that we understand than perhaps it did 10 or 15 years ago and the trend is to become more like that rather than less like that." (Leahy, 2008)

Sanjay Leela Bhansali co-produced *Saawariya* with Sony Pictures, and the movie was released worldwide in 2007 with about 1,000 prints. To put this in perspective, on an average, only 250 prints are released. In fact, according to Kohli-Khandekar (2006), this was the first time that one of top six Hollywood studios produced an Indian film. Since then, Indian films have been seen in top ten lists of movies in the UK and USA. Percept Picture Company collaborated with Michael Douglas' production company Further Films and SaharaOne of India to co-produce the $50-million movie *Racing the Monsoon*. Sahara also collaborated with Hollywood producer Donald Rosenfeld in the form of the *Tree of Life* (Kohli-Khandekar 2006.)

Many entertainment companies such as Eros, Adlabs, India Film Company, and UTV are enlisted in the London Stock Exchange, all of which further vindicate global interest in the growth of the Indian movie industry (Pillania, 2008). Finally, more and more Hollywood blockbusters are not only released in India prior to their US release, but also dubbed in the local language, which is another testimony to the heightened recognition of Indian film industry in the international arena (check out http://www.imdb.com/list/ls058365027/?start=1&view=detail&sort=release_date_us:desc&defaults=1 for a list of such movies). To quote Nandini Raghavendra: "In India, while 90% of the market still belongs to local content dominated by Bollywood and South Indian films, appetite for Hollywood films has been rising 10%-12 % a year, thanks to a range of drivers including burgeoning middle class, increasing English speaking population, rising awareness and international exposure directly and through the internet, spread of multiplexes, and dubbing of the films into local languages." (Raghavendra, 2011). This further vindicates why release of Hollywood blockbusters in India prior to their US release is not just a matter of dollars and cents, but a strategic move as well!

5.1.2 Foreign Participation

India being a former British colony, had considerable exposure to and intermingling with European culture, especially in the entertainment sector. Consequently, presence of British actors and technicians both on and off the screen in Indian films is nothing new. In fact, the presence of foreign actors, stuntmen, technicians and other personnel can be traced back as far as the very early Indian movies. Most of such roles, however, were for side characters, villains, or vamps.

The trend has continued ever since and in the most recent years, an increasing number of foreign actors have made a beeline for a share of the pie in Indian movies: Sunny Leone (Canada), Katrina Kaif (UK), Jacqueline Fernandez (Sri Lanka), Nargis Fakhri (US), Claudia (Poland), Elli Avram (Sweden-Greece), Barbara Mori (Mexico), Amy Jackson (Isle of Man), Giselli Monteiro (Brazil), and Yana Gupta (Czechoslovakia), to name a few (Times of India, 2015).

Interestingly, these actors have not only played the anchor role in multiple hit movies, but also participated in many highly popular TV shows (Big Boss, Raw Star, CID, Comedy Nights, to name a few of the top rated most recent ones), according to the website Bollymoviereviewz.com (2014). Even more notable is the fact that most of these actors and film personnel have exhibited considerable commitment by learning the local language, culture, customs and the modus operandi of the Indian movie world, not to mention their acting skills. Once again, such trends clearly indicate the growing interest in, and the increasing influence of Indian films on the global movie industry.

5.1.3 Bollywood Awards

For most major Indian film award ceremonies, foreign locations (rather than Indian) are the venues of choice. Mega events such as the Filmfare Awards, National Film Awards, and International Indian Film Academy Awards (IIFAA) etc. are held at exotic locales all over the world and are attended not just by who’s who of the Indian film industry but also notable foreign movie celebrities and personalities, as well as local dignitaries. The last five venues for the IIFA awards, for example were Canada, Singapore, Macau, US and Malaysia, which provides us an idea of the clout that the Indian film world has developed over the years (IIFA website, 2015).

Such events not only draw the Indian diaspora from near and far and reflect the ever-increasing popularity of the Indian film fraternity, but also provide much-needed boost to the local economy (Karan, 2013). It is, therefore, no wonder that many foreign governments and heads of big cities bend over backwards to host these events, not to mention that such gala ceremonies are frequently visited by the local government and/or political representatives.

5.1.4 Role of the Indian Diaspora

Indian-origin people living abroad (popularly referred to as no-resident Indians or NRI-s) have strong home ties. This is amply reflected in their penchant for maintaining Indian traditions, values, customs and—in the present context—their love for movies. NRI-s lap up every opportunity to experience the Indian movie magic by visiting movie theaters in big cities that regularly screen Indian movies, complete with ethnic food (Karan, 2013).

This fervent attempt to cling on to their roots by NRI-s, especially in the form of movies, is further exacerbated by several other ‘incentives’: 1) regional cable and Internet services, where programs are often beamed from India in real-time…such telecasts typically feature a healthy dose Indian entertainment content; 2) Bollywood dance schools in urban areas, which also offer on-demand live entertainment at public events; 3) copiously available films either for purchase, rentals or for checkout at public libraries, entertainment stores (retail stores such as Wal-Mart as well as online streaming services such as Netflix, Hulu, YouTube and Amazon Prime etc.); 4) audition for participation in big-budget Indian reality shows as well as the actual shooting of some episodes of those shows at foreign locations involving foreign audiences and 4) regular live entertainment performances by Bollywood bigwigs at large cities with considerable Indian expatriates.

Such trend has not gone unnoticed by Hollywood, which has henceforth exploited this opportunity to the best available extent. Given the exponentially increasing numbers of NRI-s, several western movies have either borrowed from, or based their creations on, Indian-based themes, especially the song and dance sequences. On one hand, we have Indian movies that stoke the 'Indian sentiment' among the NRI diaspora by injecting an overdose of melodrama, twists and turns (*Lagaan* or "Land Tax, Gowariker 2001; *Kal Ho Naa Ho* or "Tomorrow Never Comes", Advani 2003; *Kabhie Khushi Kabhi Gham* or "Sometimes Happiness, Sometimes Sadness, Johar and Johar, 2001), as alluded to by Shaefer (2013). For more specific numbers on the popularity of Indian movies in different regions of the world, the reader may consult Abu-Lughod 1993 (Africa); Iordanova 2006 (Europe); and Rajagopalan 2006 (former USSR).

Recognizing the changing landscape and tastes of the Indian population (both within and outside the mainland), producers and directors have increasingly resorted to bold themes (sexual freedom and promiscuity, such as *Kama Sutra*: *A Tale of Love*, Mira Nair, 1996; *Dunno Y… Na Jaane Kyon*, or "I Don't Know Why", Sanjay Sharma, 2010; *Dostana* or "Friendship", Tarun Mansukhani, 2008 etc.), western themes, styles, spine-chilling action, including artificial intelligence (Ra.One, Anubhav Sinha, 2011; *Dhoom* or "Storm", Sanjay Gadhvi, 2004, which also has two sequels etc.). The success of such strategy on a global level is amply reflected in the fact that the movie *My Name is Khan* (2010, Karan Johar) was ranked 21st among the top 30 feature films in 2010 and 2011 (González, 2013). Moreover, My Name is Khan is the highest ever foreign grossing Indian film in history. Compared to other non-US films at the top of the chart which were released by local distributors in the neighboring two-three countries, My Name is Khan was an exception in the sense that it was released by Fox Studios in about 30 countries simultaneously.

On the other hand, several western productions have borrowed from/are based on Indian themes (*The Best Exotic Marigold Hotel*, 2011, John Madden; *Bride & Prejudice*, 2004, Gurinder Chaddha; *Bend It Like Beckham*, 2002, Gurinder Chaddha; *Slumdog Millionaire*, 2008, Danny Boyle, Loveleen Tandan; *Life of Pi*, 2012, Ang Lee etc.), most of which have made their mark at the box office. As Amulya Gopalakrishnan succinctly puts it about *Slumdog Millionaire*, "And what makes Slumdog Millionaire especially complicated is the hybrid nature of it. Based on an Indian novel, shot in India with real slum kids, set to A.R. Rahman's music, featuring Bollywood vets Irfan Khan and Anil Kapoor in important roles, it confounds the usual cultural categories and expectations." (Gopalakrishnn, 2009), not to mention the fact that it was co-directed by a Indo-British pair (Danny Boyle and Loveleen Tandon), written by a British screenwriter (Simon Beaufoy) and produced another British (Christian Coulson). The same can be said of Life of Pi: directed by a Ang Lee from Taiwan, based on a Spanish novel and scripted by an American (David Magee).

Foreign countries and tourist spots go out of their way to court the Indian movie industry so that they get a shot at being able to host their next big event. Tour operators in Switzerland, UK, USA, South Africa, Afghanistan, Greece etc. (where many popular Indian movies continue to be shot) offer exclusive ‘Bollywood Packages’ for tourists.

5.2. The Domestic Perspective

With the Indian government’s liberalization policy going into overdrive over the last decade, several changes began to happen. Many of the movie houses (production, financing, distribution etc.) began to enlist on the stock exchange, both Indian and international. Most of the movie theaters, especially in big cities, began to be replaced by multiplexes. All of these developments are still new for the Indian populace, who were, until recently, still fed a staple diet of entertainment in age-old theaters, sometimes lacking even the basic facilities like clean restrooms, projection equipment etc. In the following sections, we review two main aspects of such changes that altered the domestic entertainment sector: Evolving Infrastructure and Indian Premier League.

5.2.1. Evolving Infrastructure

In contrast to the crumbling the British-era movie theaters, the spanking new multiplexes that mushroomed in the big cities not only boast of a superb viewing ‘experience’ (thanks to fresh injection of interest and capital from different film entities) but also charge considerably higher prices. This effectively precludes the poor Indian moviegoer from enjoying the latest advancements in the most popular form of entertainment. Nonetheless, some of the Indian movies have fared superbly at the box office by local standards (Table 2), which have contributed to the popularity of Indian films and overseas earnings of such movies. Moreover, as per latest data available from the UNESCO Office of Statistics, the number of multiplexes and movie attendance has held relatively steady over the last several years (see Table 3), even though overall rates have gone down, especially when we compare it to the attendance numbers in the US. At the same time, such developments (intentional or otherwise) also helped maintain the professionalism, cleanliness and high standards that are common in most Western multiplexes today.

Table 2: INDIAN MOVIE STATS: TOP 5 GROSSING MOVIES

Film	Budget ($ m)	Total Collection ($ m, domestic + overseas)
PK	19.98	103.13
Dhoom 3	27.98	86.66
Chennai Express	20.78	65.07
3 Idiots	5.59	63.16
Kick	22.38	56.76

Source: Indian Movie Stats

Table 3: TOTAL ADMISSIONS (‘000,000, 2005-2009)

	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	Growth rate (%)	Frequency of attendance pc*
India	3770	3997	3290	3251	2917	-5.8	3.9
USA	1403	1449	1399.3	1341.3	1415.2	0.3	5.4

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics, January 2012
*per capita attendance, population aged 5 to 79 years, 2006-2009

5.2.2. Indian Premier League

It is said that in India the game of cricket is not just a sport, but religion. Just like movie stars, top cricketers in India make megabucks, and are also worshipped as demi-Gods by the general population. The whole country goes into a tizzy during major cricket events, such as the recently-concluded Cricket World Cup, the Champions Trophy, or the Indian Premier League (IPL), which is the latest addition to the already-cricket-crazy nation.

The IPL was designed to bring together the two biggest objects of obsessions with Indians: movies and cricket. Set up along the lines of the Major League Baseball (MLB), the Indian Premier League was started in 2008, complete with cheerleaders imported from abroad and trained in India. Cricket players from all over the world were ‘auctioned off’ to the highest bidder -- typically business conglomerates (co-)owned by Bollywood bigwigs.

Now in its seventh edition -- the IPL -- featuring 60 matches, has easily emerged as one of the most glamorous, cash-rich and glitzy events of all times. The opening ceremonies are replete with Indian artists from the film industry and international entertainers (including several from US). The IPL is so big that players from all over the world clamor to become a part of it, and the fervor shows no signs of abating (for more information, visit www.iplt20.com). Players are auctioned off for astronomical amounts by Indian standards (Yuvraj Singh, for example, commanded a whopping $2.558 m for playing in just 14 matches).

Once again, the IPL has only increased the international presence of elements of the Indian movie industry in the global arena and is the result of smart marketing tactics adopted by the cricketing and the movie fraternities. The result is not only further development of sporting talent but also circulation of billions of dollars both within and outside of India.

6. Challenges of Globalization

The supremacy of Indian movies from a global perspective, especially considered in terms of fan following, is beyond question. Nonetheless, there are still some serious challenges that need to be overcome, should the fraternity desire to be among the top contenders when it comes to top level entertainment. Specifically, we will review the following factors: black money; infrastructure and movie attendance and pragmatic aspects.

6.1 Black Money

The Indian movie sector has long been accused of hobnobbing with, and being financed by the underworld both within and outside India. While there have been several attempts to extradite certain suspects and bring charges against them under the Indian Penal Code, lack of political will and presence of clout in high places have prevented any major arrests so far (Nanjappa, 2015). Such underworld dealings have had its grave consequences on some popular movie figures such as Sanjay Dutt (a popular actor, who was in prison until recently), Gulshan Kumar (a popular music producer, shot and killed in 1997) and Rakesh Roshan (actor/director, who suffered an attempt on his life in 2000) (Nanjappa 2015, DNA webdesk, 2015) and the like.

While such unholy nexus has had historically prevented the government from providing moral and financial support to the film fraternity, there has been a remarkable change in stance, especially in terms of transparency, since the official recognition of the industry in 1998. Nonetheless, unless the movie fraternity can distance itself from the underworld and come out clean, FDI and serious foreign participation will always be suspect.

6.2 Infrastructure and Movie Attendance

A simple comparison of some of the basic indicators of movie infrastructure such as the total number of multiplexes, per capital multiplexes, digital screening equipment and screens, ticket prices, box office revenues etc. reflect the fact that India is still trailing behind its North American, Western European or Chinese counterparts.

The results can be surmised to several possible reasons: 1) total number of movies produced in Inia is simply too high to sustain a reasonable level of interest among viewers beyond a certain level (more than 1200 movies produced in 2011, with the US in the second place at about 800, according to the UNESCO Institute of Statistics, 2013); 2) average per capita GDP of the Indian viewer is a fraction of that of the US and China, the two closest contenders to India in terms of movie production, which results in box office receipts, production costs, payments to actors/technicians etc. less competitive (GDP figures for China $ 6807.4, India $ 1497.5 and the US $ 53,042 as per the World Bank's GDP 2013 reports; see Table 4) and 3) thanks to technological advancements and the way we access entertainment (DVD, streaming sources, cable, the Internet, video kiosks, on-demand and pay-per-view), viewers have naturally shifted from making that trip to the movie theater to watching the same movie in the comforts of their own homes.

A yet fourth reason might be video piracy, copying and illegal downloading of different forms of entertainment, all of which have played their part in reducing box office earnings. In fact, several movie theaters in major Indian cities have had to shut down in recent times due to lack of footfall (Pillania 2008; Acharya 2004; Punathambekar 2013; Karan 2013).

Table 4: TOTAL BOX OFFICE REVENUE FOR THE TOP 6 COUNTRIES (IN US$ m)

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	Variation 2006-11 (%)	Yearly average growth (%)	Share of World Revenue in 2011 (%)
USA	9488	9632	9635	10610	10580	10186	7.36	1.43	31.25
Japan	1745	1685	1885	2202	1347	2766	58.51	9.65	8.48
China	329	434	607	909	1502	2030	517.02	43.90	6.23
France	1475	1559	1586	1789	1745	1780	20.68	3.83	5.46
GBR	1402	1878	1723	1772	1526	1665	18.76	3.50	5.11

India	1371	1729	1843	1415	1356	1470	7.22	1.40	4.51

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics, July 2013.

6.3 Pragmatic Challenges

The average Indian movie is two-three hours long (Indiamarks, 2015), almost double that of most other movies. In this day and age, few of us have the luxury (patience) of watching a three-hour movie in one sitting. Moreover, many Indian movies are known to be melodramatic, often characterized by too many twisted, unrealistic, sometimes ridiculous plots and storylines. Above all, the presence of too many songs lip-synched by actors in unnatural locations and without any rhyme or reason has not helped its cause either. Consequently, even movies with good story lines and commendable acting/direction have a tough time getting past the western movie aficionado.

Therefore, if Indian movie is to pose any serious threat to its Western counterparts on the global movie stage, it has to concentrate on *quality* instead of *quantity*. Despite giant strides towards marketization since the government's recognition of its official stature, problems of consistency, synchronization and coherence in terms of different facets of movie creation still pose a threat. It is perhaps due to such factors that the US invested about $ 150m in the Chinese film sector, even though historically China lags behind India considerably in movie production (Pillania 2008).

7. Conclusion

Indian movie industry is different from all other types and genres of entertainment -- not just due to the sheer volume and variety of movies produced, but also the unfathomable number of viewers. Given the unique nature of this industry, therefore, the current research assumes great significance. The importance of entertainment in marketing and the relation between the two can hardly be over-emphasized. But the meteoric rise of the Indian movie industry assumes the case of a puzzle that has yet to be unraveled. The author strongly believes that this line of research will resonate very well with the international flavor of the readers of this journal.

8. Future Direction

We leave the reader with several questions to ponder about: Do movie theaters have a realistic chance of survival given the relentless onslaught of cable, internet and movie kiosks? Is the line between Indian movies and Hollywood getting blurry with more and more exchange of ideas, technology, ideology and actors? How do we micro market movies to niche segments in an age where information travels at lightning speed, not to mention the rampant video piracy and illegal copying of copyrighted material? What financial model do we follow where the Internet is no longer considered just an ancillary but a mainstream channel of distribution for entertainment?

The current project can be further enhanced and extended through data collection from academic journals, trade and industry reviews, media statistics, the entertainment blogosphere, as well as through personal and/or secondary interviews with movie buffs, actors, box office analysts and forecasters, movie critics etc.

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