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Biswanath Swain

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Involvement with Experience: A Path to Brand Loyalty

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Abstract

Research on experiential marketing establishes the influence of brand experiences on consumer's attitude towards the brand. However, there exists a need to study how different consumers vary in their level of involvement with experiential elements and how it influences brand loyalty. We present the construct of *Involvement with Experience* which has the potential to influence brand loyalty. Through a study designed to test several hypotheses, we found that involvement with experience significantly impacts relationship satisfaction and perceived functional value, which in turn builds brand trust and loyalty intention. Marketers can craft a consumer-centric experience mix to optimize their marketing budgets based on different levels of involvement with experience.

Keywords: Experience, Involvement, Relationship, Perceived Value, Brand Trust, Loyalty

1. Introduction

The traveller was active; he went strenuously in search of people, of adventure, of experience. The tourist is passive; he expects interesting things to happen to him. He goes 'sight-seeing.'

- Daniel J. Boorstin, American historian

Boorstin paints a contrast between an active traveller who is seeking experiences and a passive tourist who is content with sight-seeing. Similar to travellers and tourists who visit destinations across the world, there are shoppers who visit stores across the retail world. Marketers are investing vast resources in crafting experiences for customers in order to build customer-brand relationships and loyalty. In this era of retail revolution, one witnesses a wide range of shopper types at the store. Each shopper, like a traveller, would walk in to a store with one's own expectations and characteristic behaviour. One may be an active shopper in search of experiential engagement or a

passive shopper who is content with basic transactions. A shopper may be highly sensitive to the experiential elements at the store and consider the service scape as a core element of customer value. Another shopper may be indifferent to the peripheral elements of the service scape and perceive shopping as a mere economic transaction. Marketers segment their consumers on the basis of product-related needs and offer products to suit each segment. Similarly, there is a need to segment shoppers who walk in to the store on the basis of the importance they give to experiential elements. A retailer needs to understand differences among shopper expectations and craft the service scape to cater to each shopper segment.

The 21st century is being viewed as an experience economy where brands are seeking to bond with customers through holistic brand experiences. A plethora of research has substantiated the importance of brand experiences in developing consumer's attitude and loyalty towards the brand. Schmitt (1999) has emphasized on the growing importance of

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experiential marketing and that consumers are increasingly wishing for more compelling brand experiences. Franzen (1999) also said that experiences are an important driver towards building customer-brand relationship. Chang & Chieng (2006) have established that both individual as well as shared experiences directly influence brand meanings within consumers' minds, which impacts consumers' attitude towards the brand. Furthermore, research has been done to explore how different store elements impact brand experiences, which further impact brand perceptions and attitude. Swinyard (1993) proved that in-store mood and quality of shopping experience has a positive impact on shopping intentions. Yoo, Park, & MacInnis (1998) have found that store characteristics trigger in-store emotional experiences which serve as influential drivers of consumer attitude towards the store. Store ambience and social elements also have an influence on consumer's perception of brand quality (Baker, Grewal, & Parasuraman 1994). Although extant research has covered the consequences of brand experiences, there exists a need to question whether different kinds of consumers respond to experiential elements differently. Studies have explained how experiences influence consumer attitude, but we firstly need to explore how consumers' level of involvement with experiences influences their consumption of experiences. A recent study by Sung-Joon Yoon (2013) has found that product type and store type influences the kind of experiences preferred by shoppers. However, there is a need to explore whether consumers' level of involvement with experiences can have a role in deciding whether they would allow brand experiences to influence their mind.

Consumers can either hold an opinion about a brand being good or bad, or they can be indifferent. As discussed, brand experiences can play a significant role in shaping consumer attitudes towards the brand. But this attitude-shaping process will occur only in the presence of active "thinking" or mental processing of the stimulus. This activation of thinking occurs when a consumer is involved in the situation. There has been considerable research done on the construct of involvement. Literature elucidates that a consumer can either be involved with advertisements (Krugman

1966), leading to active processing of the ads (Wright 1973); with specific product categories, leading to higher order scrutiny of product attributes (Howard & Sheth 1969); and with purchase decisions, leading to higher time and effort investment in information search and selection (Clarke & Belk 1979). Celsi & Olson (1988) elucidate that personal and situational factors impact a consumers' level of involvement with the informational stimuli they receive from brands. Hence, different consumer groups in different situational contexts would tend to exhibit varying degrees of involvement with experiential elements of the brand. In this study, we propose to measure the consumers' involvement with experience and test the influence of this construct on loyalty intention through influencing brand attitude and perceptions. In the following section, we elucidate the construct and derive hypotheses that are related to the influence of involvement with experience on relationship satisfaction, perceived value, brand trust, program loyalty and loyalty intention. Thereafter we discuss research methodology, findings, implications and limitations of research.

2. Theoretical Background and Hypotheses

2.1 Brand experiences and their impact on consumer beliefs

An experience is an internal response that consumers feel in a certain situation. Consumers are having an experience when they are sensing through the five senses; feeling emotions; having thoughts provoked in their mind; exhibiting physical behaviour or relating themselves to a reference group (Schmitt 1999). A brand experience is an experience within a brand context which may include situations where the consumer is searching, evaluating, purchasing or consuming the brand (Brakus, Schmitt, & Zarantonello 2009). These contexts can either be physical encounters with the brand elements such as products, people, store environment, processes and policies (Hui & Bateson 1991) or virtual encounters through advertisements (Hoch & Ha 1986; Kempf & Smith 1998).

"Experience is the teacher of all things." - Julius Caesar

Consumers undergo multiple brand experiences throughout their lives. Experiences act as stimuli that initiate a learning process in the minds of consumers. These experiences have the potential to “teach” consumers about brands and update their beliefs about the brand (Hoch & Deighton 1989). These updated beliefs can impact perceptions related to brand associations (Aaker & Joachimsthaler 2000), brand personality (Brakus et al. 2009; Chang & Chieng 2006) and attitude towards the brand (Yoo et al. 1998). Although experiences are influential, does every experience create an equal level of impact on the consumer’s beliefs? Or is there any mediating variable that regulates the level of impact an experience can have on a consumer? In order to answer this question, we propose a construct of ‘Involvement with Experience’.

2.2 *Involvement with experience*

"Tell me and I forget, teach me and I may remember, involve me and I learn." – Benjamin Franklin

Based on Greenwald and Leavitt’s (1984) claim that high involvement means personal relevance, Zaichkowsky (1985, p. 342) defined the involvement construct as, “A person’s perceived relevance of an object based on inherent needs, values, and interests”. Early research on the construct of involvement has shown that this “object” or target of involvement can either be a brand, product category, purchase decision, advertising or media content (Bloch et al. 1986; Howard & Sheth 1969; Hupfer & Gardner 1971; Krugman 1965; 1966; Lord and Burnkrant, 1993; Mittal, 1989). Consumers can also exhibit varying degrees of involvement with general activities or issues like fashion, politics, education, etc. which are not brand-specific (Day, Stafford & Camacho 1995). A consumer may be exposed to many other experiential stimuli beyond products or advertisements. We propose an additional type of involvement directed towards experiences that can include store ambience, shopping experience, sales staff interactions, etc. Consumers are exposed to a plethora of brand experiences. However, only some experiences significantly impact consumer beliefs. Consumers tend to pay active attention only to those experiences

that are personally relevant to them (Hoch & Deighton 1989; Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann 1983). Although consumers tend to be actively involved during direct consumption of products, they may be passive during non-product experiences. We propose that general elements of physical shopping experiences, which are not specific to a brand or a product category can also be an object of involvement.

Prior research has segmented consumers based on their shopping orientation (Lumpkin 1985), and identified segments based on their level of involvement with the shopping process (Westbrook and Black, 1985), highlighting the experiential aspects of shopping (Arnold and Reynolds, 2003). Brand experiences can evoke hedonic value of fun, fantasy fulfillment, escapism, and excitement among consumers (Arnold and Reynolds, 2003; Babin et al., 1994; Wakefield and Baker, 1998). However, not all consumers would value these hedonic experiential benefits equally and hence their level of involvement with experiences would vary. Arnold and Reynolds (2003) discuss that shopping motivations would be similar to involvement where strong vs. weak involvement with the shopping experience can have an impact on the affective responses during shopping. Hence, the construct of ‘involvement with experience’ is based on Zaichkowsky’s (1985) definition of involvement applied to the object of hedonic shopping experiential benefits as described by Arnold and Reynolds (2003).

Consumers’ involvement with experience measures the level of importance they associate to an experience based on their valued goals. If consumers do not give importance to an experience, they will not allow that experience to have an impact on their belief system because they will not actively process the experience in their mind. Hence, a higher level involvement with the experience would lead to higher attention given to the experience, followed by an amplified impact on the learning process. Swinyard (1993) found that involved shoppers have the tendency to magnify their evaluations of a shopping experience. For an involved consumer, a good experience would feel even better and a bad experience would feel worse. Although

Swinyard (1993) described involvement in terms of situation-dependent perceived risks of the shopper, we need to extend the idea of 'involvement with experience' to cover an overall importance that a consumer gives to brand experiences.

2.3 Relationship satisfaction

Relationship satisfaction is consumers' affective state resulting from an overall appraisal of their relationship with a retailer (J. C. Anderson & Narus 1990). Accumulation of consumption experience helps in development of customer-brand relationship (Evrard & Aurier 1996). Relationship satisfaction is cumulative in nature (De Wulf, Odekerken-Schröder, & Iacobucci 2001) that is generated slowly as the relationship develops (Sánchez-García, Moliner-Tena, Callarisa-Fiol, & Rodríguez-Artola 2007). Research has shown that when consumers have brand experiences, especially with sales personnel and the service scape, they face emotional experiences which help in building customer-brand relationship and satisfaction (Grace & O'Cass 2004; Chang & Chieng 2006; Ahearne, Jelinek, & Jones 2007; Yoo et al. 1998; Fournier 1998). These experiences develop a trait judgement about the brand's sincerity, competence and sophistication (Brakus et al. 2009). Hence, these experiences add human attributes to the brand and build relationships akin to inter-personal relationships. These relationships could be of varying quality and would have varying degrees of satisfaction. If consumers do not give importance to experience, they will not associate human traits to the brand and hence, not build interpersonal relationships with the brand. They may just remain at a transactional, functional relationship, with no emotional resonance. We need to deduce whether a consumer's involvement with experience will help in creating a satisfying relationship with the brand. This leads to our first hypothesis:

H1: Involvement with experience significantly influences satisfaction with relationship

2.4 Perceived functional value

Zeithaml (1988, p.14) defines value as "the overall assessment of the utility of a product based on the

perceptions of what is received and what is given." While transacting with any brand, a consumer will derive benefits in return of costs. Perceived value is the benefit-cost equation in the consumer's mind. Although the benefits and costs can be functional, emotional or imagery related, one articulation presented by Zeithaml (1988) is "Value is the quality I get for the price I pay" where quality is the "get" component and price is the "give" component of the value equation. Monroe (1990) also highlighted that consumers' perceived value is a trade-off equation between the perceived quality of the product relative to the perceived sacrifice of paying the price. Sweeney & Soutar (2001) categorize quality and price as functional elements of perceived value. Research in the field of services marketing has found that positive emotions evoked in service experiences positively relate to perceived value (Babin & Babin 2001; Chen & Chen 2010). Since the impact of emotions felt during an experience would depend on the involvement with the experience, we test our second hypothesis on whether the involvement with experience has an impact on perceived functional value:

H2: Involvement with experience significantly influences perceived functional value

2.5 Brand trust

Doney & Cannon (1997, p.37) define trust as the 'benevolence of the firm to act in the best interests of the customer'. Hence, personification of human traits of benevolence, care, reliability, safety, and honesty invokes trust in the brand. Doney & Cannon (1997) say that trust develops through the route of a prediction process where the consumer forecasts the brands' credibility and benevolence through evaluation of past experiences and relationship they have with the brand. Research in the industrial buying context shows that a salesperson develops trust among customers through repeatedly delivering on promises (Doyle & Roth 1992; Swan & Nolan 1985). Research has shown that courtship behaviour between two parties, through relationship development, leads to growth in trust (Shapiro, Sheppard, & Cheraskin 1992). A plethora of studies have shown that satisfaction with relationship is an antecedent of trust (R. E. Anderson & Srinivasan

2003; Bloemer & Odekerken-Schroder 2002; Delgado Ballester & Luis Munuera Alemán 2001; Garbarino & Johnson 1999; Singh & Sirdeshmukh 2000). Hence, we present our next hypothesis:

H3: Relationship satisfaction significantly influences Brand trust

Trust contains aspects of benevolence where the brand is seen as acting in the best interests of the customer and showing genuine interest in consumer welfare (Ganesan & Hess 1997). The best interests of the customer lie in maximizing customer value. Since perceived value is a benefit-cost equation in the consumer's mind, these perceptions of benefits and costs can have an influence on trust. Morgan & Hunt (1994) say that the benefits of a relationship are antecedents of trust. Singh & Sirdeshmukh (2000) propose that elements of perceived value influences trust. They consider that service quality influences perceptions of brand honesty, while price influences perception of benevolence. Research in the context of healthcare services has also shown that the perceived value of a hospital positively influences the patient's trust in the hospital (Moliner, 2009). Hence, this leads to our fourth hypotheses:

H4: Perceived functional value significantly influences Brand trust

2.6 Program loyalty

Brands offer loyalty programs in order to maintain loyalty of high profit customers. Although many customers enrol themselves in loyalty programs, not all of them develop a strong loyalty towards the program. There are two types of loyalties exhibited by a customer, namely, program loyalty and company loyalty. Yi & Jeon (2003) define program loyalty as having a positive attitude towards the loyalty program based on the perceived benefits of the program. They found that high involvement with product category leads to higher perceived value of the program. Evanschitzky et al. (2012) found that program special treatment, program social benefits and program value have a significant impact on program loyalty. We would like to extend this idea further and test the

influence of involvement with experience on program loyalty. Hence, our next hypothesis is:

H5: Involvement with experience significantly influences Program Loyalty

2.7 Loyalty intention

Oliver (1999, p.34) defines brand loyalty as:

A deeply held commitment to rebuy or re-patronize a preferred product/ service consistently in the future, thereby causing repetitive same-brand or same brand-set purchasing, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behaviour.

A plethora of studies have shown that trust influences a consumer's propensity of commitment (Dwyer, Schurr, & Oh 1987; Watson & Papamarcos 2002; Morgan & Hunt 1994; Aryee, Budhwar, & Zhen Xiong Chen 2002), and the tendency to stay in a relationship (E. Anderson & Weitz 1992). Furthermore, high levels of trust lead to higher price tolerance among customers, where the customer is willing to pay higher prices for the brand (Delgado Ballester & Luis Munuera Alemán 2001). It is also found that the impact of trust on building loyalty is strengthened in the presence of high involvement (Delgado Ballester & Luis Munuera Alemán 2001). Hence, we propose our next hypothesis:

H6: Brand Trust significantly influences Loyalty Intention

Herscovitch & Meyer (2002) say that affective commitment develops when an individual becomes actively involved and recognizes the value-relevance of a relationship. This commitment is fostered through positive experiences and perceptions of 'support'. The interpersonal treatment received by a customer during service complaints has a significant impact on brand commitment (Tax, Brown, & Chandrashekar 1998). Research shows that a healthy customer-brand relationship invokes a sense of personal reciprocity among consumers, which enhances consumer's future purchase intentions (Wei-ping Wu, Chan, & Heng Hwa Lau 2008). Hence, this leads to our next hypothesis:

H7: Relationship satisfaction significantly influences Loyalty Intention

Shukla (2010) showed that service quality, service value, and satisfaction collectively influence behavioural intentions. A plethora of studies suggest that perceived value is a good predictor of repurchase intentions (Cronin Jr., Brady, & Hult 2000; Haemmoon 2000; Dodds, Monroe, & Grewal 1991; McDougall & Levesque 2000). Hence, we have the following hypothesis:

H8: Perceived functional value significantly influences Loyalty Intention

Loyalty program rewards enhance the value derived from the brand in terms of economic benefits and social benefits derived from special treatment (Evanschitzky et al. 2012). Research has shown a strong influence of loyalty programs on developing brand loyalty by creating switching barriers (Evanschitzky & Wunderlich 2006; Patterson & Smith 2003). Hence, we present our final hypothesis:

H9: Program Loyalty significantly influences Loyalty Intention

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 FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE

3. Method

3.1 Data Collection

A survey was conducted by a global consulting firm specialising in marketing analytics in collaboration with a major retail apparel brand in India to understand the perceptions and attitudes of their loyalty program members. The data was collected through online questionnaires sent to the loyalty program members. The questionnaire was designed by the consulting firm in collaboration with the lead author and validated with a pilot test before sharing with the participants.

A total of 950 survey responses were received. Nineteen (19) of these surveys could not be included due to incomplete questionnaires, resulting in 931 usable responses. Most of the participants were males (77 percent). The sample had a good representation of professionals (32 percent), business executives (33 percent) and students (23 percent). The rest were homemakers. Most of the participants were post-graduates (66 percent) and graduates (27 percent).

Convenience sampling was adopted by sending survey invites to the list of loyalty program members of the retail store chain. However, the focal brand for which consumers responded in the survey was not confined to this retail brand. Respondents were asked to choose a brand from among 7 product/service categories including - telecom, hotel, restaurant, apparel, airlines, watches/jewellery and credit cards - in which they were loyalty program members. Hence, the diversity in product category, demographics and large sample size of 931 respondents helps overcome sampling bias, thereby making the model more generalizable.

3.2 Survey Instrument and Measure Development

Existing scales were adapted to measure the variables and constructs defined in the theoretical model. All questionnaire items were taken from previous studies, and the wordings were adapted to fit the context of this study.

Involvement with Experience: Since this is a new construct that is not already present in the literature, we adopted Zaichkowsky's (1985) item of importance as a measure of involvement. We measured the importance given by customers towards experiences when using/ shopping at their favourite brand through a set of statements administered on a seven-point Likert scale with 1=Strongly disagree and 7= Strongly agree. A similar adaptation of Zaichkowsky's involvement scale has been done in a recent study on shopping experience involvement in the online context by Kim, Fiore and Lee (2007).

The items related to brand perceptions and behavioural intentions were also administered on a seven-point Likert scale with 1=Strongly disagree and 7= Strongly agree. The construct of perceived value focused on functional value of quality and price (Sweeney & Soutar 2001). Furthermore, we captured satisfaction with relationship by administering a set of statements on a seven-point Likert scale with 1=Completely dissatisfied and 7=Completely satisfied. The measure of Brand Trust included dimensions of perceived honesty (Kumar, Scheer, & Steenkamp 1995; Sánchez-García et al. 2007) and credibility in terms of feeling safe (Gurviez & Korchia 2003).

The list of question items (indicators) is summarized in Table 1.

TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE

4. Results

In order to test the models and the hypotheses, we undertook structural equation modelling (SEM) using Maximum Likelihood Estimation in AMOS. We followed the two-step process of structural equation modelling (SEM). Firstly, we evaluated the fit of the measurement model using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), followed by the evaluation the fit of the structural model (Lomax & Schumacker 2012).

4.1 Measurement model

After minor modification for cross loading and non-loading items, all constructs achieved acceptable levels of convergent and discriminant validity. To verify the convergent validity of the constructs, we performed a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The loadings of each item for the respective constructs in the model are statistically significant (see Table 1), and exceed the recommended benchmark of 0.7, indicating item reliability (Hulland 1999). Based on the recommendations of Hu & Bentler (1998), we meet the criteria of acceptable model fit with SRMR<0.08 and TLI>0.9. Also, in accordance with the recommendations of Byrne (1994), the value of NFI

exceeds 0.9 and CFI exceeds 0.93. RMSEA is within the acceptable limit of 0.08 (Kline 2011). ($\chi^2(141)= 345.05$ CMIN/df= 2.45, NFI=0.97, IFI=0.98, TLI=0.98, CFI= 0.98, RMSEA=0.045, SRMR =0.037).

The testing of convergent validity (the degree of association between measures of a construct) and composite reliability (the internal consistency of the indicators) showcased satisfactory results (J. C. Anderson & Gerbing 1988). Since the average variance extracted (AVE) for each construct is above 0.5 (Table 2), the measurement model exhibits convergent validity (Fornell & Larcker 1981). Composite reliability (CR) exceeds the threshold level of 0.70 (Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Mena 2012), for each construct (Table 2). Hence, the CR and AVE tests indicate that the validity of both the construct and the individual variables is high (Bagozzi, Yi, & Phillips 1991; Dillon & Goldstein 1984). We empirically tested the discriminant validity (i.e., the degree to which items of constructs are distinct) by checking whether the square root of the AVE exceeds the correlation between every pair of latent variables (Table 2). Empirical results indicate that discriminant validity is achieved for all constructs in this model.

There is a potential concern of a common method bias when the dependent and the independent variables are collected from the same source. Hence, based on a test suggested by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff (2003), we loaded all the items on to a common factor and conducted CFA. The Chi-square difference was then compared with the results of the CFA with the measurement model. Chi-square difference test was significant with $\chi^2(15)$ difference = 6603 (p<.001), showing the measurement model to be superior to common-factor model. Hence, we infer that common method bias is not a concern.

TABLE 2 ABOUT HERE

4.2 Structural model

After confirming the validity and reliability of the constructs, we test the conceptual model and

hypotheses (Figure 1) using Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) using AMOS. The fit indices reveal a good fit of the conceptual model. It meets the criteria of acceptable model fit with SRMR<0.08, TLI>0.9 (Hu & Bentler 1998) and RMSEA < 0.08 (Kline 2011). Also, in accordance with the recommendations of Byrne (1994), the value of NFI exceeds 0.9 and CFI exceeds 0.93. ($\chi^2(221)= 926.13$, NFI=0.94, IFI=0.96, TLI=0.95, CFI= 0.96, RMSEA=0.07, Standardized RMR = 0.08).

Results of Hypothesis Testing: The regression coefficients for every path are presented in Table 3. Our findings strongly support all hypotheses except H9.

The first and second hypotheses state that a customer’s level of involvement with experience has a significant impact on consumer’s response towards the brand in terms of relationship satisfaction (H1) and perceived functional value (H2). As shown in Table 3, the findings indicate that Involvement with Experience significantly influences Relationship Satisfaction ($\beta=0.843$, $p<0.001$) and Perceived Functional Value ($\beta=0.853$, $p<0.001$). These two constructs in turn induce customer’s trust in the brand. Findings support the hypotheses (H3 and H4) that Brand Trust is significantly influenced by Relationship Satisfaction ($\beta=0.662$, $p<0.001$) and Perceived Functional Value ($\beta=0.338$, $p<0.001$).

As hypothesized (H6, H7 and H8), Loyalty Intention is significantly influenced by Brand Trust ($\beta=0.702$, $p<0.001$) and also by Relationship Satisfaction ($\beta=0.215$, $p<0.001$) and Perceived Functional Value ($\beta=0.115$, $p<0.001$). We also find that Involvement with Experience has a significant impact on Program Loyalty (H5: $\beta=0.438$, $p<0.001$). However, we do not see a significant impact of Program Loyalty on Loyalty Intention towards the brand (H9: $\beta=0.017$, not significant).

TABLE 3 ABOUT HERE

5. Discussion

5.1 Summary of Results

Consumers are exposed to multiple brand experiences that have the potential to influence brand perception and attitude. This study seeks to answer the question on whether there is any mechanism within the consumer’s mind that determines the propensity of influence that brand experiences can have on them. This paper introduces the construct of ‘Involvement with Experience’ as a measure of the level of importance that a consumer gives to experiences while shopping and using the brand. These experiences include non-product related elements like behaviour of store personnel, store ambience, response time, etc. This construct can be used to profile consumers as ‘low involvement’ and ‘high involvement’ in terms of their sensitivity towards experiential elements. We propose that low involvement consumers do not give substantial importance to peripheral elements of shopping or consumption experiences. Their focus is largely confined to pure functional or price related aspects of the product. On the other hand, a high involvement consumer would be highly sensitive to experiential elements, leading to active mental processing of positive or negative shopping experiences. For high involvement consumers, a good experience is felt to be even better and a bad experience feels worse, thereby amplifying the impact on brand attitude. Hence, we propose that ‘Involvement with Experience’ would act like a filter that would regulate the impact of brand experiences on consumer’s attitude towards the brand.

In this study, we explored how a consumer’s involvement with experience leads to brand loyalty by influencing brand perceptions and attitude. The results indicate that involvement with experience has a significant impact on consumer’s satisfaction with the relationship they have with the brand. A relationship is a two-way process where two people or entities are connected with each other. Research has shown that brand experiences lead to association of human traits with the brand, thereby leading to

development of customer-brand relationship (Chang & Chieng 2006). When a consumer is involved with brand experiences, he would tend to look at his interaction with the brand akin to an inter-personal relationship instead of a mere economic transaction. This study emphasizes that such relationship-building through experiences would occur only when the consumer is highly involved with the experience. A low involvement consumer, who tends to ignore the experiential elements, would not perceive the brand as 'human' and would remain at an economic transactional stage.

This study also shows that involvement with experience has a strong influence on perceived functional value of the brand. Perceived functional value is a quality-price equation within the consumer's mind. We propose that a consumer, who is highly involved with experiences, would tend to include experiential elements in his value equation. For him, positive experiences would translate to higher quality perceptions. He would account for experiential elements to justify the price he is paying for the brand. On the other hand, a low involvement consumer would not include experiential elements in his value equation. He would confine quality perceptions to functional product features.

Involvement with experience has a positive influence on relationship satisfaction and perceived functional value, which in turn builds brand trust. Trust is developed when the consumer believes that the brand has his best interests in mind. Trust is also akin to inter-personal relationships like friendship or parenthood which have elements of benevolence, affinity, safety and honesty. Since involvement with experience tends to create associations of human traits with the brand and perceptions of higher quality, consumers would tend to believe that the brand has their best interests in mind, thereby leading to brand trust. We also found that, in the presence of involvement with experience, brand trust; relationship satisfaction and perceived functional value have a positive impact on loyalty intention. Hence, a high involvement consumer can

develop brand loyalty through experiences whereas; a low involvement consumer may not develop brand trust and brand loyalty through experiences.

Another dimension in this study is Loyalty Program. Results indicate that involvement with experience has a significant impact on a consumer's loyalty towards the loyalty program. A high involvement consumer would tend to give higher levels of importance to the experiential benefits associated with his loyalty program membership. On the other hand, a low involvement consumer may not display significant interest in the loyalty program. He may perceive his membership to be nominal, without any tangible benefits.

5.2 Managerial implications

In the retail context, all shoppers are not the same. As marketers, we segment consumers based on their demographic, psychographics or product needs and customize offerings to suit each segment. Similarly, we need to conduct shopper segmentation based on their involvement and expectations from experiential elements in the retail environment. There may be two consumers who share the same demographic and product need profile. However, both of them may be different types of 'shoppers'. One person may be highly sensitive to the demeanour of the sales staff whereas another person may be indifferent. Retail brands need to optimize their marketing mix and service scape to positively influence different types of shoppers. A high involvement consumer has the potential to impact the mood of his co-shoppers, especially during negative experiences. Hence, it becomes important for retailers to identify high involvement consumers to ensure offering of optimal levels of experience. For example, in the retail outlet, the service personnel can prioritize services to high involvement shoppers and provide them bundled offerings including experiential elements at a premium. On the other hand, for a low involvement consumer, investing in high levels of experiential elements may lead to overspending of resources. A one-size-fits-all strategy may not work among

shoppers. Shoppers who are low on involvement with experiences may give higher importance to offers, communications and other product elements and the retail brand manager needs to plan accordingly.

In practice, it would be challenging to directly decipher whether a customer walking into a store has a high or a low involvement with experience. Service firms can conduct periodic market research studies among regular customers to gauge patterns of involvement with experience and determine correlates with identifiable demographic and usage patterns across customers, price tiers and product categories. This would help firms in creating more nuanced profiling of consumers. Although challenging for discrete services, the involvement levels can be easily tracked for customers and loyalty program members of continuous services like telecom through periodic surveys and in-store or mobile app-based field experiments.

5.3 Limitations and Future Research

This research has several limitations which also translate to potential avenues for future research. Firstly, our sample was confined to loyalty program members of a premium apparel retail brand which is demographically skewed towards premium consumers. Future research can be conducted on a more diversified sample across different socio-economic groups and among different product categories to attain generalizability. It would be worthwhile replicating this study among high involvement product categories like consumer durables and automobiles. Also, it would be interesting to explore dimensions of involvement with experience in the context of online retail.

The second limitation is that loyalty was captured at an attitudinal level and not at a behavioural level. Future research can include actual purchase and repurchase behaviour data to study the impact of involvement with experience on behavioural loyalty. The third limitation in this study is that the path model initiates with the construct of 'involvement with experience' and the actual experience of sense, feel, think, act,

relate (Schmitt 1999) has not been measured. Future research can use direct measures of experience as antecedents for the involvement with experience construct to empirically establish the mediation role of the involvement construct. Additionally, further antecedents and drivers of involvement with experience can be explored to find out the possible ways of identifying, increasing or decreasing a consumer's level of involvement with experience. Some interesting dimensions that can potentially be explored are the psychological, social and contextual factors that determine a person's tendency of involvement with experience. For instance, a person whose locus of control is external; or a person with narcissist tendency; or a person who is shopping with a significant person in his reference group would tend to give high importance to how other people behave with him in a public place and hence be highly sensitive to behaviour of sales staff at a store. Furthermore, research can explore differences in involvement patterns with different elements of brand experiences in different contexts. A longitudinal study can be conducted to study how involvement levels can change with time and their impact on loyalty. Since this study explores the path to loyalty through high involvement with experience, further research can be conducted to explore the alternate path to loyalty among low involvement consumers. Since a new construct of 'involvement with experience' has been introduced in this study, we encourage future research to further develop the scale for measuring this construct and to explore dynamic facets surrounding this construct.

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Table 1: The Measurement Items

Constructs	Items	Loadings
Involvement with Experience (Zaichkowsky, 1985; Day, Stafford & Camacho 1995; Arnold and Reynolds, 2003; Kim, et al. 2007)	My experience while using/ shopping is very important to me	0.801
	Service & Experience is more important to me than communication	0.668
	Service & Experience is more important to me than offers	0.721
	My good experiences make me want to continue using the brand	0.815
	I would like to be recognized and treated as a special customer	0.771
Relationship Satisfaction (De Wulf et al., 2001; Cronin Jr. et al., 2000)	I am satisfied with the relationship I have with the brand	0.797
	I am happy with the efforts the brand is making towards me	0.698
	My decision to purchase the brand was a wise one	0.935
Perceived Functional Value (Zeithaml, 1988; Bolton & Drew, 1991) – Based on the functional dimension of quality & price (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001).	The product quality is worth the money I am paying for this brand	0.919
	The quality of the service is worth the money that I am paying for this brand	0.879
Brand Trust (De Wulf et al., 2001; Kumar, Scheer, & Steenkamp, 1995; Gurviez & Korchia, 2003)	I trust the brand	0.923
	This is an honest brand	0.939
	I feel safe using this brand	0.937
Program Loyalty (Evanschitzky et al., 2012)	I tend to choose this brand more than others because I am a loyalty program member	0.746
	I buy more of/ at the brand because of my membership	0.781
	I recommend the brand more to others because of my membership	0.812
	My complaints are handled quicker and better by the brand because of my membership	0.856
	I like the brand's loyalty program more than others	0.849
	I feel good about the brand because of my membership	0.857
	I get better service because of my membership	0.901
Loyalty Intention (Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1996)	I will buy the same brand next time	
	I will recommend this brand to others	
	I intend to keep buying/ using this brand	
	I am willing to pay higher price for this brand	

Notes: All items for all constructs except Satisfaction with Relationship were measured on a 7-point Likert scale, where 1=Strongly Disagree and 7=Strongly Agree.

All items in the Satisfaction with Relationship construct were measured on a 7-point Likert scale, where 1=Completely Dissatisfied and 7=Completely Satisfied.

Table 2: Convergent and Discriminant Validity Statistics

Convergent Validity Statistics			Discriminant Validity Statistics				
Constructs	CR	AVE	Perceived Functional Value	Involvement with experience	Relationship Satisfaction	Brand Trust	Program Loyalty
Perceived Functional Value	0.894	0.809	0.899				
Involvement with experience	0.870	0.573	0.489	0.757			
Relationship Satisfaction	0.855	0.666	0.783	0.562	0.816		
Brand Trust	0.953	0.871	0.772	0.628	0.779	0.933	
Program Loyalty	0.939	0.689	0.315	0.225	0.297	0.209	0.830

Notes: The measurement items/questions refer to Table 1.

CR – Composite Reliability

AVE – Average Variance Explained

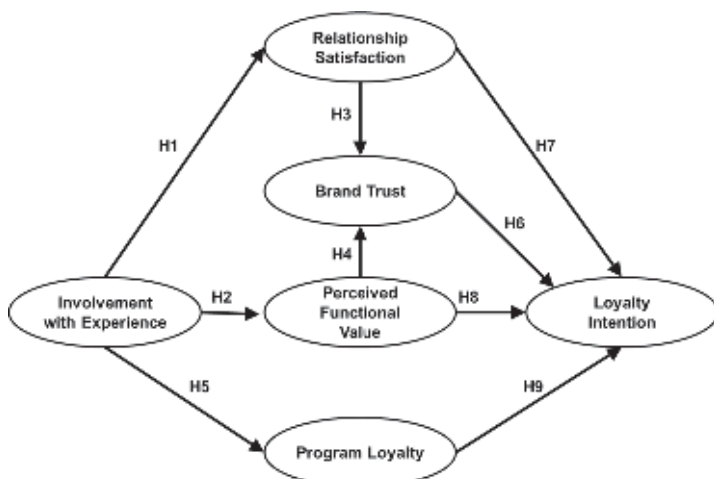
Table 3: Coefficients Reported for the Model

Effects	Causes	Model Regression Weights	Hypotheses
Relationship Satisfaction	Involvement with Experience	0.843***	H1 (Y)
Perceived Functional Value	Involvement with Experience	0.853***	H2 (Y)
Brand Trust	Relationship Satisfaction	0.662***	H3 (Y)
	Perceived Value	0.338***	H4 (Y)
Program Loyalty	Involvement with Experience	0.438***	H5 (Y)
Loyalty Intention	Brand Trust	0.702***	H6 (Y)
	Relationship Satisfaction	0.215***	H7 (Y)
	Perceived Value	0.115***	H8 (Y)
	Program Loyalty	0.017 ^{n.s}	H9 (N)

*** p<0.001; n.s. = Not Significant

Y – Support obtained for hypothesis

N – Support not obtained for hypothesis



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The Magical and Dis-Storying Worlds of Indian Institutes of Management: Shaping De-Politicised Students

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Abstract

The Indian Institutes of Management (IIMs) are regarded as institutions of excellence with respect to higher education in India. While the IIMs are reluctant to classify themselves as business schools, several elements such as fees, pedagogy, curriculum and outcomes mirror the organisational forms of business schools. We explore the experiences of seventy five students from two IIMs from a phenomenological lens to extend the critique of the business school. We find that the IIM embodies a magical world which fixes the student in the binary between the ordinary and the extraordinary, thereby producing de-politicised guilt and binding her to conservative authority structures. The IIM also acts as a de-storying agent as it robs students of intimacy with ordinariness and prevents them from accessing the implicit meanings of the stories that are being scripted around them.

Keywords: Business School, Dis-storying, IIMs, India, Magical

1. Introduction

The Government of India helped establish Indian Institutes of Management (IIMs) in the postcolonial aftermath of independence to shape management professionals who would contribute to the public sector and the corporate world in India. The IIMs in Ahmedabad and Kolkata were established in the 1960s, while the one in Bengaluru and Lucknow followed in the 1970s and 1980s. The IIMs in Ahmedabad, Bengaluru and Kolkata are regarded as top ranking management institutes in India, and every year approximately two lakh students appear for a common admission test to compete for a few thousand seats across the IIMs in India. Two more IIMs were established in the 1990s in Indore and Kozhikode while several more IIMs were established in the 2000s and 2010s to take the total number of IIMs to twenty. In public imagination, the IIMs have emerged as institutions of excellence that stand in contrast to public universities which are seen as stagnating spaces

riddled by political interference, mediocrity and crumbling standards (Chidambaram, 2017, February 27; Sethna, 2015, June 26).

Several IIMs want to describe themselves as management institutes and not as business schools to outline that they are not merely focused on serving the corporate world, but can make management contributions that are connected to India's social reality (Sharma, 2015, November 22). Yet contemporary reality indicates that the IIMs mirror business schools in their organisation, fee structure, pedagogy and outcomes. The academic units inside the IIMs are centred around business functions such as finance, marketing, operations and human resource management. The IIMs charge a steep fee of anywhere than 1.6 million rupees to 2.2 million rupees for their two year full-time management programs, and most students have to take an education loan to finance their education ('IIM-Ahmedabad raises PGP fees', 2018, March 25). Media attention also centres around the

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corporate jobs and the compensation that outgoing graduates of the IIMs receive, to the extent that IIM jobs are even seen as an index of economic mood among corporations (Kurup, 2010, March 15).

The newer IIMs which have been established in the 2000s and 2010s are not seen as exemplifying the same standards of excellence as the older IIMs and students also have concerns about whether they will get well-paying corporate jobs in these IIMs (Kaushik, 2016, December 4). We feel that it is useful to examine the experiences of students in IIMs to understand how the discursive logic of the business school shapes them. We feel that there are two reasons for trying to understand the experiences of students in IIMs. First, since students pay a steep fee, they are likely to experience vulnerabilities and insecurities about repaying education loans (Adamson, 2009; Federici and Caffentzis, 2007). Second, several researchers have critiqued the business school as being an organisational form that exacerbates inequalities and market linked violence (Beyes and Michels, 2011; Bureau and Komporozos-Athanasidou, 2017; Dunne, Harney, Parker and Tinker, 2008), and in this context, it will be useful to pay attention to the subjectivities shaped by the IIMs in India.

While critiquing the business school, Learmonth and Humphreys (2011) suggest that the business school produces contradictory subjectivities that pull the self in different directions. They present the business school as a corrosive site where concerns of instrumentalism and careerism dominate, and the quest for poetic inquiries becomes difficult. In this light, we believe that there are two important issues that need to be addressed. First, while it has been pointed out that the business school provides a persuasive account of business and management being at the centre of contemporary life (Dunne, Harney and Parker, 2008), the discursive quality of the persuasiveness of the business school, particularly for students can be explored in greater depth. Second, while the moral indifference of business schools and the androidization of management has been highlighted (Srinivas, 1999) has been highlighted, it is useful to understand the rhetoric through which

students become initiated into worlds of ethical insignificance.

In order to explore both the issues raised above, we adopt a phenomenological lens (van Manen, 1998) to understand how students inhabit a shared experience of the IIM. We engaged in brief semi-structured conversations with seventy five students from two IIMs to understand their experiences of the IIM. One of these IIMs, IIM X is an older IIM, and many students have a dream of studying here. The other IIM, IIM Y is a new IIM that was established in 2015, and students of IIM Y have several concerns about their immediate careers and how they can craft their futures to reflect lives that are on par with expectations from IIM graduates. Through our conversations, we wanted to unearth the contradictions that IIM students experience and how they discursively account for them.

In undertaking this inquiry, we hope to make two theoretical contributions. First, we hope to outline the discursive processes through which students give consent to the business school amidst realities of financialisation of the education process (Adamson, 2009). We believe that the consent may not merely be linked to immediate futures, but may be linked to a long term ordering of life that has crucial implications for society. Second, we hope to show that being in a business school affects the narrative capacities of students so as to make them anxious beings who are caught between multiple binaries. While the business school makes promises of enhancing the human capital efficacy of students (Patriotta and Starkey, 2008), we believe that business students may suffer some loss of narrative abilities as a result of being entrenched in the business school.

Through this study, we want to animate the inquiry of the business school by paying attention to the experiences of actors within the business school. While the business school is presented as a villain that normalises corporate extraction (Parker, 2014), there might be more to the promise of the business school than the promise of a fulfilling career. The business school may embody sinister imaginations that trap

subjects between tensions from which they may find it difficult to extricate themselves. They may not be able to emerge as political actors who have the ability to confront, challenge and engage in poetic and romantic conversations. In this study, we want to understand what the business school does to students in the name of transforming them.

2. Theoretical Framework: The Magical and the De-Storyed Worlds of the business school

Bergson (1913) contends that the emphasis on spatial metaphors is often problematic as several concepts cannot be articulated in the form of distinct spatial tropes. Many tropes invoking magical metaphors particularly evade the possibility of being described through spaces. Pfaller (1998) describes the very possibility of civilisation as a magical act as the contemporary world is shaped by several injustices, and yet claims of civilisation are very easily made in it. One of the symbols of civilisation in contemporary times is the business school which enjoys a place of importance within academia and the university (Dunne et al., 2008). The business school also evokes the atmosphere of magic with its claims of structuring radical transformations in the lives of students.

Walz, Hingston and Andehn (2014) describe the magical act of a site as its capacity to construct identities that dislocate subjects from the worlds they inhabit while feeling narcissistically glorious about the dislocation. While the glory experienced by subjects may be described in the form of the intensity with which they experience transformation in their identities, Bergson (1913) questions the possibility of ordering intensities in terms of magnitude. According to Bergson, rather than magnitude, intensities are questions of quality, and many times, differences in quality are mistaken to be differences in magnitude. The magical dislocation orchestrated by the business school is likely to produce a different quality of political subjectivity than immersion in community as a discovery of the negotiated quest for justice. Parker (2014) describes how the business school embodies the subjectivity of subordination to industrial capitalism

and the institutionalisation of local hierarchies of managerialism.

The magical act of the business school exists in normalising the quest of becoming the number one in fields of action (Parker, 2014). Within the world of the business school, the act of becoming the number one magically displaces people from their pasts as they chart the terrain of crafting glorious futures. The imagination of the glorious may itself lie in our ability to distinguish between more and less (Bergson, 1913). The prowess of magical action may not merely lie in mediating a subject from less to more, but merely producing a symbolic activity that stands as a proxy for the subject transiting from the less to the more (Pfaller, 1998). The business school embodies a magical world as it embodies symbolic activity of helping people find glorious futures and a place in a materially enriched world.

In a pragmatic sense, the business school is embedded in an extractive economy where people learn to normalise the extractive and instrumental behaviours they engage in (Parker, 2015). While the outcome of managerial work may often be violence and moral degeneration, the business school symbolises a magical transformation of students into professionals who inhabit a glamorous world (Learmonth and Humphreys, 2011). The glamour of the business school is particularly salient in a developing economy like India where the media becomes quickly obsessed with the salaries that business school graduates earn at the time of graduation. Pfaller (1998) contends that civilisation inserts people into an imagination where they are no longer aware of the magical qualities of the rituals which shape them. The symbolic activity of the business school nurtures a similar amnesia about its magical capacities as people forget the realities of extraction.

People almost come to believe that just being inside the business school, they have been transformed into more useful and celebratable figures for corporations (Beyes and Michels, 2011). Being celebratable by the

¹All names have been anonymised in this study to protect the confidentiality of participants.

extraction centred discourse of the corporation is seen as a normalised activity. The easy ways in which the business school becomes a celebrated and magical site could be a result of people's inability to distinguish between different experiences. Bergson (1913) points out that experiences are embedded in locally situated material worlds and historical realities, and people often do not account for these differences. Being negligent of historical realities and deep memories of experiences enables people to accept the magical behaviours of sites such as business schools as rationalised actions (Harney, 2007).

Pfaller (1998) describes how people distance themselves from their histories and material realities to acquire symbolic privileges. Pfaller describes how the mere symbolic act of having bought several books is seen as a form of acquiring intellectual scholarship. The symbolic act of purchasing books acts as a magical proxy for the arduous labour of actually reading the books. The business school may perform similar magical operations as it may bestow intellectual legitimacy on students without making them perform the arduous labour of comprehending the contradictions of corporations (Patriotta and Starkey, 2008). The business school may simply assert that it transforms the capacity of students to contribute to the economic world and earn higher salaries without enabling students to reflect critically and poetically about the inequalities we inhabit (Fleming and Oswick, 2014).

One of the ways in which the business school escapes the question of inequalities is by responsabilising people to hold themselves individually accountable for their destinies. Bergson (1913) contends that people's understanding of intensity is connected to how they sense the world around them. The sensory understanding of the world is associated with the spirit of responsabilisation as sensations are divorced from the negotiated shapes we give to politics, culture and emotions. Many of these negotiated shapes are narrated through stories whose meanings are never fully decidable. One of the ways the business school can engage in the glossing over of inequalities through the discourse of responsabilisation is by acting as a de-storying site.

We understand de-storying as the reduction of complex meanings embodied in storied reconstructions of the world to simple sensory perceptions. These simple sensory perceptions are often related to growth metaphors where individuals are called upon to take responsibility for their own survival and growth (Foucault, 1988). In contrast to de-storied forms of responsabilisation, stories contain several complex and unstated elements which can be unravelled in multiple ways (Feldman and Skoldberg, 2002). Feldman and Skoldberg indicate that stories contain several incomplete details and it is only when the audience participates in the craft of the story and takes on the narrative capacity to fill the incomplete details to persuade itself of the plausibility and meaning of the story, that the story assumes valence. In this sense, the business school may also be seen as a storying site as it involves the participation of society and working class subjects as an audience.

Social actors and working class subjects fill incomplete details about narratives of the business school to make it a plausible, meaning making site. However, in the knowledge and pedagogical discussions staged inside the business school, working class concerns and issues of justice and equity are often absent (Dunne, Harney and Parker, 2008). Even when these issues make an appearance, they are largely for the purpose of advancing instrumental outcomes of greater economic efficacy (Bureau and Kompodoros-Athanasidou, 2017). There is an absence of the working class figure in the discourse of the business school and the construction of agency centres around becoming number one and the rationality of profit maximisation. The enchantment that the business school holds for policy makers and other social actors is precisely embedded in the amnesia it promises.

The business school promises that it will make people forget issues of inequality that prevails and transport them into a world where many of their desires are taken care of. The be-witchment of the business school is a result of its ability to make individuals who pass through it into de-storied beings. The individuals almost become androids committed to the framework of rational efficacy, and replace complex stories with

simple logics of efficiency or innovation (Srinivas, 1999). While the business school is embedded in the project of and roidisation, what may make working class subjects and other social actors to give latent consent to it, is its embedded ness within the university or the larger spirit of the academia. While training people to extract, the business school still masquerades as an academic site following rituals of admission, examination and convocation.

These rituals are magical by themselves, for instance, convocation involving the process of a group of experts certifying that students have acquired the knowledge to face the world. Yet the respect for the form of scholarship presents a veneer of legitimacy to the existence of the business school, where the content of extraction is presented as an area worthy of scholarly inquiry. Bergson (1913) points out that some forms of intensity are associated with deep-seated desires of people. The desire for becoming a business school graduate and a manager may be nurtured by deep-seated fantasies that corporations nurture about their ability to guarantee good lives. The business school may participate in this fantasy by hinting at fulfilling a deep-seated desire to enable graduates to become a part of the ruling elite.

While stories are also about the ignition of desires (Belsey, 2014), the desires engineered by the business school are merely a supplementary narrative of corporations. In fact, it is by making people forget other stories that are playing out in society that the business school is able to normalise managerial scholarship as a necessary index of corporations. The business school is immersed in the trope of recognition and presence, which is antithetical to the craft of storytelling where empathy transgresses recognition (Taylor, 2010). The business school's trope of recognition implies that identities need to be fixed, and thus actors need to be identified clearly, for instance, as consumers who are the sources of value for the corporation. On the other hand, stories about shifting identities, and the lack of assurance that the reader has in trying to search for nuances about characters and plots that transgress recognition.

3. Methods

Design

Firstly, the objective behind this exercise is not to find out the fears, stress and insecurities of college students in general. The objective is to look into the psyche of the students who are studying in the supposedly top management institutes of the country and are looking at a very secure future. In this context, we spoke to students from two different IIMs in India, IIM X and IIM Y. While IIM X is an older IIM, IIM Y is a newer IIM that was established in 2015.

Qualitative research demanded that the design of the process be more intimate and more inclusive. Phenomenology was adopted as the research strategy. This approach focuses on unravelling the linkages between experience and human consciousness. The research question was to grasp the essence of the experiences shared by the participants. Van Manen's phenomenology (1998) is an approach that studies problems as they are experienced and not conceptualized. It tries to engage with the meaning making processes connected to the experiences of people. The Van Manen research approach is centred around six activities. First, the attempt is to engage with the phenomena by accessing experiences of people connected to the phenomena. Then, an attempt is made to reconstruct the phenomena by focusing on the nature of shared experiences among different people.

Writing is central to unravelling the relationship between phenomena, consciousness and experience. The connections between phenomena, consciousness and experiences are located in the tensions and contradictions that people experience. Rather than being anomalies, tensions are productive in shaping nuanced understandings of the phenomena.

The interviewers had an ontological privilege while carrying out this study. They had gone through the very same experience as the potential participants had, as they were also students in different IIMs. The

interviewers had spent a year with the interviewees and thus the interviewers inhabited the same universe of shared experience as the interviewees. The interviewers tried to approach informants from beyond their immediate friend circles in order to access different fragments of the experience.

It was decided to tell the chosen participants about the research beforehand and help them with a basic understanding of what we intended to. In keeping with Van Manen's (1998) suggestion, the tool applied to gather narrative material was conversational interviews. A semi-structured personal interview was designed, and the interviewee had the option of leading and taking the interview in any direction that they wanted. The interview questions evoked both positive and negative indices of the culture of IIMs. The follow-up questions were asked based on the interviewee's responses. The duration of an interview was 25 minutes on an average. The interview was conducted in the dorms of the respondents. This was done to make sure that they were comfortable and were able to speak freely. The conversations did not follow a sequence of questions and depended on the direction in which the informants were steering the interviews.

Participants

As per the phenomenological approach, the participants in the study must be the people who have experienced the phenomena. In order to structure some plurality in the research design, we interviewed participants who had undertaken summer internship in different domains such as finance, marketing, consulting, consulting, general management. An attempt was made to include a proper ratio of students who sat out of the summer placement process, and five such students were interviewed. We tried to be close to the representative characteristics of the population while interviewing students. About 90 % of the students interviewed were engineers. 20% of the participants had a master's degree, and the rest of the participants were graduates.

Around 40% of the informants did not have any previous work experience, which is close to the actual reality about the batch. A total 35 students were chosen from IIM X to be a part of the research. Their ages ranged from twenty-two to twenty-six years. All interviews were conducted in English. The ratio of male to female students was also reflective of the batch (31:4).

A total of 40 students from IIM Y were part of this research. These students had come for a term to study at IIM X. Their experience was valuable as they could describe their experiences about an IIM which had been established just a year ago and thus could potentially describe issues which could be different from how an older IIM is experienced. All students interviewed were male and their ages varied from 22 to 28 years. All the students were engineers and from different regions of the country, eight students did not have prior work experience, and the rest had an average work experience of around 2.5 years in varied fields.

Data Analysis

Thematic analysis as mentioned by Van Manen (1998) was used for analysing the data. The sententious approach (Van Manen, 1998) was used where the initial focus was on the individual transcript. We attempted to discover the core meaning of each transcript. We then tried to identify common themes across transcripts. We read the transcripts to understand the varied experiences of participants in the IIMs. Participants were constantly oscillating between stress and respite in terms of the way they described their experiences.

We used the approach suggested by Miles and Huberman (1984) to articulate the experiences of participants in the form of semantic labels. We were trying to create a network of meanings which describe the experiences of informants. Networks were developed at the level of individual informants to focus on specific aspects of their experience. We then identified themes that revolved around the core

meanings of participants (Van Manen, 1998). We read the transcripts repeatedly to identify the themes. We found that some participants and parts of their text were more evocative than others. Once we had read all the transcripts, we standardized the labels and categories across all the transcripts.

4. Findings

We articulate our narratives in the form of two thematic tropes. First, we discuss how the IIMs embody magical worlds which dislocate students from their contexts and promise them an utopian world of wealth, power and fame. Students begin to believe that there are living in a fairy land and nurture anxieties of retaining a foothold in their magical dreams so as to not become undeserving of studying in an IIM. Second, we discuss how the IIMs act as de-storying entities as students are unable to access the complex stories that are being staged around them. Instead, they are consumed by the primary anxiety of not being late in achieving success as they try to mime formulae which outline that tropes of success.

Fairy lands and retaining a foothold in magical dreams

People are invested in the spaces they inhabit as they try to create a network of meanings around them. The opportunity to study in a leading IIM may create the imagination of inhabiting a fairy land, and becoming a part of a magical people. In the aftermath of such an imagination of space, people may experience a painful anxiety to continue retaining a foothold in magical dreams.

A participant (24, male) remarked,

A student of IIM X, for example, must go to a US university like Harvard or Stanford for higher studies. His achievements have redefined his criteria of success.

Once the student imagines IIM X as a fairy land, the anxiety is to travel to a more extraordinary world. Harvard or Stanford become a magical imaginary for reproducing the enchantment in which the IIM X student is located. The IIM X student is constantly struggling to ensure that she does not slip from a

magical dream to the reality of an ordinary world. IIM students are discursively producing the binary between ordinariness and extraordinariness, the dichotomy between the messiness of reality and the fantasy of magical bliss. They recognize the magical as the conjuring of a material excess that smuggles people from the present to a more fantastic future. The production of such a binary paradoxically negates the very possibility of the magical as the magical forever appears out of grasp.

Another participant (26, male) pointed out,

You cannot keep on earning the same salary that made you successful a decade ago and call yourself successful even if that salary is as high as 10 million dollars.

The magical as the quest for an ever more extraordinary salary poses troubling questions about the de-politicised imaginaries that IIM students inhabit. There is no contemplation about where the more is likely to come from. There is no realization that the more could come from the hunger and poverty of others.

Retaining a foothold in magical dreams involves producing descriptions of the ordinary. These descriptions of the ordinary are laced with commentaries of contempt and inadequacy. While the language of adequacy appears to mark the magical as an escape from the ordinary, paradoxically, adequacy signals the breakdown of the magical into the monotony of the ordinary.

A participant (24, male) mentioned,

Success is defined by societal norms. It is categorized according to the age of the person. Doing a certain degree like an MBA from a prestigious institute between the ages of 20 to 30 is a success but not if you are 35 or 40. Similarly having a big house in the forties is a success. Having a big house at the age of 60 isn't.

The IIM student thus indexes the magical with the

monotony of age and societal norms. While the student describes 'having a big house in the forties' as a success, the student's imagination does not cross over into what might be a success at the age of 60. It is almost as if magic stops with the reality of ageing, and the student is unable to imagine what might constitute the fantastic at an older age.

The limits to imagining the magical are also bound to other authority figures. While having articulated themselves as a magical people, IIM students find it difficult to break from conservative moral orders. They are still bound by the subjectivity of appearing as dutiful figures whose norms of desirability are structured by others.

A participant (24, female) stated,

How others perceive my achievements is crucial, especially my parents. You are not successful if you are the only one believing that you are successful.

The participant is unable to imagine the romantic rebelliousness of challenging parental authority. The participant's magical world is bound by the validation of parents. The fantasy of belonging to a fairy land does nothing to counteract the temporality of being a child, outlining the elongation of childhood into the IIM.

IIM students are aware of the contradictions of their existence, the possible dystopia of the magical lands they imagine. They are aware of the long hours of work that may be demanded of them and the erosion of life that such long hours embody. They articulate the magical hope of evading such long hours of work while continuing to do the minimum that may be required to exist within magical lands.

A participant (26, female) said,

I saw people punching 18 or 20 hours a day. They were highly earning managers in their mid-forties. I realized that I am not going to spend my life like this.

The participant believes that a choice can be exercised to avoid working 18 hours a day. The language of choice is implicated in an accountant's imagination of life, as the participant talks about 'not going to spend my life like this.' The participant is not talking about 'not going to live my life like this', signalling that the binary between the magical and the ordinary has negated the very possibility of living.

Life is reduced to a series of hurdles that need to be overcome or goals that need to be achieved. The language of goals outlines that inhabiting the magical continues to remain a site of disorder, and IIM students struggle to arrest the disorder by imposing the order of goals. The subject caught in the throes of a goal is imprisoned by the imagination of the future time when she will be released from the passions of the goal.

A participant (22, male) commented,

You have certain expectations, and you need to go beyond your self-created hurdles. You set a goal for yourself; it could be winning a match or passing an exam. You put your heart in it and if you can do it, you are successful.

The goal consumes the heart of the participant as the 'you can do it' trope marks the ethics of agency. 'Winning a match or passing an exam' become the prime metaphors of life outlining the magical's inability to transform life beyond the trope of adequacy. The contingency of the magical on the trope of adequacy outlines the perennial anxiety to re-establish credentials to continue to inhabit the portals of the magical.

Lateness, mime and the trope of de-storying

Students in the newer IIMs use the metaphor of catching up to describe how their institutes are trying to mime the enchantment of the older IIMs. Students in the newer IIMs are anxious about their salary gaps with graduates from the older IIMs. While salaries embody the material marking of lives, the anxieties of catching up outline how students in the newer IIMs become de-storied beings.

A participant (25, female) from IIM Y said,

We are from a new institute and are the first batch. We will not start at the same salary as our counterparts in other IIMs. We have to catch up with them first.

The newness of the institute is soon lost which students seek to recast themselves in the image of the old. The newness is seen as a sign of lateness, as life is transformed into a network of lost opportunities. The act of catching up implies an industrial metaphor of likeness and the loss of craft communities and their entangled stories of joy and angst.

The imagination of IIM students is trapped in having enough money to meet their consumption expenses. When imaginations become localised around consumption, the subject is lost in the chase of consumable objects. The subject does not want to be late and equates pleasure with not having to wait to complete the act of consumption.

A participant (25, male) remarked,

There are two dimensions, personal happiness, and no monetary liability. If I can make time for parents, friends and I do not have to think twice about buying something, and I believe I am successful.

Making time for parents and friends also becomes the chasing of an ideal. When a subject chases ideals, she is forever lost in an analysis of gaps, and the space for the overflow of poetic and romantic stories becomes diminished. While the analysis of gaps is reduced to the mime of borders, the storying of subjectivities has the potential to transgress borders.

The borders of the self may be shaped by those who wield authority on it. Borders split decisions for subjects into territories of good and bad, and subjects are unable to inhabit the stories that construct the ambiguities between good and bad. The unambiguous construction of good and bad becomes a mime of responding to idealized tropes rather than the negotiation of complex stories.

A participant (24, male) commented,

Now that I am at IIM X, I am expected to make something of myself. There are expectations of me from my parents, my community. I cannot take a job which is not perceived to be good by my larger social network. This place is a life-long blessing and a life-long curse.

The participant evaluates IIM X using the language of blessing and curse, outlining that the IIM exaggerates binaries rather than helping students to negotiate complex stories. The IIM does not enable students to negotiate collective concerns of work such as inequity, violence, conflict and justice. Instead, the imagination is that of an individualised entity struggling to meet expectations of actors shaping the social network of the subject.

The IIM student is often drawn into the subjectivity of understanding conversations as an opportunity to impress. There is a perennial construction of the self as a brand, and a fear that the brand can be eroded by a single foolish move. The IIM student's anxiety is to construct the self-fashioning as soon as possible so that she does not lose out any opportunities to enhance the value that she can derive from her self.

A participant (26, male) said,

People are very smart here, and that is what's intimidating. Even before raising my hand for a CP, I am afraid of what my classmates will think of me. That fear is still there after one year. I do not want to make a fool of myself.

The anxiety of not becoming a fool indicates the very loss of speech for an IIM student. Speech is no longer the possibility of a free conversation, but the mime of an elusive wisdom. The discovery of wisdom through a conversation where the student's errors can be shown is seen as the lack of smartness.

The IIM student does not have the luxury of getting it right late. She must get it right the first time. The IIM student does not inhabit experimental narratives and is instead drawn into the subjectivity of a catechism

where the lack of scriptural righteousness can reduce the next few moments of her life into a living hell.

A participant (25, female) noted,

Whenever I saw someone making a strong point in class in a very crafty language, I thought that I do not want to sit with this person in a group discussion.

The IIM student is looking at an argument made by a fellow colleague in terms of a future competition for a job that is likely to take place. The argument of a colleague is evaluated in terms of a 'strong point' or the muscularity of a position, and the use of 'craft language', or the potential cunning that language embodies. The IIM student has already begun to nurture a fear of language, as language is felt merely to be a mime of muscularity or cunning.

In this sense, language is not the articulation of dilemmas and undecidable stories, but the communicative act of persuading, enchanting and silencing. The student begins to look at relationships by deploying metaphors of impressions rather than storied forms of dialogue, disagreement and difference. The conversation becomes an artefact of articulating the mutuality of worth.

A participant (23, male) observed,

It's a challenge maintaining your old relationships once you are here (at IIM X). This place demands a lot more than just your time.

The participant is trying to maintain relationships, and looks at relationships from the perspective of wearing down and repair. While the participant draws on metaphors of maintenance, other narrative metaphors of love, memory and angst are not available. In her relationalities, the IIM student is then trying to mime the semantics of trade and transforming relationships into sources of value.

5. Discussion

In the context of the IIMs, we find that the magical quality of the business school is related to the anxiety of not relapsing back into a world of ordinariness. The IIM nurtures the subjectivity of remaining distant from the worlds which have historically and materially shaped the student. Bergson (1913) points out that in the light of their desires, people's memories and experiences of the world around them are transformed. In evoking the desire to remain a part of magical worlds, the IIM graduate's experiences and memories of the world change. She has to constantly establish that she is a world apart from others around her.

The IIM's production of the magical subject as a constant force of distantiation is linked to the production of singular cultural imaginaries. Pfaller (1998) notes that for all its claims of enchantment, the magical robs the other of its otherness and is linked to problematic regulations of pleasure. The magical's interface with the regulation of pleasure is embedded in situating symbolic acts in the form of eternal fairy tale journeys that need to be undertaken. The subject's fairy tale does not end in becoming a student of IIM X, she is expected to continue the fairy tale by becoming a student of Harvard or Stanford. By anticipating ever more magical acts, the magical is in consonance with conservative ideologies of displacing pleasure forever into the future.

The discourse of pleasure is experienced in individualised ways as IIM students note that they experience the pressure of perpetually earning a greater salary than what they earned in the past. IIM students do not centre their discourse around how their futures are entangled in a collective quest for justice, instead their concern is about how they can individually account for a greater compensation for

²CP refers to Class Participation. Usually, students are graded for the quality and frequency of class participation. In IIM X, faculty members have a tendency publicly humiliate participants if they do not find their CP to be relevant. Consequently, this creates a sense of embarrassment and fear among participants.

themselves. Bergson (1913) argues that the imagination of future is more enchanting than the actuality of future as the very notion of future invokes the subjectivity of hope and multiplicity. IIM students do not speak about the enchantment of collective futures and instead are worried about retaining the image of their extra-ordinariness. In dislocating themselves from collective imaginaries, IIM students are establishing themselves as de-politicised actors solely concerned about individual pleasure.

The de-politicisation of IIM students is in line with the formation of the interpassive subject who only wants to experience the spirit of joy and is not worried about self-actualization or any other sense of responsibility (Walz, Hingston and Andehn, 2014). The tension between the magical and self-actualization indicates that the subject caught in the throes of the magical is not worried about agency. The subject caught in the throes of the magical is grateful to be passive and wants the magical to complete all the transformations in her life. Yet, in being passive and allowing the magical to guide her life, the IIM student becomes something else than who she was before. In being perennially anxious about her future, the IIM student inhabits a curious form of de-politicised guilt, which binds her to all forms of conservative authority including the family and the corporation.

The IIM embodies a magical imaginary that transports the student from the ordinary to the extraordinary. In the name of splitting reality between the ordinary and the extraordinary, the IIM student loses the ability to be a questioning and a rebellious actor. The precariousness of wanting to inhabit the extraordinary over the ordinary prevents the IIM student from asking what produces the boundaries of the ordinary. The IIM student is lost in the imagination of building a grand home while she is still relatively young. The charm of the magical and the extraordinary will be lost for if she does not build the home within a reasonable period of time.

In the process, she is unable to question the imagination of what constitutes a fulfilling home. Her imagination of what constitutes a fulfilling home are framed by societal norms, family and parents. Her ability to challenge societal norms and the mandates of family appear to be diminished as she requires their endorsement to continue to be framed in extraordinary terms. In material and intellectual terms, the IIM has diminished her bonds with other social actors who could insert her into subversive frames of solidarity. The IIM student is unable to engage with the duplicity and identities of shame and honour that the business school is capable of producing in us (Learmonth and Humphreys, 2011).

Instead of agonising over dramas of duplicity into which she is inserted, the IIM student only understands the language of how the IIM structures both a sense of boon and curse. The predilection with how the IIM is a both a boon and a curse in a personalised sense precludes the politics of the IIM in being implicated in business practices that produce inequality, conflict and violence (Dunne, Harney and Parker, 2008). The IIM student is concerned about not spending long hours at work, but interprets this extraction in a personalised sense, not in the sense of the damage wrought by corporations on a large number of lives. Again, she hopes that an act of magic will help her inhabit an extraordinary situation where she does not need to exert herself too much but will still be seen as a respected corporate leader.

On the other hand, it is precisely the need to exert themselves that is on the minds of students belonging to a newer IIM, as they want to play the game of catching up. The game of catching up is also at the heart of stories, as the chase is the craft of becoming adequate. The hope of becoming adequate by catching up keeps alive the possibility of joy for the IIM student and prevents her from becoming a sorrowful subject. Bergson (1913) outlines that sorrow is temporally linked to the future in terms of the loss of hope. While the IIM student inhabits the temporality of hope, and there is a collective horizon of the newer IIM catching

up with the older IIM, the signs of the collective soon crumble into storyless worlds.

The imagination of the new IIM is not as much that of a collective as the sign of anonymous journeys being undertaken from the interval between the ordinary and the extraordinary. The journey is marred by the fear of being late, and the lateness is still experienced as an individualised affect. The individualised affect takes the form of the memory of an original sin of being inadequate and not making it to an older IIM in the first place. The trope of inadequacy and hope marginalises the possibility of other complex stories in which the collective is shaped as a site of fragmentation, angst, poetry and dialogue. Feldman and Skoldberg (2002) contend that stories are devices through which implicit meanings keep accumulating, and these meanings can be identified by paying attention to tropes which have been carelessly or casually inserted into the story.

It is the attention to the casual and the careless that is lost for the IIM student. Attention to the careless involves an immersion in the ordinary, but the mime of the extraordinary can lead to the student being lost in the chase of the magical. The dislocation of the student from the ordinary means that she is not able to attend to the casual and is unable to understand the implicit stories that are being traced around her. In many ways, the loss of the ability to engage with the careless is a loss of grace. Bergson (1913) states that grace does not merely embody a smooth or a graceful movement from the present to the future, but signals the construction of empathetic intersection with others to initiate cultural dialogues around the idea of difference.

When the IIM student is chasing the imagination of an idealized future, she is lost in the despondency of her inadequacy. She is unable to engage in a graceful conversation with the ordinariness of the world around her and pay attention to the careless clues that reveal the intersection of multiple stories. Stories are about building an atmosphere of suspense which

finally unravels the revelation for which the reader has been eagerly waiting (Belsey, 2014). For the IIM student, there is no moment of revelation or suspense, there is only the moment of anxiety and the eagerness to achieve several material goals as early as possible. The IIM student knows the climax of her life, the only question is how long she will take to achieve it, and whether the length erodes the credibility of her magical existence.

The loss of suspense and the anticipation of narrative revelation outlines the de-storying enactment of the IIM. The IIM student is caught between the binary throes of adequacy and inadequacy outlined by the temporality of achieving material goals. In this quest for journeying from the inadequate to the adequate, the IIM student loses the craft of being intimate with the ordinariness of the world around her. Relationships for her are a stepping stone to achieve the fantastic goals that have been idealized as a result of becoming an IIM student. She is unable to view relationships as repositories of intimate agonies or joys that index implicit meanings of how the world around is being narratively constructed, destroyed and reconstructed in storied ways.

6. Implications for Theory

The increasing financialisation of higher education has been theorised in extant literature as creating numerous anxieties for students (Adamson, 2009; Federici and Caffentzis, 2007). We extend this literature by arguing that the business school structures desires of magically dislocating students from the contexts they inhabit. While dislocation produces distance between students and their social worlds, there is a contradictory production of de-politicised guilt. The de-politicised guilt infantilises students as they constantly seek approval and endorsement from conservative notions of social norms and authority structures of the family. The anxieties of business school students are structured around their inability to challenge the norms in which they are implicated and thereby re-shape the political worlds in which they dwell.

Several theorists have critiqued the business school as being complicit in the production of inequality and sustaining discourses of market based violence (Beyes and Michels, 2011; Dunne, Harney and Parker, 2008; Dunne, Harney, Parker and Tinker, 2008). We extend the critique of the business school by arguing that it signifies a magical act of transforming students into members of the ruling class who will earn material security in return of providing managerial labour to the corporation. The magical performance of the business school is however embedded in eternal journeys being undertaken by students. These fairy tale journeys never cease, and students are regulated by the imagination of the future being always more magical than the present.

Extent literature has focused on how people try to survive the business school by trying to reconcile the duplicity and contradictory identities into which they are drawn (Fleming and Oswick, 2014; Learmonth and Humphreys, 2011). We argue that students may gloss over the contradictions by enacting themselves as passive actors who are merely passing through a fairy tale journey. The passivity of the business school student is an artefact of magical qualities which prevent her from acting in rebellious and dissenting ways. The very act of the student joining the business school indicates her willingness to be passive and her loss of hope in other political processes of intervention and shaping the world.

Studies have focused on how the craft of stories themselves have several magical qualities and reveal the construction of implicit meanings (Belsey, 2014; Feldman and Skoldberg, 2002; Taylor, 2010). We extend the work on story-telling to the business school to outline how it engages in a process of de-storying. The business school traps the student within binaries of adequacy and inadequacy and charts a series of milestones for different stages of her life. The student trapped within the throes of this binary is lost in the subjectivity of the chase and is no longer able to pay attention to intimacies of the ordinary world. She then loses the ability to understand the stories that are being scripted around her, and begins to lose sense of the

implicit meanings that are proliferating with these stories.

We draw on Bergson (1913) to understand numerous ways in which people substitute differences of qualities with differences in magnitude. We argue that the business school does not produce a change merely in terms of magnitudes of wealth and power in the lives of students. Instead, it produces changes in terms of political qualities that students can interpret and shape. The business school aims to transform students from questioning, creative beings to people who give consent to the political status quo. The business school binds students in various authority scripts from which they find it difficult to disentangle themselves.

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Determinants of affect versus cognition: A review on evaluation of humorous ads

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Abstract

Individuals process the information in the ads with a combination of affect and cognition. Certain individuals have a tendency to process information with a greater percentage of affect while others resort to cognitive information processing. Various factors dictate the dominance of one over the other. This review article studies the factors like product category involvement, mood, need for cognition and gender effects that influence the route of processing. Further, the use of humorous advertisements like incongruity-resolution and arousal-safety are studied to find their appropriateness in both these contexts.

Keywords: Affect, Cognition, Incongruity-resolution, Arousal-safety

1. Introduction

Managers are responsible for the success of their brands by maximising its acceptance, which can lead to satisfactory sales. Advertisements help to create awareness and introduce new products and their attributes to the consumers (Lavidge & Steiner, 1961). Advertising campaigns require high investment; therefore, it is imperative that these investments are used effectively and efficiently. Ideally, managers must ensure that their ads are not only seen by the potential consumers but also are evaluated in a positive manner. However, such a scenario is not always possible due to the various factors that interfere with the successful evaluation of ads. The effectiveness of ads depends on the consumers, the content of the ad and the context in which it is viewed (Khandeparkar and Abhishek, 2017). These factors are capable of influencing the physiological process that consumers adopt to evaluate different ads. Therefore, in order to maximise the effectiveness of

advertisements, we have to study the human brain's functioning.

The study of the function of the brain and its different regions helps us in understanding the decision making process of consumers while facing various alternatives. Multiple brain areas work in tandem, however, independently, and the interaction of these neural processes help in the decision making process (Sanfey, Loewenstein, McClure & Cohen, 2006). Specific areas of the brain have specific functions and the outcomes of these areas interact with one another to come up with the final choice (Litt, Eliasmith, & Thagard, 2008).

When a consumer faces various options, the brain has to evaluate them on a common reference point so that it can compare all of them. The orbitofrontal cortex carries out this evaluation of alternatives in the brain (Rolls, 2000). The neurons in this part of the brain help in providing a common neural currency, which helps in comparing alternatives with one another

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(Montague & Berns, 2002). The orbitofrontal cortex is the emotionless part of the brain, which judges alternatives without any emotional association, and checks for the valence (positive or negative) of the output (Litt, et. al., 2008).

The part of the brain associated with the emotional processing of alternatives is called the amygdala. This part is responsible for the emotional arousal of the neurons while judging various alternatives in the decision-making process. The decision-making, therefore, involves the contribution from both these areas of the brain, working independently. The interaction of the amygdala with the orbitofrontal cortex leads to the subjective valuation of the various alternatives (Litt, et. al., 2008). This shows that the evaluation of options is a combination of affect and cognition. The degree of arousal in amygdala will show the dominance of affect over cognition while making decisions. Similarly, the degree of arousal in the orbitofrontal cortex will show the dominance of cognition over affect (Litt, et. al., 2008).

The degree of dominance of affect over cognition (and vice versa) differs due to various factors that influence the consumers. Therefore, we need to understand the conditions under which one should expose the audience to different types of ads or contextual conditions. Consumers who positively respond to cognitive appeals can be exposed to ads that require cognitive capacity, and consumers who positively respond to affective stimuli can be exposed to ads that have an emotional appeal.

The main objective of this article is to study and understand the various parameters under which one form of evaluation will be greater than the other so that we provide suitable form of evaluation opportunity to the target consumers. Therefore, we will review the parameters like product category involvement, audiences' mood, their need for cognition and gender to understand their impact on the processing of advertising stimuli. Additionally, this article studies the two types of humorous appeals to suggest the appeal that is most suitable under different contextual parameters.

2. Literature review

Three factors dictate the successful evaluation of ads: ad type, contextual parameters, and characteristics of the viewers. Firstly, a particular message in an ad can be communicated via different routes. Some ads take help of rational arguments, whereas, others resort to emotional appeals like fear or humour. These appeals can interfere with the audiences' ability to process the ads successfully (Speck, 1991). Secondly, a contextual factor like the characteristics of the program in which the ad is placed tends to impact the processing of that ad (De Pelsmacker, Geuens & Anckaert, 2002). Lastly, the demographics of the viewers can also impact the processing of the ads (Sahay, Sharma & Mehta, 2011).

Brands have the option of producing ads that elicit different emotions. The suitability of a particular emotion depends on the characteristics of the target consumers and their level of involvement in the product category (De Pelsmacker et. al., 2002). Ads are placed at different pod positions during a television program (Roy, 2013). Therefore, managers must be sure of not only the channel but also the type of program content in which to place their ads to maximise their effectiveness (Khandeparkar & Abhishek, 2017). Additionally, past research has suggested that demographics like gender also tend to dictate consumers' ability to process ads effectively (Sahay et. al., 2011).

One of the measures used to test the effectiveness of ads is the attitude towards an ad (A_{ad}). Lutz (1985) defined it as "predisposition to respond in a favourable or unfavourable manner to a particular advertising stimulus during a particular exposure occasion." This measure represents the affective component of evaluation of the ad (Aylesworth & MacKenzie, 1998). Past research has demonstrated that A_{ad} is capable of transferring from the ad to the brand, as per the affect transfer hypothesis (ATH) (McKenzie, Lutz and Belch, 1986). This attitude towards the brand (A_{br}) is capable of influencing the purchase intentions of that brand, which is capable of positively influencing the sales of that brand (De Pelsmacker et. al., 2002).

Previous studies in this field have shown that consumers use affective as well as cognitive routes to

evaluate a particular ad (Lutz, 1985). However, the degree of usage of both routes differs on several factors like product category involvement, gender, and contextual cues (Pelsmacker et al., 2002; Sahay et al., 2011). Due to the myriad types of advertising appeals that are present, managers have to choose the most suitable type for their product and audience.

Therefore, it is important to study the conditions under which a particular route will dominate the other. This article reviews these conditions and studies the type of humour that is suitable for cognitive as well as affective evaluation styles. Table 1 reviews the factors, which impact the evaluation of humours advertisement.

Factor	Study	Findings
Product category involvement	Zaichkowsky (1985)	Low product category involvement can result in less attention to advertising stimuli
	De Pelsmacker et al. (2002)	High product category involvement is able to process the information centrally
Role of mood	Batra and Stayman (1990) Aylesworth and Mackenzie (1998)	Mood influences evaluation of the ads placed Mood states influences advertisement processing
Need for cognition (NFC)	Zang (1996)	Humour appear to generate positive response for low NFC
	Cline, Altsech and Kellaris (2003)	NFC affects motivation to process advertisement
Gender Effect	Lammers (1991)	Self-monitoring interact with gender in moderating responses to advertising
	Lee (2010)	Interaction of message strategy and gender that significantly predicted behavioural intentions

Table 1: Factors which impact the evaluation of humours advertisement.

Pelsmacker et al (2002) have demonstrated that contextual cues that audience experiences during the viewing of ads play an important role in the evaluation of those ads. They suggested that product category involvement is one of those factors. Therefore, we will review this factor.

Product category involvement

An audience, with a low product category involvement, perceives the importance of a choice of a product as less risky and unimportant. Therefore, they do not need greater product information, devoting less attention to the advertisements (Zaichkowsky, 1985). They rely on peripheral cues for processing of the information presented in the ad since they are not motivated to centrally process this information.

However, an audience with a high product category involvement is able to process the information centrally as they are highly motivated to use their

cognitive capacity (De Pelsmacker et al., 2002). They are able to process the structures and themes shown in the ads via a cognitive route, as their cognitive capacity is higher than that of the viewers with lower involvement. Therefore, consumers with a higher involvement will be able to evaluate that ad centrally and effectively.

This theory is based on the ELM (Elaboration Likelihood Model) which says that the cognitive capacity of individuals is limited. Therefore, the capability of processing the information centrally depends on the individual's ability and motivation at that time. Using ELM, we can conclude that if the audience is not highly involved with the advertised product category then their motivation to process those advertisements will be low. The viewers will not be interested in solving the problem created by the context. Therefore, they will not pay attention to the ads (Pelsmacker et al., 2002). However, audience with

a high product category involvement will be able to process information in the ad. Their motivation is high for processing the new information that is presented in the ad (Schwarz, 1990).

Therefore, the consumer's level of product category involvement should be able to help advertisers in selecting the type of ads that need to be shown to the target audience. Viewers with lower product category involvement can be exposed to ads that elicit an affective response, whereas, viewers with higher product category involvement should be exposed to ads that present rational arguments embedded in the theme.

Furthermore, the mood of the audience while viewing the ads can also play an important role that influences its evaluation (Aylesworth & MacKenzie, 1998). Therefore, their mood is capable of dictating its effectiveness. We will explore this parameter in the following section.

The role of mood in ad processing

Gardner (1985) defines mood as "subjectively perceived feeling state that is general, pervasive, temporary, and nonspecific". Mood doesn't have any level of arousal and is considered to be either positive or negative (Aylesworth & MacKenzie, 1998). A mood is a feeling that is targeted towards the environment in which an individual is nestled, and it is not directed towards a specific target (Holbrook & O'Shaughnessy, 1984). The span of a mood is very short and it might not last even for a day (Gardner, 1985).

The cognitive capacity of individuals is limited; therefore, they are able to process a limited amount of information at a given time. The human brain is capable of getting overwhelmed with information. When an individual is in a bad mood due to a particular stimulus then his/her cognitive capacity is preoccupied in identifying the problem that led to that mood. Consequently, such individuals are unable to process new information, as they are preoccupied. However, individuals in a good mood refrain from processing the cause of the good mood and are capable

to processing new information that is coming their way. This is the mood as information theory suggested by Schwarz (1990).

This theory is also based on the ELM (Elaboration Likelihood Model) Using ELM, we can conclude that if the audience is in a bad mood due to a sad context then their ability to process advertisements following that program will be hindered due to the preoccupied cognitive resources. The viewers will be occupied in solving the problem created by the context. Therefore, they will not pay attention to the ads that are adjacent to the mood-inducing context (Aylesworth & MacKenzie, 1998).

However, audience experiencing a good mood due to a happy context will be able to process information in the ad that is adjacent to the mood-inducing context. Their cognitive capacity is available for processing the new information that is presented adjacent to the media context (Schwarz, 1990). Therefore, ads requiring cognitive resources should not be placed in contexts that generate a bad mood. Evidently, they should be placed in contexts that generate a good mood.

Consumers differ in their physiological make-up. Therefore, it is important to study the characteristics of the audience that are capable of dictating the evaluation of advertising stimuli. We will review audiences' need for cognition and gender in the following sections.

Need for cognition

Need for cognition is a personal trait that is a measure of the individual's motivation to seek out information for issue relevant thinking (Cacioppo & Petty 1982). Therefore, need for cognition is capable of defining the amount of cognitive resources that individuals are capable of expending while processing information. Individuals with lower need for cognition depend on heuristics, and do not engage in centrally processing the information that is presented to them. They tend to depend on peripheral cues to decide upon a particular option while making a choice (Petty & Cacioppo

1984). Therefore, emotional appeals are able to persuade individuals with a lower need for cognition, as they are not motivated to critically process the information in the ads (Cline, Altsech, & Kellaris, 2003). Such individuals can be presented with ads that include peripheral cues, which are picked up effectively by them.

However, individuals with higher need for cognition are highly motivated to process the new information centrally. They do not rely on peripheral cues to take their decisions. They are inclined to use their cognitive resources to come to a rational decision (Cacioppo & Petty 1982). Therefore, irrelevant arguments in ads are unlikely to influence individuals with higher need for cognition (Cline et. al., 2003). Such consumers may be presented with rational arguments and logical messages.

Gender effects

Gender differences play an important role in the dominance of cognition over affect (and vice versa) while evaluating various alternatives. Men are more inclined towards using their cognitive resources to process the information they receive in order to make a choice (Meyers-Levy, 1988), whereas, women process the information more comprehensively to find a finer distinction between products (Laroche, Clevel and Bergeron, 2003). Women tend to focus more on processing of emotional experiences than men (Davis, 1999). Women have a detailed memory of their brand experiences comprised of greater feelings than men do (Kring & Gordon, 1998). Men, on the other hand, need technical complexities to process the information (Putrevu, Tan & Lord, 2004).

The MRI scans of men and women have shown that the brain structures and connection are different for men and women. Therefore, they differ in the way they process information. Women are more intimate than men as far as their relationships are concerned, and they tend to apply greater feelings to their memories and events (McAdams, Lester, Brand, McNamara & Lensky, 1988). Women show a greater tendency to resort to impulse behaviour depending on peripheral

cues while men are more calculative and evaluative while making decisions (Laroche et al., 2003).

Depending on these factors, it is evident that not all consumers will be able to effectively process messages that are complex. Therefore, managers have to take into account these factors before designing advertising messages that are suitable for them. As previously discussed, the content of the ad is also capable of dictating its evaluation. A particular appeal may work for a certain set of individuals but not others. In the next section, we will explore the most common type of advertising appeal: humour. Additionally, we will suggest appropriate humour types for different contexts.

3. Humour advertisements

Advertisers invest millions of dollars in developing ads which appeal to the audience and fight for their attention. Humour is used almost 25% of the times which is more than any other form of advertisement used to gain the acceptance of the audience (Weinberger & Spotts, 1989; Khandeparkar & Abhishek, 2017). Humorous ads are different in the measure of humour that they evoke in the minds of the target audience (Speck, 1991). Some ads generate a lot of humour whereas others fail to do so even if intended. The perceived humour is seen to affect some significant downstream parameters of an ad's effectiveness like its recall, message credibility and attitude toward the ad and brand (Chattopadhyay & Basu 1990; Shimp 1997; Weinberger & Gulas 1992).

Humorous advertisements demand different types of processing depending on the type of humour employed in the advertisement. Certain ads, like incongruity-resolution type, need the capability to resolve a situation or a problem in order to understand the humour. Other types of ads, like arousal-safety, have an emotional appeal, which leads to an affective arousal (Speck, 1991). Different types of humour can be employed to target different consumers based on the type of evaluation (affective or cognitive) the target audience is 'comfortable' with.

The most common type of humorous ads made is incongruity resolution, arousal-safety and humorous disparagement (Speck, 1991). Incongruity resolution humour is termed by the research in psychology and in linguistics as the best framework for understanding humorous ads (Herzog & Larwin, 1988; Raskin, 1985). Therefore, incongruity resolution ads are the most common type of humorous ads.

Incongruity-resolution humour

This humour creates a puzzle that the audience needs to solve in order to understand the joke. It consists of two stages to deliver the humorous message to the viewers. Alden, Mukherjee, and Hoyer (1999, 2000) formed this two-stage model to explain the process. Incongruity and its resolution are the two crucial ingredients in the making of these ads (Speck, 1991). Incongruity is the first stage, which leads to a feeling of surprise; the level of surprise is higher if the viewers are familiar with the situation that is depicted in the ad (Speck, 1991). The deviation of the situation depicted in the ads from the reality (rules, norms, beliefs etc.) is referred to as the incongruity. The humour is created when this surprise is converted into humour when the viewers resolve the incongruity. This is the second of the process (Alden, et al., 1999, 2000).

A recent ad of Volkswagen Beetle involves a supermodel who walks in a high-end restaurant in an elegant attire. She sits alone at a table while the steward brings food for at least 10 patrons, and she starts eating the entire spread in an uncivilized manner. The tagline flashes- 'Volkswagen Beetle: curves are back'. This ad creates an incongruity by the scene of a supermodel eating away the food for 10 people as they are known for being slim. The tagline offers a resolution that now curves are in style. Khandeparkar and Abhishek (2017) used this ad in their study.

If the situation depicted in the ad is familiar to the audience then the surprise created by the incongruity is larger and the arousal created in the memory will be of a greater degree (Berlyne & Berlyne, 1960; Grunert,

1996). Additionally, the ease of the resolution of the incongruity should be higher to have a greater degree of humour. The ease of resolution helps in creating a positive affect towards the ad, which leads to a positive attitude towards the ad (Speck, 1991). Since the audience has the job of resolving the incongruity, they should be equipped with the necessary cognitive capacity to process the information centrally. Attainment of the resolution will create humour otherwise no humour will be generated, and the ad will fail in creating the required impact (Speck, 1991).

To separate non-sense from humour, the audience should be capable of decoding the humorous message embedded in an incongruity-resolution ad (Shultz, 1976). They have to decode, understand, and solve the problem presented in such ads. The joke is understood by decoding the punch line of the ad, which consists of puns, ironies, or reversals etc. Therefore, such ads are understood only by the viewers whose cognitive capacity is available to process the information presented (Speck, 1991).

When the ad creates a humorous reaction, the audience has a positive evaluation of the ad and this leads to the formation of a positive attitude towards the ad (Alden, et al., 2000). By the affect transfer hypothesis, we know that the attitude towards the ad is capable of positively influencing the attitude towards the brand. Therefore, a positive attitude towards the ad leads to a positive attitude towards the brand (Brown & Stayman 1992; McKenzie, Lutz & Belch, 1986).

Arousal-safety humour

This humour type creates a tension at the beginning that is actually found to be absent at the end. This reversal of the point of view generate laughter. Humour is generated when individuals experience a relief from a perceived feeling of strain or a level of arousal (Berlyne & Berlyne, 1960). As per the description given by Rothbart (1973), "laughter occurs when a person has experienced heightened arousal but at the same time (or soon after the arousal) evaluates the stimulus (usually another person) as safe

or inconsequential". Arousal-safety humour is capable of generating a goodwill or emotional response towards objects (or personified creatures) that are considered cute, friendly, and familiar.

This humour helps in forming an empathetic connection with subjects who narrowly avoid disaster. Keeping the type of disaster believable helps in connecting with the situation presented in the ad. Therefore, it leads to a better response of humour. A strong arousal needs to be generated which is negative at the beginning but turns positive to generate humour (Speck, 1991).

As per Khandeparkar and Abhishek (2017), an example of arousal safety ad was a past ad of Nolan's Cheddar. A mouse encounters a piece of cheese on a mousetrap while a cheerful music plays. As the mouse is trapped while biting the cheese, a sad music plays. Suddenly, the mouse lifts the trap with its limbs and an inspirational music plays while the tagline says 'Nolan's cheese-seriously strong'. This ad creates the arousal in the form of danger to the mouse's life. The mouse not dying due to the strength given by the cheese depicts the safety judgement.

In general, this type of humour requires a stress-inducing stimulus, affective uncertainty created by the stimulus, and a safety judgement at the end. This type of ad generates an affective response towards the subject that is under stress (Khandeparkar & Abhishek, 2017). The individuals who respond positively to affective evaluation of ads will evaluate these ads better than individuals who are capable and wanting to use their cognitive resources to evaluate the options presented to them (Speck, 1991).

4. Discussion

Advertisers invest millions of dollars to produce and telecast ads with the hope of attracting their audiences' attention. Therefore, it is important that these ads be positively evaluated by the viewers. In order to be effective, its viewers must successfully process an ad, which increases the chances of developing a positive

attitude towards it. Certain ads require significant cognitive resources to process them successfully while others are processed easily without needing significant cognitive resources. This review article studies the factors that dictate the availability of the consumers' cognitive resources.

The ELM helps us in understanding that consumers' product category involvement dictates that degree of motivation needed to process complex messages. A higher involvement will lead to a greater amount of cognitive resources while a lower involvement leads to lesser amount of cognitive resources that are required to process a particular advertising message. In addition, as per the mood as information theory and ELM, the mood of the consumers also influences the availability of their cognitive resources. A bad mood hinders their ability to process complex information whereas a good mood enables it.

Consumers' individual characteristics also influence their cognitive resources. Individuals with a lower need for cognitive will not be highly inclined towards processing complex advertising messages whereas individuals with a higher need for cognitive will be able to process them. Gender also plays an important role in processing of advertising messages. Past research has demonstrated that males are inclined towards rational appeals whereas females tend to be inclined towards emotional appeals.

This article also studies the humour types that will be suitable for different consumers. Consumers with a greater degree of cognitive resources will effectively be able to process the complex humour appeal like the incongruity resolution humour. On the other hand, consumers with a lower degree of cognitive resources will find arousal safety ads be effective. Since humour is the most commonly used advertising appeal, it is important for managers to understand their types and the content in which they will be effective.

5. Implications

The evaluation style of the consumers plays an

important role in their judgement of a particular ad. Advertisers should ensure that their brand is preferred over the competition; therefore, they have to influence their target consumers better than the competition. Studying the characteristics of their target consumers and their preferences will help marketers in designing ads that influence their consumers the most. Certain consumers rely on heuristics to judge a particular brand offering while others are involved in centrally processing the information provided to them about the brand offering.

Marketers should be able to identify the conditions under which consumers will evaluate an ad cognitively or affectively. They should design their ad campaigns according to their target consumer's preference of evaluation. This will lead to a positive attitude towards the ad that will transfer to the brand, as per ATH. The factors that lead to a particular route for evaluation should be studied and used to design the ads or place the ads in the appropriate context. The viewer's product category involvement is capable of dictating the evaluation style of the consumers. In addition, individual traits like need for cognition are helpful in focussing on the amount of rational arguments over peripheral cues. Gender differences also play a significant role, as men tend to be cognitively driven, whereas, women respond to affective messages and develop relationships with brands due to emotional stimuli.

The audience's mood is an indication of the amount of cognitive resources they are capable of expending while processing the ads. As per the elaboration likelihood model, bad mood hinders the cognitive capacity of the viewers, as they are preoccupied with the process of solving the problem that leads to the bad mood. However, individuals in a good mood are capable of processing information cognitively.

Humorous ads are the most common type of advertisements used by marketers (Khandeparkar & Abhishek, 2017). However, their effectiveness is contingent on their successful evaluation. An audience that lacks cognitive resources may not understand

complex themes. Therefore, managers must ensure that such themes are placed in contexts that do not preoccupy their cognitive resources. We propose that incongruity resolution ads be placed in contexts that elicit a good mood. Additionally, such ads are suitable for audience with a high product category involvement who has a high need for cognition. On the other hand, arousal safety ads are suitable for any context, as they do not require significant cognitive resources.

6. Conclusion

The human brain evaluates messages based on a combination of affect and cognition. However, one can dominate the other depending on several factors. This article identifies some of these factors and studies how they influence the human brain. Managers can control certain factors like ad placement, which can help them in maximising the effectiveness of their ads. However, managers cannot control certain factors like product category involvement, need for cognition and gender. In such a case, they must adapt to their audiences' preference by altering the content of the ad to maximise its effectiveness. Humour is a double-edged sword. Some may find it highly effective while others will not be able to appreciate it. This paper discusses the factors that dictate the evaluation of two types of humorous appeals to maximise their effectiveness.

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Substitutes of Leadership Matters

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Abstract

We articulate the need for searching for substitutes for leadership, as we believe that the individual centered analysis of leaders misses several key aspects. Organizational processes are filled with multiple social relations, complexities and imaginations. In this sense, the leader is an organizational actor striving to fill organizational mandates. These are the mandates of control, collegiality in teams, job autonomy and empowerment. We believe that it is necessary to emphasize several substitutes for leadership, as these substitutes embody the emergence of robust organizational processes that are not contingent on the specificities of an individual.

Keywords: Substitute of Leadership, Leadership, Followers, Followership.

Introduction

The mainstream and popular management literature presuppose leadership less as a formal position within an organization than an influence relationship between leader and follower (Ciulla, 2002). Central to this idea is the ability of leaders to influence followers that culminates into organizational change. Leaders act as bulwark and forerunner of stability and change so much so that organizational transformation is overtly and inevitably dependent on leadership. As such leaders potentiality underlies stimulating intellectual capability, facilitating innovative climate and eliciting a favorable exchange with followers for performance, commitment, etc.

It is this taken for granted understanding that predominates business schools and organizations alike. Such unproblematic iterability of leadership phenomenon as a sort of unquestionable faith and aspirational value across organization and other

constituents is regulated through discourses on leader-centric theories which emphasises individual difference such as traits and behaviors. For instance, the trait school of leadership identified specific individual differences in relation to traits and personality factors, which has the highest correlation with leadership emergence and effectiveness (Zaccaro, Kemp, & Bader, 2004). The behavioural school enlists and prescribes specific type of leadership behaviours, which are most likely to influence the followers (subordinate) satisfaction and performance (Yukl, 2010). The contingency school explored the role of traits, behavior, and situational factors, which could either limit, enhance or provide potential opportunities for leaders (Ayman, Chemers, & Fiedler, 1995; Podsakoff, Todor, Grover, & Huber, 1984), and the latest full range leadership model (FRLT) conceptualize leadership as transformational and transactional leadership behaviors (Burns, 1978; Bass 1999). The transformational leadership has

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received the most attention and is perceived to be an antidote for all organizational sickness.

What all leader-centered theories and models presuppose is the whole world of organizations would crumble without leadership. Such individualist, over-determinist and essentialist understanding of leadership is questionable at least when we move away from such naive assumptions and come to the grips of context. Do leaders act independent of context? Do they have magical powers to single-handedly transform an organization? Else, do organizations have something other than leadership that has the same effect on employees? And can also have the capacity to improve the effectiveness of leadership?

1. Substitutes for leadership

Leaders and followers relationship is influenced by variety of individual, task and organizational level variable (Kerr & Jermier, 1979). They argued that these variables have a differentiating role and effect on leadership and influence on the outcome. Few variables create influence vacuum and effectively make leadership impossible to act. Thus neutralizing the leadership influence. Few variables have a substituting effect, as they replace the loss of leadership by their own effect thus making leadership unnecessary. In both the case in the presence of a neutralizer or substitute variable limits the role of leadership and will be perceived as unnecessary intervention for close control (Kerr & Jermier, 1978). But not all variables limit the effects of leadership few have augmenting qualities as well. An enhancer variable represents a positive moderating effect. It can be claimed that stronger the enhancer stronger is the leadership effect on the outcomes (Howell, Dorfman, and Kerr, 1986).

Researchers advocating for the presence of these variables created a list and divided them according to individual, task and organizational level. Kerr and Jermier (1979) created a list of substitutes and neutralizers for task and relationship oriented

leadership behaviours, here referred as original list, and later argued that each type of leadership behaviors, for instance transformational leadership Will have its own set of neutralizers and substitutes (Kerr, 2005). An implicit call was made to identify new potential substitutes and neutralizers for leadership other than the task and relationship oriented behaviour. Latterly, researchers successfully identified new substitutes for different leadership behaviour. **Table 1** represents the list of old and **Table 2** represents newly identified substitutes and neutralizers.

2. Substitutes as controlling mechanism

Kerr (2005) opines that hierarchical leadership is one of the components of an organisation to control the performance of followers. However hierarchical leadership is brought to question especially when exemplary followers may develop indifference to such act of leadership and may prefer autonomy in their work (Blom & Alvesson, 2013). It is this context that substitutes of leadership to monitor and control subordinate performance becomes relevant as opposed to hierarchical leadership (Kerr & Slocum, 1981).

Controlling performance through substitutes is not only effective but also a prescription for the problems created by ineffective hierarchical leadership (Howell, Bowen, Dorfman, Kerr, and Podsakoff, 1990). Substitutes such as creation of cohesive work group with high performance norms, performance feedback from task, group management-by-objectives (MBO) programs can potentially eliminate the need of hierarchical leadership.

From another perspective substitutes like enhancers can be created to strengthen the leadership process. This argument is similar to the routinization of charisma (Beyer & Browning, 1999). "Charisma in pure form is highly unstable and should be transmuted into institutional patterns in order to achieve permanence, which is routinization of charisma" (Beyer and Browning, 1999, p. 487).

Charisma can be routinized through various ways- by developing an administrative structure, which enforces the charismatic mission into practice, creation of rites and other cultural forms and by selecting a mirror image of a charismatic leader. Similarly, organizations could create substitutes in certain situations where coordination within a department is difficult because leader is not keeping the details or when leaders are not setting targets or goals for their subordinates or leader's trait and/or personality is inadequate and their replacement nor training is feasible. In these situations creation of specific substitutes, which provide immediate feedback or professional education to subordinates is the most appropriate solution. Creation of self-managed teams, establishing reward systems, enriching jobs or select highly experienced subordinates and establish group goal setting can create high performance cultures (Howell et al., 1990. p. 33). Professional orientation of a subordinate reduces the need for task-oriented leaders (Howell & Dorfman, 1981) and similarly tasks, which are methodologically invariant, or presence of cohesive work group will also reduce the need for instrumental leaders.

3. Substitutes and leadership styles

Various attempts were made by researchers to establish the relationship between substitutes and the outcomes. Job satisfaction for instance, is elevated due to leadership or substitutes. Pool (1997) argues that the most powerful predictor of job satisfaction is not leadership but work motivation of employees. Substitutes like methodologically invariant task, task providing its own feedback, cohesive work group, advisory support from staff, high formalization and etc. influenced the satisfaction levels more than the leadership. He suggests, "job satisfaction may be influenced by factors such as leadership substitutes or level of motivation among subordinates rather than by a particular leadership style. Managers may need to adjust their leadership style when a substitution takes place" (p. 281). May be a delegative style is recommended when substitutes have a positive

relationship and a supportive style should be adopted by the leader in the presence of an enhancer.

Substitutes like high group, work design, job enrichment and goal difficulty also have the capacity in predicting performance outcomes, affective organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviors (Muchiri & Cookset, 2011; Whittington, Goodwin and Murray, 2004). Hartog and Belschak (2012) established role breadth self-efficacy (RBSE) and job autonomy as potential substitutes and enhancers for transformational leadership for achieving followers' proactive behavior. Higher level of job autonomy lead to proactive behavior of followers and in a high-autonomy situation and transformational leadership had a stronger relationship with proactive behavior for employees, who scored high on RBSE (p. 199). These substitutes provide their own positive effect on subordinates for achieving outcomes. Enriched jobs can also act as a substitute for destructive leadership behavior (Schaubroeck, Walumbwa, Ganster, & Kepes, 2007). They argued that subordinates who are involved in enriched jobs, i.e. job scope are less likely to be influenced by destructive leaders because of low interaction with supervisor in comparison of those subordinates who have less enriched jobs. Similarly physical and social distance can also plays a neutralizing effect.

Substitutes can also act as "addictive" for leadership (Keller, 2006). Substitutes like ability and intrinsic satisfaction can act as addictive for transformational leadership and initiating structure leadership behavior for achieving team performance.

From these studies, one could affirmatively state that transformational leadership behaviors are not context free. The outcome could be the interaction between transformational leadership behavior, the perception of followers and the effect of substitutes. This argument was taken forward by Rode (2010) in his study. By conceiving innovative organizational climate as neutralizer for transformational leadership

in enhancing employee creativity. He states that employee creativity is a byproduct of a three-way interaction between transformational leadership, employee identification with leader and innovative climate. In other words, the identification with the leader has a direct or indirect relationship on employee creativity, effect of transformational leadership behavior and innovative climate. Employees who have low identification with leader, innovative climate negatively moderates (p. 1111). The study states that when innovative climate is high the relationship between transformational leadership and creativity is weak, thus subscribing to Kerr and Jermier (1978) and high identification with the leader, an enhancer, the relationship between transformational leadership and creativity strengthens but only in high innovative climate.

Enhancers can strengthen leadership argues Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang and Chen (2014). Leader member exchange acts as an enhancer for transformational leadership in achieving followers' task performance and organizational citizenship behavior's (OCB's). Though transformational leadership is positively associated with followers' task performance and OCB's and LMX acting as an enhancer for transformational leadership to raise followers' receptivity to role expanding and extra role behaviors, through the process of personal and social identification (Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang and Chen, 2014, p. 429). Identification towards leaders at various levels, as shown by Wang and Howell (2012) can also affect performance, psychological empowerment and collective efficacy of followers. The moderating role of innovative culture and incentive compensation along with transformational leadership enhances technological innovation (Chen, Lin, Lin, and McDonough, 2012). Innovative cultures act an enhancer for transformational leadership at strategic business unit level and also substitute, the effect of transformational leadership if the innovative culture is high. Financial incentives acted as a neutralizer and non-financial incentives act as an enhancer for transformational leadership.

Subordinate creativity is also influenced by team empowerment climate (Si & Wei, 2012). Transformational leadership and team empowerment climate can jointly affect the subordinates' creative performance.

4. Substitutes for team level performance

Huusko (2007) investigated the preconditions through which teams can substitute for leadership in a workplace. He argues that the role of a supervisor is changed and should be viewed as a facilitator. To examine the effects of substitutes like teams and computer-aided direction system work a traditional Tayloristic perspective of supervisor is inadequate and certain modifications related to managerial arrangement and juridical orders are necessary. Juridical orders are related to certain acts proposed by the government. The preconditions in which teams can act as substitutes for leaderships are interdependence of team members in relation to goal and task achievement. If the team members have a positive approach, complement as partners, provide internal feedback and incentives in everyday work they can be perceived as neutralizer for leadership. But in a situation where leadership is distant, the teams with similar nature can act as substitutes for leadership and the computer-aided management system, which is referred as enterprise resource planning at company level act as supplements for leadership.

The sample identified by Huusko, performed similar task and nature of work but what if the teams are highly specialized and each team member has a unique set of skills, work in a dynamic environment and have short work cycles. For instance, "anesthesia teams who work closely especially in usual and critical situations and in addition to clinical competencies, nontechnical skills such as leadership, decision making, assertiveness, and team coordination needs to be frequently exhibited in the operating theatre" (Künzle, Zala-mezö, and Kolbe, 2010, p. 507). These kinds of teams operate at different level of routines, degree of standardization and experience of team members substitute content-oriented, structuring and

shared leadership (Künzle et al., 2010). Their study leads to an understanding that leadership behavior is contingent to the magnitude of the substitution effect., A similar argument made by Pool (1997) that leadership behavior is contingent upon the level of routine of a situation, the degree of standardization, and, to some extent, on the experience of team members. Feedback seeking behaviour of top management team is also essential for achieving team performance and change effectiveness. The effectiveness of transformational leadership is contingent to the top management team feedback behavior. For instance, transformational leadership is positively associated with high team performance and change effectiveness only when the feedback seeking behavior is low (Stoker, Grutterink, & Kolk, 2012).

5. Substitutes for strategic leadership

Extending substitutes-related research to strategic leadership is certainly warranted. Like the research on consideration and initiating structure that spawned substitutes theory, substitutes research itself has yet to break out of empirical studies of middle and low level managers and professionals (Dionne et al. 2005, p. 179). Adhering to the call of Dionne et al., Sturm and Vera (2011) employed substitutes framework for a broader understanding of transcendent leadership. The authors propose a number of substitutes for three different levels, the self (individual), organizational and societal level. At the level of self, substitutes like self-awareness, self-regulation, leadership couple, organizational culture and hiring transcendent subordinates; at organizational level substitutes like organizational learning infrastructure and crafting of strategy and for societal level, substitute like institutionalize the intent to generate value for stakeholders and a policy of corporate social responsibility.

6. Combining substitutes

Jermier and Kerr (1997) had proposed for investigation of combinations of substitutes. They clearly state that, "an intriguing set of questions could be developed focused on how substitutes interact among themselves

to produce effects" (p. 97). In relation to this, Menguc, Auh and Uslu (2012) investigated the relevance of substitutes for empowering leadership in a sales team. They acknowledge the underlying structural elements present in a team and further try to investigate whether the underlying structural elements, identified as task and outcome interdependence and the interaction between them have substitution or neutralizing effect for empowering leadership in a sales team for achieving customer creation knowledge. The study take two substitutes model into consideration. First is the substitute main model and second is the joint effect model for obtaining customer knowledge creation capability (CKCC). The findings do support the assumptions of substitutes of leadership theory. It shows that positive effects of task and outcome interdependence on CKCC, which leads to weaken effects of transformational leadership on CKCC. On a similar account Consideration of Future Consequences (CFC), which is established as a successful trait of transformational leadership. The effect of CFC on transformational leadership is stronger only under low dynamic work environment i.e. stable environment (Zhang, Wang, and Pearce, 2014).

Even transformational leadership, leader-follower exchange and few organizational variables like task design and goal setting can complement the effectiveness of each other (Whittington, Mckee, Goodwin, & Bell, 2013). Whittington et al. (2013) argues that rather than "observing leadership or variables in isolation, an understanding could be developed how various combinations, or "bundles," of task and motivational factors could produce high levels of employee commitment and performance in the absence of a transformational leader" (p. 280). Their analysis leads to various findings that affective commitment can be achieved through various ways, one is by combining transformational leadership and enriched jobs; second only through high quality leader-follower relationship; third by combining enriched jobs and difficult goals independent of transformational leadership and high leader-follower

relationship and fourth through the combination of an enriched job and low quality leader–follower relationships. For attaining high levels of organizational citizenship behavior the combination of enriched jobs, a high quality leader–follower relationship, and goals that are not challenging are also positively associated.

The study affirms Kerr (2005) argument that “leadership has not special status that requires substituting. It is one among many mechanisms utilized to achieve control and influence” (p. 316). By indicating various paths for achieving the criterion transformational leadership, along with high quality LMX, enriched jobs and challenging goals, an organization can achieve superior results. High-quality LMX, enriched jobs, and challenging goals have to work in conjunction with each other to attain results similar to those associated with transformational leadership.

The authors also suggest new avenues to be investigated. For instance, emphases on other substitutes like formalization, group cohesiveness, inflexible rules, and organizational rewards that are not under the control of the leader. Additional task characteristics like routine and repetitive tasks. Subordinates characteristics like the ability, experience, training, and job-related knowledge. Individual differences among employees should also be considered. Henceforth, future configurational studies should examine the impact of personality and other stable traits, such as need for achievement, in a fully interactive model. Researchers should also investigate the various bundles that lead to other important dimensions of employee engagement with the organization, such as job satisfaction and intention to quit (p. 298).

7. Newer substitutes than the original listing

As proposed by Jermier and Kerr (1997) to identify new substitutes for leadership, is been taken forward by various researchers. Studies were performed to endorse newer variables for claiming the substitute

status, which are not included in the original list. The substitutes identified and mentioned below are mostly at the individual level.

Self-Management

Self-Management by subordinates can substitute leadership. As self-management encompasses components like self-observation, specifying goals, cueing strategies and incentive modification (Mann & Sims, 1980).

Through self-management employees can manage their own behaviors by setting personal standards, and evaluate their performance against the set personal standards. The reinforcement contingencies referred as environmental clues such as rewards reinforces an employee to discipline his/her behaviour, without leaders assistance.

Core Self-Evaluation

Alike self-management, followers’ core self-evaluation (CSE) is also identified as potential individual level substitute for transformational leadership (Nübold, Muck, & Maier, 2013). CSE as an individual level substitute moderates the links between transformational leadership and followers’ motivation level and performance. By studying CSE through all four models the substitute main, joint effect, mediation and moderation model they affirm that CSE not only positively affect the followers’ performance but also mediates and moderates between transformational leadership and followers’ motivation.

Learning goal orientation

Follower’s learning goal orientation, leader proto typicality and followers traditionality are identified as potential substitutes and neutralizers for transformational leadership (Chiaburu, Kirkman, & Xie, 2013). The effects of transformational actions are modified or dismissed by followers’ perception of leader proto typicality and their identification with the team. Learning goal-oriented employees are also less subjected to the influences of transformational leaders. Learning goal orientation also moderates the

relationship between transformational leadership, organizational citizenship behavior and sales productivity (Zacher, 2013). High learning goal orientation of followers compensate for low levels of transformational leadership with regard to organizational citizenship behaviour. But no support was found for the moderation effect of transformational leadership and sales productivity.

Need for leadership

Need for leadership, another substitute is proposed by de Vries, Roe and Taillieu (2002). They define need for leadership as the extent to which an employee wishes the leader to facilitate the paths towards individual, group, and/or organizational goals. It can be considered as a substitute for leadership as it mediates the effects of other situational variables on the relationship between leadership and personal and work outcomes like job satisfaction, organizational commitment, work stress, role conflict, and performance. High need for leadership is associated with a positive relation between leader's structure and organizational commitment, while low need for leadership is associated with no relation or even a negative relation between leader's structure and organizational commitment. Need for leadership moderates the relation between leader's support and work stress in the predicted direction, i.e., higher need for leadership is associated with a stronger (negative) relation between leaders' support and work stress.

Besides these, substitutes like leadership couple (Gronn, 1999); professional identity (Karreman, 2012); shared organizational values, subordinate cynicism and self-managed work teams (Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1997) have been identified. Future research inquiry can be made in validating these substitutes.

8. Conclusion

Overall, the literature broadly suggest that there are a variety of substitutes in organizational context and these substitutes can function in number of ways to manage organizations without leadership intervention on day-to-day life. Building on the

existing scholarship some tentative future direction of research inquiry can engage with questions such as whether organizations should invest in leadership development programs or focus more on creating substitutes. Another line of thought seem to be emerging from researchers is the argument that substitutes for leadership should be created by leaders as this constitutes an act of leadership (Howell et al. 1990). Writing in the vein of critical management studies, Blom and Alvesson (2013) argue that managerial leadership or their intervention is rarely visible in organizations and to a large extent inhibited/initiated by followers. Further their argument runs, "there are many different ways of organizing work and providing direction and support, some leadership/followership-based, others not". A serious limitation of such work is the inability to clearly express what those 'others' can be. Instead, we propose that the mentioned 'others' may be the substitutes for leadership itself.

Organizing work and controlling performance in organizations through substitutes for leadership is well argued respectively by Howell et al. (1990) and Kerr and Slocum (1981) in their article. By considering the literature, we also propose that substitutes for leadership not only play a proactive role in performance gains for the organization but also an important detriment for employee satisfaction, commitment, altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship, attitude, etc.

In order to proceed with this proposition, an organization must take into account the source of the substitute predictors, nurture it and allow it to be co-produced by followers. Though we take into account the merit of Howell et al. (1990) argument that creation of substitutes is an act of leadership, however there is a need to consider follower's proactive role in creating and giving meaning to substitutes for leadership. We agree with Kerr (2005) that hierarchical leadership is one of the mechanisms within the organization system, which doesn't require any special emphasis and substitutes for leadership are also a part and parcel

of the similar system. Even the entire literature on substitutes of leadership indicates that both leadership and substitutes cannot exist in tandem. It cancels out other claims (Howell et. al. 1990; Dionne) that are attempting to construct binaries in terms of effective/ineffective leadership, which is very much against the essence of substitutes of leadership. The question then arises are multiple: how are we to

understand substitutes for leadership as well-managed system, how those substitutes manage and influence followers, and how those substitutes are outcome of followers interaction and meaning-making process. We hope to have spurred some momentum in substitute of leadership studies and redress the limitations enabling future research.

Table 1: Original

Substitutes/Neutralizers	Organization Characteristics
Subordinate Characteristics	Formalization (explicit plans, goals, and areas of responsibility)
Ability, experience, training, knowledge	Inflexibility (rigid, unbending rules and procedures)
Need for independence	Highly-specified and active advisory and staff functions
Professional orientation	Closely-knit, cohesive work groups
Indifference toward organizational rewards	Organizational rewards not with- in the leader's control
Task Characteristics	Spatial distance between superior and subordinates
Unambiguous and routine	
Methodologically invariant	
Provides its own feedback concerning accomplishment	
Intrinsically satisfying	

Table 2:

New Substitutes identified post Kerr & Jermier	
Shared organizational values, subordinate cynicism, and self-managed work teams.	Podsakoff & Mackenzie (1997)
Autonomous self managed work teams, Total Quality Management programs, Telecommuting and computerized workplaces	Howell (1997)
Leadership couple substitute for single leader	Gronn (1999)
Need for leadership	de Vries, Roe & Taillieu (2002)
Job enrichment (substitute) and goal difficulty (Neutralizer)	Whittington, Goodwin & Murray (2004)
Enriched jobs (neutralizer)	Schaubroeck, Walumbwa, Ganster & Kepes (2007)
Teams and computer-aided direction system	Huusko (2007)
Environmental characteristics of supervisor competence, Decentralization, and workplace politics	Kacmar, Zivnuska & White (2012)

Job autonomy, and role breadth self-efficacy	Den Hartog, Deanne & Belschak (2012)
Team Empowerment Climate	Si & Wei (2012)
Combination of task interdependence and Outcome interdependence	Menguc, Auh & Uslu (2012)
High-feedback seeking Top Management Team	Stoker, Grutterink & Kolk (2012)
Followers' perception of leader prototypicality, team identification and followers' traditionality. Followers' proactive personality and Followers' learning goal orientation.	Li, Chiaburu, Kirkman & Xie (2013)
Followers' state core self-evaluations.	Nübold, Muck & Maier (2013)
Followers' learning goal orientation.	Zacher (2013)

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Book Review

Monica A. Joseph (2016). Discrimination Against The mentally Ill, California, USA: Greenwood – An Imprint of ABC-CLIO, LLC, 237 pages, ISBN: 978-1-61069-891-7 (hardback) and ISBN: 978-1-61069-892-4 (ebook)

A holistic effort has been made in the book titled "Discrimination against the mentally ill" by Monica A. Joseph to contribute to increased awareness and sensitivity toward discrimination against the persons with mental illness and to lay out some of the potential ways to prevent this form of discrimination. Mental illness, as discussed by the author, has historically been called by "a variety of different names – madness, insanity, lunacy ..., unsoundness of mind, idiocy, and imbecility" (p.5). She further adds that the mental illness, as a concept, in the contemporary era "is most often used interchangeably with mental disorders" (p.5). The illness itself is a bane for the person concerned. Discrimination against such people adds more miseries into the existing misery that they are already languishing with. Over and above that, discrimination tampers fundamental human rights of the mentally ill persons. This form of discrimination is a grave concern for the whole humanity as it raises number of immoral/unethical¹ issues.

Along with presenting a comprehensive view of the given issue by integrating discussions on its historical background and the key reasons, the book offers various Acts and the degree of enforcement of these Acts. Stress has also been laid on the view that discrimination against the persons with mental illness is widespread across the globe. As the author points out, discrimination has been pervasive in almost every aspect of the lives of the persons with mental illness for more than two centuries. It is hard to believe that the perpetrators of such barbaric act, as she adds, includes not only the entrusted physicians and nurses but also the family members of those affected persons. This

book also examines some of the contemporary issues that the persons with mental illness are dealing with, including the intersection between comorbidity, the criminal justice system, and diversity. Apart from that, the author holds that there must be a conscientious effort along the lines of prevention from each member of the society to get rid of this age-old medico-social issue – as it hampers the well-being and growth of society as a whole. Further, each member of the society is required to come forward and deliberate specific corrective measures to "decrease the stigma of mental illness, while ensuring that any form of discrimination is promptly addressed" (p. xvi).

The book has been structured with three parts. Part I offers an overview of the issue, spread across six chapters. Part II deals with controversies surrounded around the issue of discrimination, discussed in three chapters. And, Part III presents a compendious view of the resources which will assist a reader in knowing about the breadth and depth of the issue. The set of resources includes the various websites, books and journals, articles, and relevant documents on 'attitudes towards mental illness,' 'chancery lunatics,' 'The Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) of 1990,' 'The Mental Health Reform Act (MHRA) of 2015,' and 'what a difference a friend makes anti-stigma campaign.' Apart from that to help the readers have clarity in understanding of the content, the book offers a glossary of key and technical words. The most appealing item that the author has presented in the book, in this Part III, is the timeline of incidents, history, and background of the issue in detail which would help a reader visualize a broader view of the issue.

¹The etymological background of the concepts 'moral' and 'ethical' is same. Both of them stand for 'custom,' 'habit,' and 'usage'. The concepts 'custom,' 'habit,' and 'usage' refer to the 'principles of action' that an individual in the society is required to follow to ensure a healthy society (Baylis, 1958; Bourke, 1951; Frankena, 1999; Lillie, 1986; Sinha, 1998). Hence, the concepts 'ethics' or 'morality' can interchangeably be used as their point of reference is same.

Having written with lucidity, the book has an attractive way of discussing one of the thoughtful medico-social issues with the help of various definitions, examples, situations, controversies, and various Acts aligned with the issue. The flow of content across the book is excellent, quickly readable, and easily understandable. The book is useful for any researcher dealing with ethical vis-à-vis unethical issues surrounded around the discrimination against the persons with mental illness. It is said so because along with providing an extensive and holistic view of the issue, the author has furnished the critical resources which will enable the researcher to go beyond what the author has tried to achieve through the book. After going through the book, I have realized that I can incorporate the issue "Discrimination against mentally ill persons" in my course on *Contemporary Moral Issues*. Without any reservation, I could vouch that the book will proffer various perspectives on the issue which would help me in introducing the issue clearly and in generating debate and discussion amongst the students in the classroom.

The following sections are going to present brief chapter-wise discussion. *Chapter 1* starts with a background and definition of 'mental illness,' followed by giving an extensive discussion on the background and definition of 'discrimination' and that of 'discrimination against mentally ill persons' leaning on the current data on mental illness drawing from developing as well as developed nations. The prime focus of *Chapter 2* is to deliberate on the belief systems and historical treatment of the mentally ill. The author puts forward an important point in this chapter that "religious, social, physical, medical, and more recently, behavioral interventions used to treat persons with mental illness have been influenced by our changing beliefs and attitudes" (p.17). In this context, the chapter outlines various forms of beliefs, such as ancient beliefs, medieval beliefs, modern beliefs, reformation, beliefs in the age of reason, and early American beliefs. It examines these beliefs to demonstrate how the mental well-being has evolved into what we have today. *Chapter 3* discusses the issues about discrimination and formation of a modern system of care for the mentally ill. Questions like 'who

was responsible for persons with insanity?' and 'who would bear any cost associated with their treatment, and for how long?' etc. have been discussed to draw the attention of the lawmakers, academic thinkers, and medical practitioners. The chapter also analyses various Acts about such questions.

Chapter 4 tries to bring forward the healthy relationship between early American society and discrimination against the mentally ill, by illustrating the issues ingrained in 'alms-houses, poorhouses, and workhouses in the United States' and 'early hospitals and asylums in the United States.' An effort has been made in *Chapter 5* to show how the treatment movements have influenced discrimination against mentally ill persons. As the author discusses, the treatment movements were affected by discriminatory practices and attitudes happened in 'movement toward physical treatment,' 'the medication management movement,' 'the public health movement,' and 'the behavioral health care movement.' The chapter also discusses various issues under the stances, such as a) 'approaching mental illness as public health,' like how the public health approach affects discrimination, b) 'approaching mental illness as disability,' and c) 'approaching mental illness as behavioral health issue.' After elucidating the main issue by taking various definitions, perspectives, Acts, belief systems, and the discriminatory practices and attitudes towards the mentally ill persons, the author puts forward different forms of discrimination against the mentally ill and the influence of diversity through *Chapter 6*. Along with that, the chapter discusses the fundamental human rights of mentally ill persons and how these rights are affected.

Chapter 7 puts forward various controversies related to the issue of discrimination against mentally ill persons like comorbidity which refers to "the presence of two or more medical conditions in an individual" (p.111). Also, the chapter presents the controversies surrounded around the relationship between 'mental illness and other chronic health disorders,' 'mental illness and gambling,' 'mental illness and neuro-developmental disorders,' and 'mental illness and the

PTSD – the veteran connection.’ *Chapter 8* introduces the concept of ‘criminally insane person.’ Along with that, the chapter discusses how to deal with criminally insanes with the help of criminal justice system. There is also a portrayal of the issues involved in ‘rehabilitation and punishment,’ ‘post-incarceration resources,’ ‘voluntary and involuntary commitment from the patient’s side,’ ‘mandatory medication management,’ etc. Eventually, the book, through *Chapter 9*, presents the ways to prevent discrimination against mentally ill. Though the author discusses various ways that can be taken to prevent discrimination, the question ‘can we prevent discrimination against mentally ill persons?’ or “is discrimination against the person with mentally ill preventable?’ is still open for contemplation and debate.

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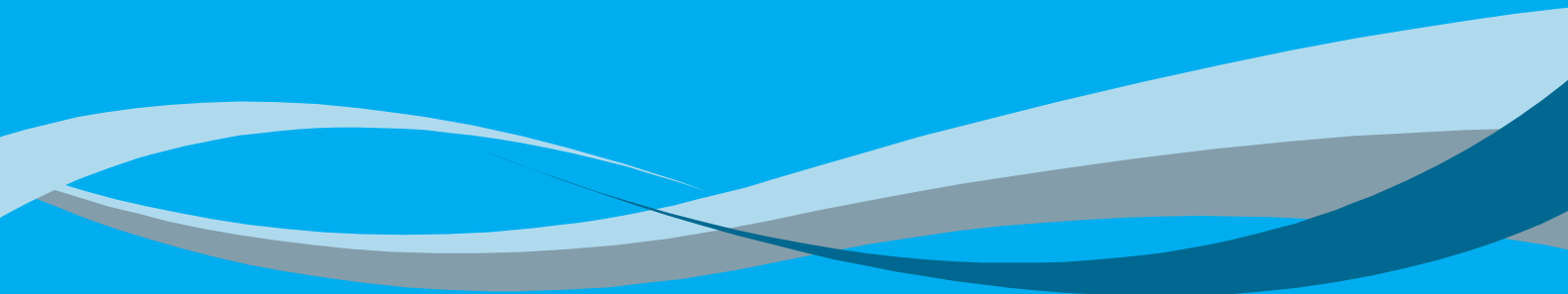
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