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CONTENT

Title and Author/s **Page**

PressAcademia
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THE INFLUENCE OF CYNICISM ON MOOD EFFECT IN ADVERTISING

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ABSTRACT
Purpose- The present study introduces the construct of cynicism in consumer behaviour domain. Specifically, this article investigates how cynical individuals behave differently from non-cynical individuals in marketplace.
Methodology- In other words, this study examines the impact of cynicism on the mood effect in relation to attitude toward advertising. The experiment examines the interactions between cynicism and mood states.
Findings- Data from the experiment shows that cynical consumers do have different ads information processing strategies from non-cynical consumers. Moreover, happy cynical consumers exhibit most favorable attitude toward the ads.
Conclusion- Cynicism is characterized by a perception of a pervasive, systematic lack of trust or integrity in human nature, which could be seen as a stable individual difference or dispositional variable. Empirical data suggests that cynical consumers do have different ads information processing strategies from non-cynical consumers. Furthermore, happy cynical consumers exhibit most favorable attitude toward the ads.

Keywords: Cynicism, mood, attitude.
JEL Codes: M30, M31, M37

1. INTRODUCTION

Cynicism research has emerged as an important area of investigation in consumer behavior, organizational behavior, politics, and social issues. The consensus emerging from these studies suggest that cynicism can influence consumers in evaluating products and advertising information (Kanter & Wortzel, 1985; Kanter, 1989; Mangleburg & Bristol, 1998; Obermiller & Spangerberg, 1998; Obermiller et al., 2005; Tan & Tan, 2007), employee behavior in organization (Bateman et al., 1992; Guastello et al., 1992; Anderson & Bateman, 1997; Wanous et al., 2000; Turner & Valentine, 2001; Stanley et al., 2005; Naus et al., 2007), citizens in political behavior (Agger et al, 1961; Schenck-Hamlin et al., 2000; ; Pinkleton et al., 2002; Vreese, 2005; Yoon et al., 2005; Kaid, et al.,2007), people's attitude toward ethics and morality (Turner & Valentine, 2001), and citizenship opinions toward social issues.

Research indicates that 54 percent of Europeans believe "most TV advertising is devious," and 42 percent of British consumers lack trust in brands today (Lidstone, 2005). Moreover, 43 percent of the American working population fit the profile of the cynic (Kanter & Wortzel,1985 ; Kanter & Mirvis, 1989). Cynicism has become a fundamental dimension of decision-making in consumer behaviour (Turner & Valentine, 2001). That is, the total media environment, films, and music included, cynical workplace, and an uncertain economy have produced a cynical decade (Kanter, 1989). Marketers, advertisers and especially scholars have apparently addressed focus on cynicism in consumer behavior.

Yet studies have produced mixed findings as to how consumer cynicism is used in marketing considerations, especially in advertising information processing. For example, Obermiller et al. (2005) reported that more skeptical consumers like advertising less, rely on it less, attend to it less, and respond more positively to emotional appeals than to informational appeals. Moreover, some studies have shown that consumer cynicism could be seen as an antecedent of skepticism, and is positively correlated with skepticism in processing advertising information. However, other studies have demonstrated that consumer cynicism is negative correlated with optimism, life satisfaction, and self-esteem. Furthermore, the relationship between consumer cynicism and the advertisement information-processing is not clearly understood.

A number of consumer studies have investigated how mood states influence consumers. Prior research has examined how mood states have impact on recall (Lee & Sternthal, 1999), purchase intentions, advertisements (Swinyard, 1993), and the amount of cognitive elaboration consumers engage in (Barone, Maniard, & Romeo, 2000). Specifically, in the context of information processing, many studies suggest that happy mood result in heuristic processing, whereas sad mood result in more effortful processing (Bagozzi, Gopinath, & Nyer, 1999). However, consumer research regarding cynicism on mood effects has not been explored.

The present research suggests that such mixed research findings and unknown relationships can be more easily understood and integrated based on the premise that consumer cynicism is an enduring individual dispositional variable. Which means this study takes cynicism as seeing selfishness and fakery at the core of human nature. Cynical individuals regard distrust of human nature the central feature of their overall view of life. Furthermore, cynicism is not simply a work attitude, nor the attitude toward some special objects; it is an outlook on life as a whole. In other words, like other personality traits, cynicism in general could be viewed as a dispositional variable.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Cynicism in consumption -Kanter and Mirvis (1989) reported that 43 percent of Americans are cynical. Understanding the behavioral pattern of these people is the priority task of every company. How to make the appropriate marketing, advertising, promotion campaigns and target the right segmentations usually means a lot. Taking cynicism as a marketing consideration becomes more and more important to companies. Research has presented that cynical individuals and non-cynical individuals have differences in persuasability.

The focus of studying cynicism toward the consumers, consumption, market and marketing strategy is getting more and more attention. The term "Consumer cynicism" concerns in particular the cynicism towards the general consumer market. Helm (2006) considered the consumer cynicism, same as other types of cynicism, is a learned attitude due to non-fulfilment of expectations and influenced by specific events.

2.1. Information Processing and Consumer Behaviour

Consumer responses in the context of advertising and marketing/brand communications are always related to information, processing and persuasion. Persuasion has become the chief tool by which important legislation gets passed, products get sold, and parents influence their children. The Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981) was developed to explain and organize past conflicts in persuasion literature as well as to guide new research. the ELM posits that for the sake simplicity, persuasion can be thought of as following one of two routes to persuasion: central and peripheral. The central route involves attitude changes that require much effort and thought to reach a decision. The second route, the peripheral route, involves attitude changes that occur primarily when elaboration is low, and it can entail thought processes that are quantitatively or qualitatively different from the high-elaboration central route.

2.2 Hypothesis

Cynicism and information processing- Kanter and Wortzel (1985) argued that cynical individuals are generally less like to believe information from any source and are especially likely to attribute advertising claims to selling motives rather than strict honesty. Obermiller and Spangenberg (1998) also suggested that cynical individuals rejected testimonial and demonstration ad appeals more than non-cynical individuals. Attribution theory may be relevant because it is concerned with how individuals assess the cause of others' behaviour. Under this rationale, cynicism is believed to result from a dispositional attribution (i.e., selling motives) for the claims of ads. In other words, cynics tend to deal with ad information simply with less cognitive efforts, via a more intuitive or heuristic route. In sum, cynicism research tends to suggest that cynics have a greater tendency to heuristic information processing, whereas non-cynics tend to more detailed processing.

H1: Cynics, will exhibit different attitude toward the ad (Aad) from non cynics.

Mood and cynicism- Mood states have the potential to not only influence the degree of cognitive elaboration, but also the valence of the material retrieved from memory that can be used as an input for information process or making judgments. As happy mood states result in less effortful processing and cynics are more predisposed to heuristic processing, happy mood state should cause cynics to engage in a minimalist level of information processing. On the other hand, sad moods encourage more extensive mental effort.

According Forgas (1995), there are four processing strategies existing for the influence of affect: direct-access, heuristic, substantive, and motivated strategies. Among these four strategies, direct-access strategies represent the lowest form of effort minimalization, even lower than heuristic processing. There is no motivation, the judgment is uninvolved, and the target has prototypical features. For these effort mimimalizers, this represents a preferred strategy (Forgas, 1995), which means that a preexisting evaluation is used for prototypical stimuli. That is, happy cynics would be most easily influenced by the ads.

H2: Cynics, under happy-mood conditions, will exhibit most favorable attitude toward the ad (Aad).

3. DATA AND METHODOLOGY

3.1. Subjects and Product Context

Sixty-four undergraduate and postgraduate management students participated in the study (34 females, 30 males). Subjects participated in groups, with groups randomly assigned to treatment conditions. Dog foods and service was chosen as the product category based on three criteria: Subject knowledge, Equal Gender Relevance (Gainer, 1993), and commercially successful. Two most effective TV ads were selected by the pretest.

3.2. Procedure

Subjects were told that the purpose of the study was to find out how people evaluate television programs and ads. Next, subjects were asked to answer the first part of the questionnaire, the 23-items Cynicism scale from Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory 2 (MMPI-2). Then they are asked to seat themselves in a comfortable manner to view the television. The mood induction television program was then played. When it was over, subjects completed a scale that measured post mood-induction mood scores (1=Sad, 7=Happy). Such a global measure of mood is consistent with past research. The ads were then played, after which subjects completed the remainder of the questionnaire at their own pace.

Measures- Attitude toward the ad (Aad) was rated on two 7-point items anchored by: “bad”–“good,” and “dislike”–“like,”. One 7-point items measured attitude toward the brand (Ab) anchored by: “dislike”–“like.” The reliability of these scales was sufficiently high (Cronbach’s alpha=0.79 and 0.90 for Aad and Ab, respectively), which is consistent with past research that has used these items (e.g., Yi, 1990, 1993). The questionnaire included two manipulation checks. First, a mood-manipulation check asked subjects to rate how they felt after having watched the program (-3 = sad, +3 = happy). Second, a check was performed for affective tone, with subjects rating the extent to which the ad seemed happy or sad (-3 = sad, +3 = happy). A measure of consumer involvement with the ad was included as a covariate. The present study utilized Mittal’s (1995) five-item adaptation of Zaichowsky’s (1985) Personal Involvement Inventory (PII).

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1. Hypothesis Testing

H1 posits that cynics will exhibit different attitude toward the ad (Aad) from non cynics, whereas H2 predicts that happy cynics will exhibit most favorable attitude toward the ad (Aad).

To ascertain whether cynicism interacted with mood state, a 2 (mood: happy, sad) X 2 (cynicism: cynical, non-cynical) MANOVA was performed on Aad and Ab. This analysis revealed a main effect for cynicism ($F = 4.028$, $p = .05$) for Aad as displayed in Table 1. Overall, cynical subjects rated the ads more favourably than the non cynical subjects (Mean cynics = 1.50 vs. Mean of non cynics = 1.15). Importantly, the interaction for mood and cynicism was nearly significant for Aad ($F = 3.684$, $p = .065$).

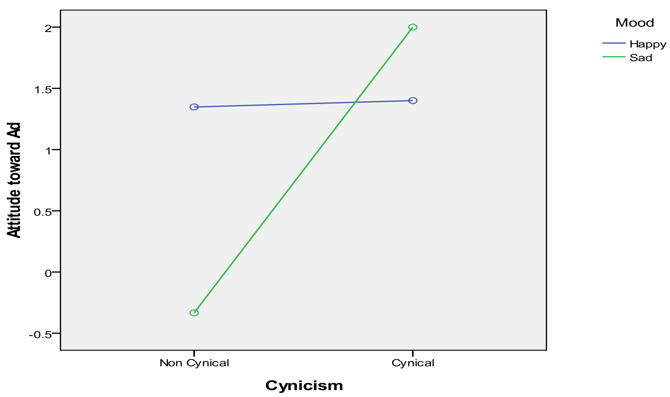
Table 1: Analysis of Variance Results for Attitude toward the Ad.

Source of Variation	Mean Square	Degrees of Freedom	*F* Ratio
Mood (A)	.741	.827	.371
Cynicism(B)	3.609	4.028	.054*
A X B	3.330	3.684	.065*

**p* _ .10.

As displayed in Figure 1 and consistent with H2, happy cynics will exhibit most favorable attitude toward the ad (Aad). In other words, happy cynics are most easily influenced by the ads. However, there is no same simple main effect nor the interaction between cynicism and mood on the dependent variable of attitude toward the brand (Ab).

Figure 1: Plot of the Interaction of Mood and Cynicism on Attitude toward Ad.



5. CONCLUSION

The objective of this study was to assess whether cynicism interacted with mood effects, specifically, to examine the interaction of cynicism, and television-program-induced mood states in the context of Aad and Ab. The findings yielded support for the hypotheses that cynics would exhibit more favourable Aad evaluations of ads, whereas non cynics would show no distinction for ad evaluations of Aad. Findings also supported the mood and cynicism processing differences that were posited to underlie the Aad findings.

Furthermore, although the present study provides support for the hypothesis for cynicism–mood effects, it would be of interest to examine the effect on broader product categories. It would also be of interest to see what sort of processing was occurring in different involvement level products ad processing. For example, Grunert (1996) suggested two kinds of cognitive processing: automatic processing and strategic processing. Which process is more applicable to cynicism–mood effects? A significant stream of consumer research has examined the effect of arousal in a persuasive communication context. In the context of the present study, arousal may have influenced the manner of processing used by subjects. It would be interesting to consider more deeply about the relationship and interaction between these factors in the future studies

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AN EXPLORATORY RESEARCH AMONG FASHION BUSINESS LEADERS AND NEUROMARKETING COMPANY EXECUTIVES ON THE PERCEPTION OF APPLIED NEUROMARKETING

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ABSTRACT

Purpose- In the last two decades neuromarketing is considered to be an evolutionary concept within marketing that makes use of neuroscientific tools in order to measure human related factors such as attributes, emotions, memory and perceptions which influence the consumer decision making. The application of neuromarketing to various industries brings up new opportunities as well as new challenges. This purpose of this exploratory study is to shed light upon neuromarketing literature and to investigate the perception of neuromarketing and fashion executives towards applied neuromarketing in global and Turkish fashion industry.
Methodology- Following the up to date literature review about theoretical and applied neuromarketing, in-depth interviews with Turkish neuromarketing executives and fashion leaders are executed.
Findings- The findings show that there are discrepancies and similarities between the usage of applied neuromarketing in the globe and Turkey. In-depth interview findings show that the perceptions of Turkish fashion executives about neuromarketing differ from previous literature and different priorities exist to apply neuromarketing in fashion.
Conclusion- The findings are expected to help developing the collaboration of applied neuromarketing in fashion industry and support managerial decisions in marketing related resource allocations.

Keywords: Neuromarketing, fashion, perception, Turkey, in-depth interview.
JEL Codes: C83, D89, M39

1. INTRODUCTION

The Importance of getting closer to the consumer in parallel to technological advancements has led marketing scientists and professionals to the search for seeking tools and methods to accomplish this. Meanwhile neuromarketing has gained popularity and related applications started to penetrate into various markets and industries in the last two decades. The desire to understand complex neural and emotional mechanisms that result in thoughts, perceptions, decisions and actions brought a variety of disciplines to work together (Perrachione, Perrachione, 2008). Like every brand-new concept it brought novelties as well as challenges to be defined, refined, explained and examined on both ends. On one hand neuromarketing companies, which supply industry counter parts with neuromarketing solutions, related results, action tactics and strategies, keep up with continuous exponential evolution of neuromarketing and on the other hand industries try to figure out how, where and when to benefit from this new platform. Among them neuromarketing and fashion, an indispensable priority for homo sapiens in the Maslow pyramid, got closer in the last few years. Despite fashion industry is based on fads and trends where all sensory stimuli may have a game changer role, the theoretical as well as the practical reflections are rare to find globally and locally.

Since early 2000s, neuromarketing has become a popular research area as well as a cross section of multidisciplines that strived for making sense of neuroscientifically collected meaningful data in terms of marketing. Having combined theories from not only traditional marketing but also economics and psychology, neuromarketing constituted the research problem itself or formed a vital method to reach to findings. Many industries such as fast-moving consumer goods (FMCG), telecommunications, banking, tourism etc. made use of these insights. Fashion industry among all remained rather shy although scientific findings did pull the industry into the exciting world of neuromarketing by stating one can love Louis Vuitton ads and be not aware of this fact (Ruanguttamanun, 2014).

This paper introduces the evaluation of the research problem and orientate the reader into the actual and potential relationships between neuromarketing and fashion. The literature review sheds light on foundations and actual state of neuromarketing with a global and local perspective. Profound methodology by referring to previous work and conducting in-depth interviews with Turkish neuromarketing and fashion business executives enable to reflect the perception of applied neuromarketing within the Turkish fashion industry and the ways how Turkish neuromarketing companies operate. Finally, the findings expand to new directions where priorities on both sides are emphasized and supply with conclusive remarks along with future pathways.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The idea that -conscious or nonconscious- all feelings, thoughts and behaviors are an outcome of neural activity was not even something to be dreamed of until last 3 decades. Even after the discovery of neuroimaging methods it was considered to be as an extravagant frontier science (Harrell, 2019). Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) Technology is the first means that is used for measuring brain activity with the purpose of marketing in late 1990's where the terminology was first used by the Dutch Professor Ale Smidts (Phan, Wager, Taylor, Liberzon, 2002). At a parallel timestamp Zaltman et al. simultaneously took consumer researchers to a hike by advising to investigate further both on conscious and nonconscious mechanisms with the help of advancing technologies (Zaltman, 2000). However, it is not until 2004 that neuromarketing has received increasing recognition, interest, cross scientific interaction and reputation thanks to McClure et al. who showed the logics of branding within the human brain which is a black box (McClure et al., 2004). Fact based expression of the importance of subconsciousness decision making and how it plays a major role in consumer decision making are another brick on the wall constructed by Zurawicki et al. (Zurawicki, 2010).

Throughout the historical evaluation of neuromarketing which does not last back to very recent years there have been 2 major topics that are discussed:

1.The Definition and understanding of neuromarketing

2.The Academical and commercial lay grounds of neuromarketing

As far as the literature concerned the majority of the works are in pursuit of not creating solid scientific measurements-based contribution to practical and theoretical foundations but rather reviewing the data, seeking for superior definitions and synthesizing multidisciplinary items to express different views. The time window of these attempts is usually based on the famous experiment of McClure et al. in 2004 and afterwards where categorizations that are source to these definitions are based on different views such as used techniques, theoretical foundations, interpretations etc.

The difficulty in drawing solid lines for limitations and scope of neuromarketing definitions is obviously clear. The very fact that neuromarketing is forged in a multidisciplinary way shows up in the trials of the definitions which are laid down by scholars with different backgrounds thus different focus areas. Consequently, the subjectivity in the definitions of neuromarketing is understandable. Earlier interpretations tend to be based generally to limit neuromarketing with brain measurements which shifts to include central and peripheral nervous system in conjunction with marketing. On the other hand, the measurement outcomes about merely the efficiency in advertisement area tend to expand to a wider perspective of marketing definition penetrating to neuromarketing that cover pre-purchase, momentaneous stimulus and post purchase evaluations of consumers and how these affect consumer decisions making in terms of brand, brand loyalty and traditional 7Ps of marketing (Lim, 2018). Hence the hope and hype of neuroimaging are finding space for themselves in the definition of neuromarketing by referring to the idea of solution before it even existed (Ariely and Berns, 2010).

Taking the evaluation of neuromarketing into account google trends show a fluctuating but a steady increase in the number of research requests, queries and publications. Another meta-analysis of neuromarketing studies used the search for neuromarketing in valid databases where 311 selected articles out of 394 between 2005 and 2017 are evaluated using cluster analysis and multi attribute decision making technique showed a similar result (Shahriari, Feiz, Zarei, Kashi 2019). The clusters for marketing strategies, Ads and Video Commercials, ethical issues, advertising message components, neuroscience in marketing, economics, consumer behavior, decision-making process and brand selection accumulate to the sum of the meta-analysis review where the popularity density is rather concentrated on marketing strategies with 32%, ads and video Commercials with 25% and ethical issues with 17%. However, the transitional change of interest in popularity density between the birth (2005-2011) and early ages (2012 – 2017) of neuromarketing related clusters marketing, economics and consumer decision making towards marketing strategies in a more and more digitalizing world is nothing but an awaited result. As far as the evolution of neuromarketing in Turkey is considered there are 28 post graduate thesis and 15 scientific articles written by researchers in Turkey where major contribution areas of these works address marketing, management and advertising disciplines (Sarı, Yılmaz, Ferik, 2019). In Parallel with the international trends due to the high cost and lack of qualified workforce the density is accumulated on timely shifted literature reviews, descriptions of methods, general surveys or application of low-cost neuroscientific measurement methods (Yücel and Coşkun 2018).

From a theoretical point of view before referring to commercialization of neuromarketing it should be explained that this is already one of the hot titles discussed between pro and anti-Neuromarketing supporters in the literature (Chark , 2018). As far as the terminology is concerned the question is whether neuromarketing should be considered as a branch of neuroscience that studies human behavior by benefiting from theoretical perspectives of consumer research or is it the consumer research itself contributing to the development of consumer theories by making use of neuroscientific methodologies (Plassmann et al., 2015). It is the first explanation that leans more towards neuroscience, medicine, psychology whereas it is the second part where the superior value is sought and delivered as far as marketing practices are performed by neuromarketing companies nowadays.

Within the classic marketing world there is always the urge and mutual request to deliver the superior value and to do that in a predictable, measurable and successful way. It is not new that many marketing campaigns with huge investments or new product solutions with high hopes do fail, resulting in negative return of investment (ROI) or even causing nonreturnable severe economic consequences (Castellion and Markham, 2013). The excessive numbers of companies in various markets and the technological rapid means of how consumers reach out to data, followed by consumption of the product/service solution contributes to marketeers evaluate what they have in their hands to benefit from more (Steven and Burley, 1997). Relatedly Krugman (1971) was one of the first marketeers who used EEG to analyze the relationship between brain activity. However, Gerald Zaltman and Stephen Kossyln were the first marketeers who had filed a patent for a neuroimaging tool that should validate whether an external stimulus provokes emotion, preference or predict and helps to predict consequences of the stimulus in a consumption or purchasing environment. That was the first commercial neuro-snowball rolled down from the top of the mountain (Hakim, Levy, 2018).

In the last decade neuromarketing has been the center of hope and the commercial starting point of many entrepreneurs and interested professionals with multidisciplinary professional backgrounds (Ariely and Berns, 2010). Though the hype is also there because of the lack of enough theoretical foundations (Plassmann et al., 2015), repeatable and numerous scientific experiments (Sarı, Yılmaz, Ferik, 2019) in global and local scale, procedural standards (Schneider and Woolgar, 2019), ethical issues (Stanton, Sinnott-Armstrong, Huettel, 2017). Despite that the growing interest, some successful solutions and the idea of limiting the rate of failure to a certain threshold supported the wide-spread of applied neuromarketing where industries such as gastronomy, product design (Spence, 2019) , automotive, (Erk et al., 2002), FMCG (McClure, 2004; Kühn, Strelow, Gallinat, 2016), fashion (Baldo, Parikh, Piu, Müller, 2015; Li, Wang, Wang, 2017) , Hollywood (Christoforou, Papadopoulos, Constantinidou, Theodorou 2017) show interest in collaborating with commercial consumer research or better said neuromarketing companies. Among many applications, car companies show a rising interest in neuromarketing. Ford Motor Daimler Chrysler uses medical research tools to examine the ways how consumers think, Hyundai Motor uses EEG tests in the design process of the cars and measures the reactions of the consumers as part of the brand strategy, Toyota investigates whether it is possible to demonstrate that cognitive neuroscience can help to design multisensory warning signals for drivers that are significantly better than an engineer can come up with (Kumar and Singh, 2015; Spence, 2019). A recent study about car manufacturers in Europe shows that the expenditure for innovative marketing drops every year between 2009-2015 whereas Daimler's neuromarketing touch on the advertisement campaign grew their sales by 12% in 2017 and increased to profit up to 24%. (Plakhin, Semenets, Ogorodnikova, Khudanina, 2018). Applied neuromarketing outcomes on film industry reflect that a Hollywood film's premiere performance can be predicted with up to 23-fold increase when compared with prediction methods that use traditional methods (Christoforou, Papadopoulos, Constantinidou, Theodorou 2017). When it comes to fashion self-report and brain data prediction accuracy methods are compared in a case study and simulation based on a sales data which is based on self-report resulted in 12,1% increase of the company gross profit whereas brain-based prediction increased the profit to 36,4% (Baldo, Parikh, Piu, Müller, 2015). Another publication is about the search to test consumer's willingness to pay more where fashion items are presented to the participants (Ramsøy, Jacobsen, Olivarius, Bagdziunaite, 2017) Fashion product design is the subject of another study where EEG and Eye tracking methods are used to demonstrate how human psychology and behaviors are affected by product appearance (Li, Wang, Wang, 2017) which is not reported to be used by a commercial company to the knowledge of this study.

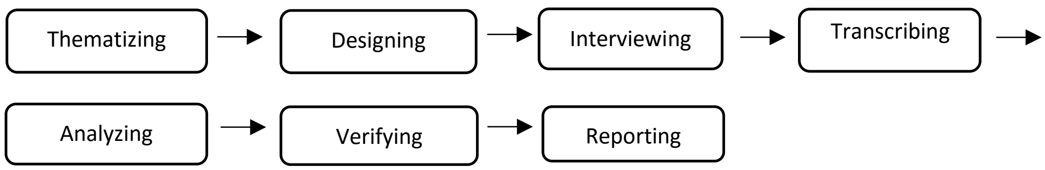
In Turkey the actual number of published empirical neuromarketing studies with collaboration of commercial companies are very few. Interaction with commercial companies such as Vodaphone, Turkcell, Turkish Airlines, Denizbank etc. demonstrate that the global tendency and rising interest for discovering new methods are there for topics such as advertisement performance, brand loyalty, brand personality, packaging, consumer decision making (Girişken and Bulut, 2014; Çakır, Çakar, Girişken, 2015) however how this studies are translated into marketing strategies, how these are performed and what the related results can not be exemplified.

3. DATA AND METHODOLOGY

The Design of the methodology framework is carried out according to the goal that it meets the research objectives which are aligned with the overall research aim. The inductive research covers a literature review in multidisciplinary setup which deepens and sharpens with the addition of key opinion leaders' insights about the potential or existing relationship of fashion industry and neuromarketing companies. Although scientifically a positivist philosophy would benefit from working with observable social realities where the end product can be law like generalizations which are similar to those produced by the physical and natural scientist (Remenyi et al., 1998), the nature of the fact that neuromarketing is far from being formulized with thick border lines neither in theory nor in practice as well as the scarcity of applications in fashion industry require an interpretivist philosophy in alignment with the exploratory aim of this paper. In this regard the study advocates that it is necessary to understand the differences between humans in our role as social factors. Ontologically this brings the outcome that this work is socially constructed and subjective based on the literature review and in-depth interviews. Epistemologically the subjective meanings as well as the social phenomena behind the evolution of neuromarketing and the relationship between neuromarketing and fashion are investigated on a local perspective. As being a part of the topic what has been researched here the axiology is in alignment with the interpretivist philosophy. The inductive research approach throughout this work aims to gain a deeper understanding of the meanings with regard to neuromarketing and its applicability in fashion industry by collecting related qualitative data with less concern on formulating generalizations. As far as the research strategy is considered the purpose is to describe and explain the defined social world which consists of the subjects – neuromarketing and fashion business leaders – inhabit and that is what this ethnographic research strategy is firmly rooted in the inductive research approach. The research method encompasses multi-method qualitative studies including previous literature reviews, case application examples and in-depth interview. With the probability research sampling strategy, the chance and probability of each case which is selected from the population will be known and equal for all cases. Relatedly the research population is constituted according to the impracticability of covering the entire population, potential budget constraints and time scarcity of researched opinion leaders. Finally, the data that is used for this research is composed by using cross-sectional data collection methods between January-September 2019 with a limited time frame (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008) in the pursuit of exploring insights about the perception of neuromarketing and its applicability in fashion industry in Turkey.

In alignment with the way of usage of in-depth interviews as a qualitative method, the structure is designed to seek deep information and knowledge compared to what is sought in surveys, interviews and focus groups. It aims to promote reflecting personal matters, values and experiences, occupational ideology, perspective and concerns (Johnson and Rowlands, 2012). This is achieved by making use of previous research categorizations (Eser, Isin, Tolon, 2011) and structuring a 7 steps approach as depicted in Figure 1 (Kvale, 1996).

Figure 1: In-depth Interview Process



In pursuit of finding the answers of research objectives the questions in the design of the interview are constructed in a way to elicit this information through the interview structure. Thus, categorizations and amounts of questions for cross-checking purposes to obtain information are reflected in Table 1.

2 sets of in-depth interviews are applied to 8 members of the target audience where the purpose of the interview is processed in the thematizing section. Remarkably although the total amount of questions is 18 in the interviews, several questions included motives belonging to another question category under business experience and background with a focus on marketing, knowledge about neuromarketing, willingness to make use of neuromarketing research, conducting neuromarketing research for different industries and ethical concerns to test the validity of previous given information and find out relevant possible attention points if there are any. Except the questions where the demographic Info is retrieved all of the questions are formed as open-ended so that the respondents have the possibility to expose their views and provide with detailed opinions on the chosen topics which prevent them from answering with a mere yes or no. The semi-structured form is chosen to contribute to the conversational flow of the interview so that the respondents do not feel they are being interrogated. For every Interview

Table 1: Categorizations of In-depth Interview Questions

Categorization	**Number of Questions**
Demographics	3
Business experience and background with a particular focus on marketing	6
Knowledge about neuromarketing	4
Willingness to make use of neuromarketing research	6
Willingness to conduct neuromarketing research for different industries	6
Ethical concerns	6

a face sheet which included time, date and place of the Interview is used along with a post-interview comment sheet where additional notes such as feelings, interpretations and similar comments are provided (Boyce and Neale, 2006). The responses are recorded via voice recorder application and transcribed manually via listening and transferring into written form. In the analyzing section content analysis is performed which is followed by triangulation with the literature review and reconfirmation of the responses from the respondents.

The sampling size for neuromarketing companies is chosen to include all hits on Google as they are all geographically in the same city where the study is performed, and no distinction or sub selection is applied in terms of any specific neuromarketing method or interested business area these companies are working in. The sampling size for the fashion industry respondents is chosen according to the independent brand evaluation reports of Brand Finance that are published in 2016, 2017 and 2018.

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Findings show that the variety of applied neuromarketing measurement tools and methods, industries collaborated or worked with and academical contributions on a global vs local comparison yield strongly in favor of the global side. Not only the literature review but also in-depth interview results confirm this finding. According to the findings there are preliminary neuromarketing studies executed for fashion industries on a global scale whereas the tools and previous works in other industries promise various aspects of marketing and business strategy to be studied and optimized for fashion via making use of neuromarketing. Referring to the in-depth interview results the level of neuromarketing knowledge and relatedly the neuromarketing experience in Turkish fashion industry are very low and limited to personal efforts of participants. However, the eagerness to learn more about neuromarketing is remarkable yet limited due to daily dynamics and expectations of business. Thus, Turkish fashion key executives do not know exactly what to expect which makes the assessment for a potential readiness difficult. There is one example where one Turkish fashion company initiated to make use of neuromarketing in the optimization of TV Advertisements for raising the awareness and level of attention of the spectators. There is a wide spectrum of industries where neuromarketing companies work actively with on brand loyalty, package design, brand identity, sales effectiveness in Turkey. Banking, telecommunication and FMCG are expressed as the prominent industries. The intersection of supply and expected demand in terms of neuromarketing is limited with a one-way direction driven by the neuromarketing company itself except if there is a commercial entity approaching a Turkish neuromarketing company wondering what and how to improve their marketing approach by using neuromarketing methods. There, key executives of neuromarketing companies express that methods are applicable for any desired setting and can be configured accordingly. However due to seasonal budget restrictions of commercial companies and pressure on sustaining the business, the choice is rather to proceed with either companies that have already made use of neuromarketing previously or if there is already a background knowledge about potential improvable aspects of that specific company or business on the neuromarketing side. The business models and operations of neuromarketing companies vary in the way the services are supplied. In-depth interview results show that the provided services can be based either on existing data that is gathered as a result of secondary research and consultative personalized solutions are formed up for the existing problem or the services can be based on personalized research and related solutions. The perception of neuromarketing is not consistently positive as it was found out in previous studies (Eser, Isin, Tolon, 2011) among the participants from fashion industry however this is sourced due to the limited exposure and not having the right time window to investigate, test and implement it into their operations which is also in alignment with the wider literature review. There are certain drivers and priorities for both sides in order to collaborate with a commercial company or apply neuromarketing in the fashion industry shown in Table 2 below. Turkish neuromarketing companies prioritize prior knowledge about the specific industry, past experience with the same company, a counterpart which asks the right

Table 2: Content Analysis

Categorization	**Compiled Outcome**	**Neuromarketing Executives**	**Fashion Business Executives**
Demographics	No particular difference	Mean age: 33 / Females: %66	Mean Age: 54/ Males: %80
Business experience and background with a particular focus on marketing	Particular Differences	Marketing-centered, originated from diverse occupations	Family enterprises that make use of corporate marketing trends with professional teams
Knowledge about neuromarketing	Particular Differences	Educated / Self-thought	Low / Self - Efforts
Willingness to make use of neuromarketing research	Particular Differences	Strong commercial / moderate academic interest	High willingness/ Skeptical
Willingness to conduct neuromarketing research for different industries	Particular Differences	High, if priorities are fulfilled	Moderate towards high if priorities are fulfilled

Ethical concerns	Moderate Differences	Moderate, assured by existing regulations	High, concern for current brand communication

right questions and ethical alignment with the client whereas Turkish fashion business executives do prioritize ethical and transparent approach, efficient return of investment, alignment with existing marketing communication strategies and flowless integration into continuing operations.

5. CONCLUSION

To the knowledge of the authors this was the first and only academic research that concentrated on neuromarketing and fashion as core objects on a global and Turkish setting. As a consequence of the research's factual nature and the methodology used to reach the goal of the work, induced outcomes are delivered. The work acknowledges previous research in the field of perception about neuromarketing including different professions and different perspectives and contributes with the findings of leading neuromarketing and fashion business leaders 'point of views supported by up to date literature review with this focus.

The research faced several challenges where some of them were expected due to the choice of exploratory research and related methodology. It is clear that the nature of this research is inductive and thus it involves the merging of primary and secondary data where the primarily collected data is based on in-depth interviews with key neuromarketing and fashion executives in Turkey which has also consequences as far as the limitations are concerned. First, as a result of its nature this study can not be referred as generalizable. Although the sample represents the top 5 fashion brands in Turkey within the last 3 consecutive years and 75% of Turkish neuromarketing companies that are physically accessible after secondary research, the variety of fashion companies in terms of scale and classification as well as the neuromarketing divisions of already existing advertisement agencies in Turkey present a wider platform which needs to be taken into account for wider generalizability. Secondly the choice of using in-depth interview created the challenge to cope with the time schedules of the executives which resulted in major difficulties to reaching out the high-level participants, several postponements, squeezed or prolonged sessions. Apart these technical challenges and limitations, because of the way how in-depth interview results are decoded and transcribed, the results are naturally subjective and prone to bias. Thirdly one major limitation is because of the choice of exploratory research which is in alignment with the aim of the study along with the research aim and the uncharted area of the status of Turkish neuromarketing companies, applied neuromarketing in Turkey and the approach of Turkish Fashion companies towards neuromarketing.

Comparing global literature findings and local in-depth interview findings, it is visible that globally the neuromarketing tools and applications are used much more effectively usually with mid-term profit maximizing purposes whereas locally even the existence and meaning of neuromarketing is missing. As far as Turkish fashion market is considered, hypothetically the desire for the sustainable partner relationship between the consumer and the brand is present and practically traditional marketing methods along with online and digital marketing tools are used effectively to realize this purpose. However mature markets, investigated in the literature, within different geographies and on different sectors show similar patterns at point of initiation for integrating applied neuromarketing into commercial entities 'operations. On the other hand, privacy statements and user information confidentiality regulations that are applicable for the creation of digital big data and used currently by commercial companies constitute a clear way to depict consumer decision patterns without conscious consent of the users as it was filmed in the movie "The Great Hack". Therefore, in an environment where conscious consent of participants is asked and full transparency over the processes and outcomes are enabled any doubts or suspicions along with misperceptions should be erased and neuromarketing can be applied for each and every industry where human emotions and attitudes are present.

This study discovered 5 different directions the research can be extended and expanded. Perceptions based on the usage of traditional methods in fashion can be cross tested with neuromarketing methods. Celebrity effect, outcomes of participating in a social event as a brand, gender dependent product-place-brand perceptions are only some of the topics that have similar academic references. All these applied techniques should contribute to the efficiency of return of investment on the fashion side, to the development of academic knowledge on the neuromarketing side and to the extension of neural correlates or attributes that are related to consumer decision making on the marketing theory side. Secondly the initial steps that are taken globally to apply neuromarketing in fashion should be started in Turkey as well. Future research on place design optimization, measurement of customer post purchase reactions and neuro-inspired product designs seem to be the most relevant and available application areas expressed by the Turkish fashion key opinion leaders. Neuromarketing techniques and applications can be two different or one merged future research direction. As far as techniques are concerned documentation of differentiated usage of method such as fNIR shall be documented and published globally to constitute the standard for its usage. Moreover, other used methods shall be applied at different industries, documented and published to extend the academic knowledge. The effects of not disclosing the applications, processes and the outcomes on the perception of neuromarketing by the public and various industries present themselves as empirical findings which can be further studied. Finally, it is mentioned in the literature several times in different forms that neuromarketing receives a lot criticism due to its young age. Therefore, especially future research on laying out global and local ethical standards and regulations to clarify any suspicion on consumer manipulation and to remove the lack of transparency are the recommended research directions.

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INVESTIGATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ATTITUDE AND IMPRESSION MANAGEMENT IN UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

Purpose- The aim of this study is to reveal the relationship between attitude and impression management based on their thoughts on impression management while revealing the relationship between attitude and impression management among university students.
Methodology- For this purpose, a survey was conducted with students within the body of Trakya University, Keşan Yusuf School of Applied Sciences, and the results were evaluated.
Findings- According to the results obtained, between the “Positive Approach” sub-dimension towards attitude and “Self Promotion” for the impression management sub-dimension, it is positive, moderate and significant; It is understood that there is a positive, strong and meaningful relationship between the “Negative Approach” sub-dimension towards attitude and “Intimidation” towards the impression management sub-dimension.
Conclusion- Accordingly, the students who show “Positive Approach” adopt the impression management of “Self Promotion”; It is revealed that the students who have a "Negative Approach" have adopted the impression management of " Intimidation".

Keywords: Impression management, social perception, attitude, positive approach, self promotion.
JEL Codes: D23, M12, M14

1. INTRODUCTION

One of the important universal tendencies towards human being is to try to have an idea about someone else with limited knowledge. The individual wants to make an impression about a person he or she sees, even for a short time. The first impression established affects the knowledge and expectations of the individual about that person. The observable traits of an encountered person give a clue to the individual to make inferences about him. Therefore, the first impression constitutes the first step in the social interaction of the individual.

Attitude is defined as the situation assessment of the individual regarding any event or object. Since attitude is a function of the individual's beliefs and values, it is effective in the emergence of thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. If the individual's attitude is based on the past, then it is a core structure and its change is often difficult. If the attitude is formed based on environmental influences, then it may be way more easier to change.

As a result of human being as a social entity and interacting mutually with other people, they gain some impressions towards the other side or give various impressions about themselves. One of the general characteristics of human being is to try to make an impression about other individuals based on limited information and clues. The individual makes inferences about the people he encounters by making use of his observable traits such as appearance, behavior, gesture, and facial expressions.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

In this part of the study, theoretical information about attitude and impression management, which forms the theoretical basis of the research, will be included.

2.1. Attitude

Attitude is one of the most obvious and indispensable concepts in social psychology (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1977). The concept of attitude can be defined as the reactive tendency shown by the individual as a result of the situations developing around him (Gün and Gökçe, 2017). The individual directs his attitudes and behaviors with his emotional integrity (Acaray and Günsel, 2017). Because attitude is an important tester of behavior (Erkuş, Sanlı, Bağlı, and Güven, 2000). Likewise, Fazio and Zanna (1981) defined attitude as a response to environmental stimuli that occurs in the mental world of the individual and turns into behavior. There are studies in the sense that attitude can be measured by an individual's cognitive level and intention (Kaiser, Wölfing, and Fuhrer, 1999). The individual's response to the same event and at different times is interpreted as the attitude level is stable (Schwarz, 2007). In another definition, the attitude is expressed as a tendency to respond generally positively or negatively according to the object of the attitude (Robinson, Stimpson, Huefner, and Hunt, 1991). The broadest definition that can be made can be given as the general assessment of the individual about the person, subject or object (Petty and Brinol, 2010).

Kan and Akbaş (2005), who quoted it from Ülgen (1996), emphasized that it is a phenomenon gained through learning for attitude, directing the behavior of the individual and causing bias in the decision-making process. If the individual develops a positive attitude towards an object, situation and person, he will tend to approach these, show affinity, support or help him (Uzun and Sağlam, 2006). Similarly, the magnitude, severity, and direction of the individual's response to their environment are shaped by the individual's attitude (Çapri and Çelikkaleli, 2008).

There are studies conducted that attitudes differ from opinions, values and beliefs (Üstüner, 2006). Accordingly, the most important point that separates the views from the attitudes is that the views can be generalized and the measurement technique is different. Opinions are individual reactions to events and situations that have taken place. Attitude, on the other hand, contains more general meanings than the opinion. It is the directing individual response to broad events and groups of people. According to Tezbaşaran (1997), people are aware of their views, but they may not be fully aware of their attitudes. There are also differences between value and attitude. The value is wider in scope than attitude. Value evokes accuracy, desirability, and ethical codes. It symbolizes beliefs about the preferability of opposite behaviors, individually or socially. The differences between belief and attitude arise from constant emotions created by perceptions and definitions. Faith often forms the basis of personal principles. When the individual wants to express his belief and opinion, he expresses this with his own attitudes.

Impression Management

Impression management is a broader and more comprehensive term than manifesting itself (Leary and Kowalski, 1990). It helps the individual in reaching his goals and developing his objectives (Bolino, 1999). Likewise, it has been determined by researches that impression management is affected by personal goals (Hooghiemstra, 2000). Thanks to the individual impression management, he will be able to create the image he wants in the minds of others (Harris, Kacmar, Zivnuska, and Shaw, 2007). Impression management is a concept attributed to the individual in the process of social perception and interaction. Social perception is the way the individual perceives actors other than his own and the perceptual organization he establishes about them (Armağan, 2012). The social interaction process is the interaction, attitude and behavior that an individual develops with others as a result of being a social asset. It would not be wrong to say that impression management is essentially a concept related to personal well-being and interpersonal relations (Uziel, 2010). However, O'sullivan (2000) evaluated impression management as the primary function of relational interactions. Impression management is also an element that affects the mobility of the individual (McDonnell and King, 2013). With the impression management, the individual aims to: maximize the reward-cost ratio by obtaining social and material results; to increase self-esteem and develop the desired identity (Doğan and Kılıç, 2010).

In the field of work, the employee can increase his admirability thanks to impression management (Harris et al., 2007). Impression management is a process in which individuals try to influence the perception of others about their images (Singh, Kumra, and Vinnicombe, 2002).

Similarly, Alga and Özdemir (2018), who quoted from Goffman (1959), stated that Impression management is often an element of social interaction. According to Alga and Özdemir (2018), impression management is "acting as an actor who plays the role of a person to realize her own interests, displaying certain behaviors and making statements to influence others." A different definition was emphasized by Aygün and Toptan (2015) as “the process of control and orientation that includes various behaviors aimed at influencing the perception and thoughts of other individuals in order to create the goals and identity that individuals desire". In addition to this, it is defined that individuals have "efforts to obtain a positive image through positive thoughts to be created on the target audience" (Gürbüz, 2018).

A conclusion that can be drawn from the definitions on impression management; is that impression management is a function of control, orientation, monitoring or impact concepts.

Formation of impression management behaviors can take place in two different types (Doğan and Kılıç, 2010). Firstly, it is that the behaviors towards impression management are rooted. The individual performs deep-rooted behavior as a result of a habit and does not reflect on it. The other is that the individual behaves situationally and reacts accordingly to events.

The concept of impression management was first mentioned theoretically and scientifically in "The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life" by Erwin Goffman, published in 1959. According to Goffman, daily life is a theater stage, as emphasized in the work of Shakespeare. Accordingly, the individual is an actor that performs in front of the others. It became a subject for social psychology in the studies by Snyder, Arkin, Shepherd, Ralston and Elsass. Based on this, impression management has been evaluated as perception manipulation until 1980's. After that, it has become a subject to be discussed in terms of organizational behavior. In the 1990s, it has come to the fore that impression management has many dimensions and it should be handled individually, organizationally and theoretically. In this period, impression management tactics were evaluated.

The individual can develop different tactics for impression management. Serin, Balkan, and Soran (2014), who quoted these tactics from Bolino (1999), defined:

Figure 1: Impression Management Tactics

Ingratiation	There are many good things about being loved by others socially.
	This strategy can be defined as flattery and favor to look cute.
	This tactic is one of the offensive impression management tactics, and the shared goal is to look attractive to other employees.
Self Promotion	This tactic is an effort to ensure that people are viewed as talented and competent in terms of their ability and special abilities.
	Thus, it involves efforts to demonstrate that it is the person who deserves them, both in gaining respect of the other party and in gaining interests such as "promotion" or "wage increase".
Exemplification	This tactic is that individuals work above and beyond their duties to look like they're dedicated to the job.
	The person who adopts this tactic desires to create the impression of an employee who comes to work early in the working environment, brings work constantly to her home, does not get permission unless compulsory and is identified with her job.
Intimidation	Individuals look intimidating or threatening and want others to see them as dangerous.
	The person using the intimidation tactic tries to gain social power by being seen as a dangerous person.
Supplication	It can be defined as showing destitute to appear in need of others.
	This tactic can also be used to get rid of some heavy responsibilities and to serve as a justification for possible failures.

When the figure is examined, it is seen that impression management includes tactics of ingratiation, self promotion, exemplification, intimidation, and ingratiation.

The number of publications investigating impression management and attitude behavior is limited in both domestic and foreign literature. All studies are given below. Firstly, domestic publications were examined and then foreign publications were evaluated.

The study titled "The Examination of the Impression and Attitude towards Doctors in the Context of the Discourse Created for Doctors in the Written Media" by Söylet and Çakar Mengü (2011) is the first and only source in Turkish regarding attitude and impression. The study has two stages. In the first stage, a questionnaire was applied to 300 people selected by the random and current patient position at Istanbul University Faculty of Medicine and Cerrahpaşa Medical Faculty in order to determine the way patients perceive their relations with doctors and the factors that cause this perception. In the second stage, using discourse analysis, the discourse designed for the personal and professional qualities of the doctors, the features and functions of the hospitals, as well as the doctor - patient relations were discussed in the print media. As a result, doctors need to tell patients and the society in general, using the media and other channels, the nature of their work, its difficulty, its stages, their education and the processes they have undergone. Negative perceptions and prejudices towards the image of the doctor in the society can be turned into a positive situation with various communication strategies.

The study titled "Body image perception, eating attitude and influence of media among undergraduate students of medical college in Delhi: a cross sectional study" was conducted by Sharma, Singh, Tiwari, and Chauhan (2019). The aim of the study is to determine body image perception, abnormal eating attitudes and the role of the media among undergraduate students of a medical school in Delhi, India. For this purpose, a survey was conducted with 370 students in India. Looking at the results obtained, it is understood that educational and preventive efforts should be made at institutional levels to promote a healthy body image and eating behavior.

3. DATA AND METHODOLOGY

In this part of the study, target population of the study, sample and method will be discussed to examine the relationship between attitude and impression management variables.

The target population of the study is composed of university students, and the sample of the study is students who study at Keşan Yusuf School of Applied Sciences. Students study in Banking and Insurance (BI), Computer Technologies and Information Systems (CTIS), Customs Business (CB), Business Information Management (BIM) and International Trade (IT). Questionnaires were delivered to students online. 168 questionnaires were completed completely and without errors and accepted as valid. Participation numbers of the departments and classes in the survey are given in the table below.

Table 1: Department and Class Distribution of Students

Department	Grade				
	1	2	3	4	TOTAL
Banking and Insurance	3	8	4	7	**22**
Computer Technologies and Information Systems	2	9	7	5	**23**
Customs Business	4	33	29	25	**91**
Business Information Management	0	3	7	4	**14**
International Trade	2	4	5	7	**18**
TOTAL	**11**	**57**	**52**	**48**	**168**

As can be seen from the table, participation in the survey was mostly from the Customs Business Department. The reason for this is that the author works in this section. Other departments participated in the survey as much as possible.

3.1. Scales of the Study

In the analysis section of the study, questionnaires were used as the main basis. The variables in the survey were measured using the 5-point Likert Scale (1: Strongly Agree, 5: Strongly Disagree). Surveys consist of three parts. In the first part, there are demographic and socio-economic questions. In this section, 4 questions were asked as age, gender, department and class. In the second part, participants were asked about attitude and in the last part, impression management questions were asked.

The attitude scale was compiled from the scale developed by Suna, Atik, Karaman, and Çok (2013) to analyze students' attitude development behavior. The scale developed by Suna et al. Consists of 52 items and 2 sub-dimensions. 302 questionnaires were evaluated for the development of the Attitude Scale. While the questionnaires consisted of 71 questions, the findings were reduced to 52 statements based on the findings. The questionnaire questions were collected in two sub-dimensions, namely Positive Approach and Negative Approach.

The impression scale was developed by Basim, Tatar, and Sahin (2006). 518 men participated in the study. The scale developed by Basım et al., Bolino and Turnley (1999) was used. The scale contains 22 questions in its original form.

3.2. Analysis Method

SPSS program was used in the analysis part of the research. Firstly, demographic and socio-economic data were analyzed. Then, validity and reliability analyzes were performed for the variables and finally, regression analysis and the relationships between variables were discussed. Demographic and socio-economic data of the students participating in the survey are given in the table below.

Table 2: Demographic and Socio-Economic Factors

Demographic Factor	Sub Group	N	% Frequency	Demographic Factor	Sub Group	N	% Frequency
Age	-17	45	27%	Department	BI	22	13%
	18-20	55	33%		CTIS	23	14%
	20 and more	68	40%		CB	91	54%
Gender	Woman	81	48%		BIM	14	8%
	Man	87	52%		IT	18	11%
Grade	1	11	7%				
	2	57	34%				
	3	52	31%				
	4	48	29%				

It can be seen from the table that students are generally 20 years and older (40%). The number of male students (87) is slightly higher than the number of female students (81). The lowest proportion of students among the grades shows the students who are first graders (7%). There is a slightly balanced distribution between Grades 2, 3 and 4. In terms of distribution among departments, the CB division is by far ahead (54%).

The data were evaluated by factor analysis for validity test. Factor analysis results are given in the table below.

Table 3: Factor and Reliability Analysis

	Factor	Expression	Explained Variance (%)	KMO Value	Cronbach Alfa
Attitude	Positive Approach	T5, T15, T16, T19, T22, T30, T31, T32, T34, T37, T45, T57	39,43	0,919	0,956
	Negative Approach	T13, T21, T28, T29, T36, T40, T46, T47, T49, T50, T55	28,87		0,947
Impression Management	Self Promotion	Y2, Y3, Y6, Y7, Y12, Y13, Y16, Y17	35,54	0,964	0,949
	Intimidation	Y1, Y4, Y9, Y11, Y14, Y19, Y21	43,21		0,928

According to the table, the KMO value of the Attitude variable is 0.919; It is seen that the KMO value of the Impression Management variable is obtained as 0.964. Therefore, variables are suitable for factor analysis in terms of KMO value (Özdemir, 2008).

As a result of factor analysis, the Attitude variable is divided into 2 sub-dimensions. The dimensions were named as Positive Approach (PA) and Negative Approach (NA) as in the original. The Positive Approach sub-dimension explains 39.43% of the total variance of the Attitude variable and the Negative Approach sub-dimension explains the 28.87% of the total variance of the

Attitude variable. The 2 sub-dimensions explain 68.3% of the total variance. The Impression Management variable is collected in 2 sub-dimensions, unlike the original. While the original scale was collected in 5 sub-dimensions, this study was divided into 2 sub-dimensions. The sub-dimensions were named as " Self Promotion (SP)" and "Intimidation (I)". 29 expressions for the attitude variable and 7 expressions for Impression Management were excluded from the data set because they received a factor load value close to each other or the factor load was below 0.5 (Altunışık, Coşkun, Bayraktaroğlu, and Yıldırım, 2010).

Cronbach Alpha coefficient was interpreted for the reliability of the study (Kalaycı et al., 2005). As can be seen from Table 3, the Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the Positive Approach, Negative Approach, Self Promotion and Intimidation was found above 0,900. Thus, the reliability of the scales is ensured.

3.3. Research Hypotheses

As a result of conceptual information and literature review, the hypotheses of the study were established as follows.

H1: Attitude in university students has a positive and significant effect on impression management.

H1a: Positive Approach attitude in university students has positive and significant effect on Self Promotion.

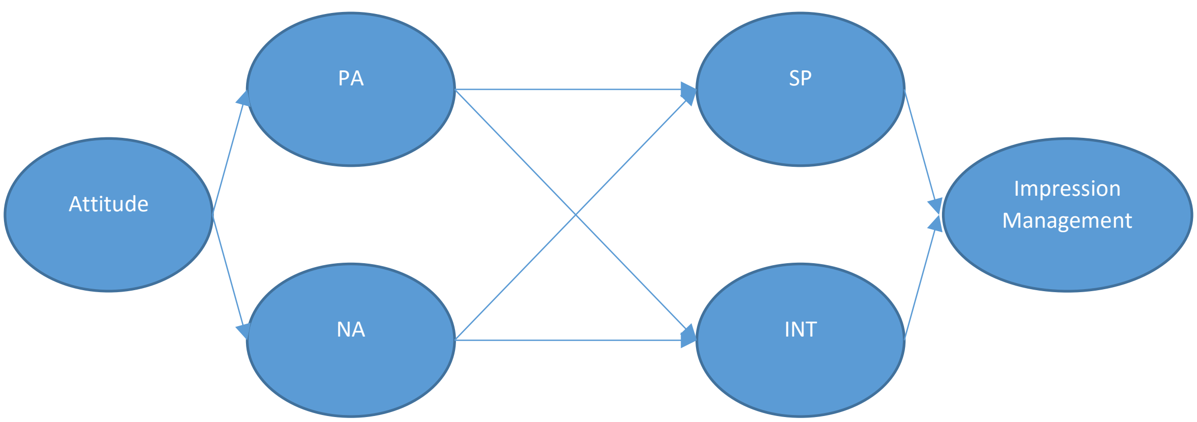
H1b: Positive Approach attitude in university students has positive and significant effect on Intimidation.

H1c: Negative Approach attitude among university students has a positive and significant effect on the impression management of Self Promotion.

H1d: The Negative Approach attitude of university students has a positive and significant effect on the impression management of Intimidation.

The model of the research was formed as given below by considering the hypotheses established for the study.

Figure 2: Research Model



As can be seen from the figure, the Positive Approach and Negative Approach sub-dimensions of the Attitude variable affect the sub-dimensions of Impression Management, Self Promotion and Intimidation. This effect has been considered positively and significantly.

4. FINDINGS

SPSS program was used to test the relationships between variables. For this purpose, relations were evaluated between the Attitude behavior sub-dimensions, which is the independent variable, and the Impression Management sub-dimensions, which are the dependent variable, by using Regression Analysis.

First of all, the relationship between the Positive Approach and the Self Promotion was analyzed (Table 4).

Table 4: PA-SP Relation

Coefficients[a]						
Model		**Unstandardized Coefficient**		**Standardized Coefficient**	**t**	**Sig.**
		B	**Std. Error**	**Beta**		
1	Constant	5,117	3,066		1,669	,095
	SOP	1,173	,086	,426	13,700	,000
a. Dependent Variable: PA						

According to the table, H1a hypothesis was accepted because the regression analysis between PA and SP variables is less than 0.05 (p = 0,000).

Secondly, the relationship between the Positive Approach and the Intimidation was analyzed (Table 5).

Table 5: PA-I Relation

Coefficients[a]						
Model		**Unstandardized Coefficient**		**Standardized Coefficient**	**t**	**Sig.**
		B	**Std. Error**	**Beta**		
1	Constant	10,613	,505		21,007	,000
	SOP	,282	,021	,424	13,595	,602
a. Dependent Variable: PA						

According to the table, H1b hypothesis was rejected because the regression analysis between PA and I variables was higher than p value (p = 0.602).

Thirdly, the relationship between Negative Approach and the Self Promotion was analyzed (Table 6).

Table 6 :NA- SP Relation

Coefficients[a]						
Model		**Unstandardized Coefficient**		**Standardized Coefficient**	**t**	**Sig.**
		B	**Std. Error**	**Beta**		
1	Constant	-16,804	1,383		12,148	,000
	SOP	,002	,038	,002	,054	,957
a. Dependent Variable: NA						

According to the table, H1c hypothesis was rejected because the regression analysis between NA and SP variables was higher than p value (p = 0.957).

Finally, the relationship between the Negative Approach and the Intimidation was analyzed (Table 7).

Table 7: NA- INT Relation

Coefficients[a]						
Model		**Unstandardized Coefficient**		**Standardized Coefficient**	**t**	**Sig.**
		B	**Std. Error**	**Beta**		
1	Constant	10,229	3,197		3,199	,001
	SOP	,927	,081	,368	11,498	,000
a. Dependent Variable: NA						

According to the table, H1a hypothesis was accepted because the regression analysis between NA and I variables is less than 0.05 (p = 0,000).

After all the regression analysis, the general condition of the research hypotheses resulted as follows.

Table 8: Hypotheses Results

Hypotheses	Result
H1: Attitude in university students has a positive and significant effect on impression management.	Partially Accepted
H1a: Positive Approach attitude in university students has positive and significant effect on Self Promotion.	Accepted
H1b: Positive Approach attitude in university students has positive and significant effect on Intimidation.	Rejected
H1c: Negative Approach attitude among university students has a positive and significant effect on the impression management of Self Promotion.	Rejected
H1d: The Negative Approach attitude of university students has a positive and significant effect on the impression management of Intimidation.	Accepted

While H1a and H1d were accepted from the hypotheses of the study, H1b and H1c were rejected. In this case, the H1 hypothesis is partially accepted.

With the acceptance of the H1a hypothesis, it is understood that university students who adopt a positive approach attitude behavior tend towards the Impression Management by Self Promotion.

With the rejection of the H1b hypothesis, it is understood that university students who adopt a positive approach attitude behavior do not have any interest in the impression management of Intimidation.

It is understood that university students who adopt negative approach and attitude behavior with the rejection of H1c hypothesis do not want to tend towards impression management by Self Promotion.

With the acceptance of the H1d hypothesis, it is understood that university students who adopt negative approach attitude behavior tend towards Impression Management to Intimidation.

5. CONCLUSION

The aim of this study is to reveal the relationship between attitude and impression management based on the thoughts of impression students about impression management while trying to create attitudes of university students. Since attitude is a function of the beliefs and values of the individual, it is effective in the emergence of thoughts, feelings and behaviors. If the individual's attitude is based on the past, it is a core structure and its change is often difficult. If the attitude is based on environmental influences, it may be easier to change. As a result of being a social entity and interacting with other people, it gains some impressions towards the other side or gives various impressions about the other side. One of the general characteristics of man is to try to make an impression about other individuals based on limited information and clues.

The analysis part of the research was carried out using the survey method. The target population of the study is composed of students studying in university while students studying in Keşan Yusuf Applied Sciences School. Students study in Banking and Insurance (BI), Computer Technologies and Information Systems (CTIS), Customs Business (CB), Business Information Management (BIM) and International Trade (IT). Surveys consist of three parts. In the first part, there are demographic and socio-economic questions. In this section, 4 questions were asked as age, gender, department and grade. In the second part, attitude questions were asked to the participants and in the last part, impression management questions were asked. The Attitude scale developed by Suna et al. Consists of 52 items and 2 sub-dimensions. Impression Management scale developed by Basım, Tatar and Şahin consists of 22 expressions and 2 dimensions unlike the original. Factor analysis and reliability tests were applied to the data set. As a result of factor analysis, the Attitude variable is divided into 2 sub-dimensions. The dimensions were named as Positive Approach (OLY) and Negative Approach (OSY) as in the original. The Impression Management variable is collected in 2 sub-dimensions, unlike the original. While the original scale was collected in 5 sub-dimensions, it was divided into 2 sub-dimensions in this study. The sub-dimensions were named as "Self Promotion (SP)" and " Intimidation (I)".

Regression analysis was conducted to investigate the hypotheses of the study. While H1a and H1d were accepted from the hypotheses, H1b and H1c hypotheses were rejected. Therefore, the H1 hypothesis has been partially accepted. H1a hypothesis was established as “Positive Approach attitude in university students has positive and significant effect on Self Promotion”. Students who want to create an attitude by adopting a positive approach with the acceptance of the hypothesis, think that they can make themselves loved by bringing their qualities to the fore. In fact, university students tend to draw a positive image while introducing themselves to their new environment in university life, which coincides with post adolescence. It also expresses its unique qualities in order to increase the likelihood of acceptance and adoption by the environment while developing a positive attitude towards them. In this way, he / she will be able to make friends with others with the same qualities or be amazed by his surroundings and join a group of friends. But for all this, they must first show a positive attitude.

The other accepted H1d hypothesis was that "The Negative Approach attitude of university students has a positive and significant effect on the impression management of Intimidation". The main factor in accepting this hypothesis is that the student has somehow adopted a negative approach and chose to communicate with her environment in a fearful, insecure, problematic and uncanny communication. The student who chooses to exhibit such an attitude will try to explain himself by forcing his environment in order to stay as a social group member. The environment will or will continue to notice the student. In this way, he will be able to stay social.

H1b and H1c hypotheses were rejected. The basis of this is that the relationship between “Intimidation Impression Management with the Positive Approach and the Self Promotion Impression Management with the Negative Approach” were perceived as opposite concepts by the participants.

The study was conducted only with university students in a limited area. The fact that the research was carried out with the survey method restricts the results. This work, which will guide the future studies, has a qualification of a milestone. The results can be generalized by making continuous improvements on this basis. For later studies, samples with larger participation can be used. In addition, a qualitative research method, whose reliability is considered stronger than the survey method, can be preferred.

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THE IMPACT OF FRAMING ON DONATION BEHAVIOR: A RESEARCH AGENDA

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ABSTRACT

Purpose - Intense competition in today's world has forced nonprofit organizations to dwell into marketing practices to get more share of the individuals' donation budget in order to achieve their mission and objectives**.** The aim of this study is to understand how nonprofit organizations should frame their donation calls as part of their marketing strategy.
Methodology – This paper aims to provide the key literature on the donor and donation related factors which have an impact on donation behavior and sets a research agenda in order to explore the relationships between framing of the donation messages, religious orientation, mindset and donation behavior.
Findings- Subsequently, the paper posits several propositions for future empirical testing.
Conclusion- This paper intends to make theoretical and managerial contributions not only to donation literature but also to the message framing literature. This paper highlights the next step to examine the relationships proposed and provide empirical evidence for the relationships between the constructs of donation type, donation behavior, religious orientation and mindset.

Keywords: Donation, message framing, monetary donation, nonmonetary donation, nonprofit organization, religious orientation.
JEL Codes: M10, M14, M31

1. INTRODUCTION

Nonprofit organizations were not used to focus on marketing but in today's world there is intense competition to get the most out of the limited amount of funds available to them from individual donors, the government, corporations, and foundations (Bendapaudi et al., 1996; Gwin, 2000; Hassay and Peloza, 2007). This challenge has resulted in increasing interest in marketing by nonprofit sector (Clarke and Mount, 2001;) so that nonprofit organizations started to focus on understanding what motivates individuals and institutions to donate (Pope et al. 2009) and on message framing for donation calls since message framing is found to be an important factor in nonprofit organizations' marketing campaigns (Grau and Folse, 2007). Sixty eight percent of total charitable giving in the United States of America came from individuals (Giving USA, 2018). The rest consisted of donations by foundations, bequests and corporations. These figures indicate that individual donations are significant part of nonprofit organizations' income. Peltier et al. (2002) suggest that most nonprofit organizations have not gained full understanding of their donor behavior and what can be done to influence those behaviors. Thus, nonprofit organizations should improve their strategies to keep and get more share of the individuals' donation budgets.

Firstly, it is important to note that to donate is a behavioral decision (Correa et al. 2015). Willingness to donate is defined as the extent to which an individual shows readiness to volunteer or to donate money (DeVoe and Pfeffer,2007). Individuals who supply the nonprofit organization different types of resources are called donors / volunteers / supporters and are described as one of the marketing mix elements in nonprofit marketing (Barry, 1995). Sargeant (1999) claims that donors' willingness to donate is crucial and the resources they provide are important especially for the small nonprofit organization which is unable to accumulate resources alone. "Gift exchange between the individual and the corporate group is less frequently described and less perfectly understood than other types of giving" (Sherry, 1983, p.161). Therefore, we need a deeper understanding of the dynamics between donors and nonprofit organizations in donation behavior. Previous studies in donation domain have focused intensively on the extrinsic factors such as donors' age, gender, education, income, residency, race. (Sargeant et al.,2006). Intrinsic factors such as donors' belief, values, feelings, motivation and religion have been studied extensively as well (Bennett, 2003; Sargeant, 1999; Schlegelmilch et al., 1997). Despite the growing body of literature about donor related factors that have an impact on willingness to donate the findings are contradictory. Moreover, donation related factors have not been examined much. One of these factors is the communication of donation request to donors; i.e. how the donation call is framed. How the donation call is framed has an impact on donors' mindset; thus, influencing donation behavior (Liu and Aaker, 2008). The framing of the donation call may create different mental associations and influence how people interpret events. Sargeant et al. (2006) found that communication of nonprofit organizations was perceived as important by the donors. Marketing communications affect the donor's perception of the quality of the services provided by the organization and thus influence donation behavior (Peltier et al., 2002).

It is evident that there is still a need for research that examines the impact of framing of the donation; i.e. donation type; on donation behavior and its interaction with one of the intrinsic factors; i.e. religious orientation. Religious people feel more inclined to give back (Women's Philanthropy Institute, 2014). As 84% of the world's population has some form of religious beliefs (PEW, 2012), it is important to understand how religiosity influences individuals to engage in donation behavior. This paper aims to summarize the donor and donation related factors and sets a research agenda in order to explore the relationship between framing of the donation request, religious orientation, mindset and donation behavior.

The following section reviews the relevant literature by focusing on extrinsic and intrinsic factors affecting donation behavior. Then some propositions are offered in order to set a research agenda for future empirical testing regarding the relationships between donation types, message framing and religious orientation. The final section concludes with a discussion about the potential contribution of this research agenda to the donation field.

2. FACTORS AFFECTING DONATION BEHAVIOR

2.1. Extrinsic factors related to the donor

Major extrinsic factors in donation include age, gender, social class, race (Sargeant et al., 2006). However, the findings of previous studies on extrinsic factors are not consistent.

Although it is found that age is positively correlated with volunteering (Bussell and Forbes, 2002; Radley and Kennedy, 1995), there is differing results. Some earlier research indicates that the amount of monetary donations increases with age but declines after the age of 65 (Danko and Stanley, 1986). Some others demonstrate that volunteering peaks at the age of 40 (Herzog et al., 1989; Menchik and Weisbrod, 1987) and declines in older ages (Table 1.).

While certain studies suggest that women, whether single or married, will donate more frequently than single or married men (Andreoni et al., 2001; Lee and Chang, 2007; Mesch et al., 2011; Women's Philanthropy Institute, 2010), others find no relationship regarding gender and donation (Belfield and Beney, 2000; Bryant et al., 2003). Nowell and Tinkler (1994) assert that, all other things being equal, women made higher contributions to charities. Similarly, Newman (1996) finds that women are more likely than men to donate when they see an urgent need. There is no significant gender difference in the case of risky financial situations, however, when there is no financial risk women are more willing to donate (Eckel and Grossman, 2000). Women donate more money because of their demonstrated tendencies to be more altruistic and empathetic than men (Dufwenberg and Muren, 2006; Eckel and Grossman, 1998; Simmons and Emanuele, 2007). Chrenka et al. (2003) who looked only at single men and women who headed households demonstrate that women tend to be more generous with their contribution. Married couples are proven to donate more than singles (Mesch et al., 2011; Lee and Chang, 2007) (Table 1.).

Education has been found to be one of the most reliable predictors of donation behavior (McPherson and Rotolo, 1996; Sundeen and Raskoff, 1994). Chrenka et al. (2003) has found that individuals with greater than a high school degree are more likely to make donations than those with less education. Scheepers and Grotenhuis (2005) findings support to the fact that people who are highly educated are more likely to be involved in donation. Highly educated people have been found to be more altruistic (Yen, 2002) and donate more (Andreoni et al., 2003). Again, since highly educated people are more aware of societal problems and are more altruistic, they volunteer more (Yen, 2002). Research by Kitchen and Dalton (1990) finds that as the level of education increases man's worldview expands, and so does his empathy. Eisenberg and Miller (1987) show evidence that the more empathic people are, the more they donate (Table 1.).

Much research has identified a positive correlation between an individual's income and his/her level of donation (Kitchen and Dalton, 1990; Lee and Chang 2007). The rich donate more (Repoport, 1988). Individuals with higher income and individuals who perceived themselves as generous donate more (Schlegelmilch et al.,1997). Carroll et al. (2005) elicit that the upper middle class is more likely to donate. Those who more cautiously save money and those who worry about their finances are less likely to donate (Wiepking and Breeze, 2012). Above mentioned factors are studied in combination as well. Unmarried and educated people with medium income level are more likely to give charities as compared to the other groups (Hoge and Yang, 1994). The findings of Bryant et al.'s (2003) study show that white people, married people, people with high income, old age, high education have high probability of donating and volunteering than others. Carroll et al. (2005) state that people residing in capital and main area are more likely to donate. Rural citizens (those living a certain distance from the urban area) are in general less educated and have lower income, hence are less likely to donate (Arcury and Christianson, 1993) (Table 1.).

2.2. Intrinsic factors related to the donor

Intrinsic factors in donation include religion, empathy, motivation and emotions (Sargeant et. al, 2006) and social norms (Radley and Kennedy, 1995). Radley and Kennedy (1995) note that the decision to donate and how much to donate may be affected by social norms. What organizations to support and how much to donate may be totally based on what is normative for the given group (Macaulay, 1970). Becker (1974) suggests that donation behavior can be motivated by a desire to receive social acclaim. Individuals may contribute to an organization because it enables them to signal their wealth in a socially acceptable way (Glazer and Konrad, 1996). Winterich and Zhang (2014) find that power distance as affecting perceptions of responsibility for giving: people living in high power distance cultures do not perceive that they are responsible for helping others because they accept social inequality. People might derive greater emotional rewards from helping close others rather than strangers or acquaintances. In a donation context, those identified as part of an in-group are more likely to receive help than those identified as members of the out-group (Dovidio, 1984; Flippen et al., 1996; Platow et al., 1999). The emotional benefits of donating are greater when an individual is giving to those with whom he or she has strong (vs. weak) social ties (Anik et al., 2009). The role of social connections is considered important in fundraising. Enhanced social connection can increase the trust of the people which lead to more efficient outcomes and influence individuals to make donation (List and Price, 2009) (Table 1.).

Donor motivation has an impact on donation behavior and can be altruistic as well as hedonic. Leeds (1963) defines altruistic behavior as an end in itself, not directed at gain, whereas Sherry (1983) defines it as the donor's "attempt to maximize the pleasure of the recipient" (p. 160). The emphasis is not on "self" but on the intention to please the exchange partner. Smith (1980) suggests a range of donor behavior on a continuum that he terms as "developmental process" from hedonic to altruistic which increases the degree of internalization of attitude. Sober (1988) identifies 'vernacular altruism', the pure motive of benefiting others. To qualify as a vernacular altruistic act, the giver must consciously formulate the intention to benefit the other and the act must be motivated mainly out of consideration of another's needs rather than one's own. Giving money to an organization may or may not fit in this definition depending on the donor's intent. Sargeant et al. (2006) categorize the benefits the donors may get as 'demonstrable' (donors are seeking recognition), 'emotional' (donors are seeking to "feel good"), and 'familial' (assist the need of a loved one through their support) where each category of benefits is related to a selfish reason. Donors may have a mixture of altruistic and egoistic motivations; identifying with the recipient is an egoistic act, while the desire to remain anonymous is altruistic. "Socially conscious consumer" is another term which is closely related to altruism but with an awareness of societal needs. This mixture of altruistic and egoistic motivations, referred to as "warm-glow" giving by Andreoni (1989) (Table 1.).

It is a common thought that the desire for giving stems from religion, as most major religions are centered around a mission of "helping others" (Yao, 2015). Approximately 84% of the world's population has some form of religious beliefs (PEW, 2012),so, it is important to understand how religiosity influences individuals to engage in charitable behaviors. Most religious organizations emphasize the importance of altruistic acts, and for this reason it frequently has been suggested that a positive relationship should exist between religiousness and helping (Annis, 1976; Batson, 1976; Batson and Gray, 1981; Benson et al., 1980; Bernt, 1989; Hunsberger and Platonow, 1986). For instance, Carabain and Bekkers (2012) investigate the differences in behavior between people belonging to three major religions: Islam, Christianity and Hinduism. Results show that donation behavior varies depending upon the religion; Muslims engage relatively more in donation whereas Hindus engage less. Individuals considering religion to be important to them are more likely to donate (Schlegelmilch et al., 1997). It is generally shown and agreed upon that religion contributes positively to donations (Women's Philanthropy Institute, 2014). Eckel and Grossman (2004) have explained about the responsiveness of giving to secular causes by religious and nonreligious people. The results indicate not much difference between the responses of religious and nonreligious people in pattern of giving. Reitsma et al. (2006) study has shown that people who are church visitors and people who are serious about religious activities are more willing to donate. These research findings suggest that religious people may have different priorities which lead to the concept of intrinsic and extrinsic religious orientation (Table 1.).

Allport and Ross (1967) intrinsic-extrinsic model of multidimensional religiousness has been used in the investigation of religiosity and altruism. Intrinsic religiousness applies to individuals who internalize their religion and maintain a devout, consistent and wholly invested orientation. Extrinsic religiousness, on the other hand, describes individuals who attend church for external reasons, such as becoming casually involved, seeking social rewards. Compared to extrinsically oriented believers, intrinsically oriented people are more empathetic toward others (Watson et al., 1984), score higher on self-reported altruism (Chau et al., 1990), and are more charitable (Hunsberger and Platonow, 1986). Studies reveal that feeling empathy for the person in need is an important motivator of helping (Aderman and Berkowitz, 1970; Coke et. al., 1978; Harris and Huang, 1973; Krebs, 1975; Mehrabian and Epstein, 1972) (Table 1.)

Religion/helpfulness studies have identified two types of help: spontaneous and nonspontaneous (Batson and Ventis, 1982; Benson et al.,1980; Bernt, 1989; Hunsberger and Platonow, 1986). Spontaneous helping measures assess those behaviors which are of an unplanned nature. This form of help might include stopping to aid an accident victim, responding to an immediate request for help or giving support to an indigent person. Nonspontaneous help, on the other hand addresses behaviors that are planned, many of which might involve volunteer work. Individuals who adopt an intrinsic religious orientation prefer nonspontaneous helping opportunities, while those who adopt a quest approach prefer spontaneous helping behaviors. As discussed, there is a traditional proposition that being religious makes people more generous. However, Sablosky (2014) criticizes these studies of not providing serious evidence for that traditional assumption based on methodological issues.

Table 1: Summary of the Major Studies on Donor Related Factors Affecting Donation Behavior

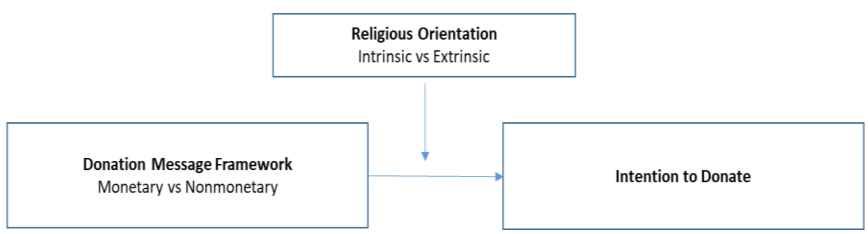
Factors	Supporting Literature	Result
Extrinsic Factors		
Age	Bussell and Forbes (2002); Radley and Kennedy (1995); Danko and Stanley (1986); Herzog et al. (1989); Menchik and Weisbrod (1987).	The literature is not consistent on the relationship between age and donation behavior.
Gender	Andreoni et al. (2001); Lee and Chang (2007); Mesch et al. (2011); Women's Philanthropy Institute (2010); Belfield and Beney (2000); Bryant et al. (2003); Nowell and Tinkler (1994); Dufwenberg and Muren (2006); Eckel and Grossman (1998); Simmons and Emanuele (2007); Chrenka et al. (2003).	The literature is not consistent on the relationship between gender and donation behavior.
Education	McPherson and Rotolo (1996); Sundeen and Raskoff (1994); Chrenka et al. (2003); Scheepers and Grotenhuis (2005); Yen (2002); Andreoni et al. (2003); Kitchen and Dalton (1990); Eisenberg and Miller (1987).	Education has been found to be one of the most reliable predictors of donation behavior. Findings suggest people who are highly educated are more likely to be involved in donation
Income	Kitchen and Dalton (1990), Lee and Chang (2007); Repoport (1988); Schlegelmilch et al. (1997); Carroll et al. (2005); Wiepking and Breeze (2012).	Most of the research findings indicate a positive correlation between an individual's income and his/her level of donation.

Intrinsic Factors		
Social norms	Radley and Kennedy (1995); Macaulay (1970); Becker (1974); Glazer and Konrad (1996); Winterich and Zhang (2014); Dovidio (1984); Flippen et al. (1996); Platow et al. (1999); (Anik et al. (2011); List and Price (2009).	Many of donation decisions are influenced by social norms.
Motivation	Leeds (1963); Sherry (1983) Smith (1980); Sober (1988); Sargeant et al. (2006); Andreoni (1989).	Donors may have altruistic, egoistic or a mixture of altruistic and egoistic motivations. It is difficult to empirically measure the true effect one's motivation has on donating.
Religion	Yao (2015); PEW (2012); Annis (1976); Batson (1976); Batson and Gray (1981); Benson et al. (1980); Bernt (1989); Hunsberger and Platonow (1986); Women's Philanthropy Institute (2014); Reitsma et al. (2006); Allport and Ross (1967); Watson et al. (1984); Chau et al. (1990); Hunsberger and Platonow (1986).	It is generally shown and agreed upon that religion contributes positively to donations. However, compared to extrinsically oriented believers, intrinsically oriented people are more empathetic toward others and are more charitable.

Among donor related factors religious orientation and its interaction with donation type and donation behavior is the focal point of the propositions in this research agenda.

Although there is a traditional proposition that being religious makes people more generous the degree may differ depending on individual's religious orientation. Thus, religious orientation and its interaction between framing of the donation message and donation behavior deserves special attention (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Conceptual Model



The next section focuses on the framing effect in donation behavior and how mindset is triggered.

2.3. FRAMING EFFECT IN DONATON BEHAVIOR

Peltier et al. (2002) suggest that marketing communications affect the donor's perception of the quality of the services provided by the organization. Framing of the nonprofit organization's need call as a tool for communication has an impact on donation behavior. Framing is one of the communication strategies used to influence consumer perceptions, judgments and decisions about a particular issue. Tversky and Kahneman (1981) use the term "decision frame" to refer to the decision-maker's conception of the acts, outcomes, and contingencies associated with a particular choice. It is often possible to frame a given decision problem in more than one way. Although there is extensive research about framing effects in the literature there have been only a few studies mentioned below which are designed to test framing effects in the context of donation.

Schibrowsky and Peltier (1995) studied the framing effect of the donation amount and have found that donation amount is influenced by the scale offered That is, most donors use the lowest value on the scale as the benchmark against which they judge the appropriateness of their intended contribution. A donor evaluates his/her intended contribution by comparing it against this lowest suggested amount. Gourville's (1998) study was about reframing of a transaction from an aggregate expense to a series of small daily or ongoing expenses ("pennies-a-day" strategy). Similar to "pennies-a-day" transaction framing study, temporal framing is also proved to work in the charitable context (Chandran and Menon, 2004). Statistics that objectively refer to the same data (such as number of children dying due to poverty) can be framed differently in terms of time frame such as every year, every month, every day or even every minute. Chandran and Menon (2004) have shown that every day framing has a positive effect on donation decision because it makes risks appear more proximal and concrete than every year framing, resulting in increased risk perceptions, intentions to execute precautionary behavior, and anxiety about the hazard. When a statistic about a hazard is presented in a day frame, the risk is perceived as more proximal and concrete than when presented in a year frame, thus enhancing the effectiveness of a message focused on negative consequences. Based on the work of Chandran and Menon (2004) framing the child poverty issue as '30,000 children die each day due to poverty' (UNICEF 2005) will be more likely to encourage donation than other alternative temporal framings.

Altruistic versus egoistic value framing tactics have also been used in promoting charitable donations. A charitable message can be framed through 'help others' (altruistic value) messages (e.g. 'The donation will grant you a great feeling of selflessness') or 'help self' (egoistic value) ones (e.g. 'The donation will grant you a great feeling of self- satisfaction') (Brunel and Nelson, 2000; Nelson et al., 2006). Episodic framing is more persuasive compared to thematic framing in the donation decision. An episodic frame would focus on an individual, whereas a thematic frame would focus on the issue. Vivid information attracts more attention than abstract propositions, and hence increases persuasion (Nisbett and Ross, 1980; Frey and Eagly, 1993). Vivid presentations are examined through stories depicting a person in need in the charitable context. People become more mentally and emotionally engaged when they process information about specific individuals than when they process information about abstract targets (Sherman et al., 1999). People contribute more to a nonprofit organization when the contributions are framed to benefit a family that has already been selected from a list than when told that a family will be selected from the same list (Small and Loewenstein, 2003). The audience tends to be more interested in and influenced by case stories with anecdotal evidence than abstract information with statistical evidence (Taylor and Thompson, 1982). Kogut and Ritov (2005) report that people have a greater willingness to help identified victims than anonymous ones, since identified victims evoking increase arousal and a greater tendency to donate.

2.3.1. DONATION TYPE

Framing effect of the donation type deserves special attention as few research has been conducted to study framing effect of donation type; so called as monetary vs nonmonetary donation.

A recent study by Gershon and Cryder (2016) demonstrate that people evaluate corporations more favorably when they donate goods rather than money, while the opposite pattern holds true for individual donors. Consumers value authentic motives for corporate donations, and view donations of goods (vs. money) as fundamentally more authentically motivated. Corporate monetary donations are perceived as strategic and less authentically motivated than equivalent donations of goods. Corporations receive less credit for donating money than for donating equivalent goods and benefit less in terms of purchase intent.

A significant interaction was found between donation type and brand image. When the company was described as having a low-warmth image, people rated the company more favorably for donations of goods (vs. money). When the company was described as high in warmth there was no difference in charitable credit rating based on donation type (Gershon and Cryder, 2016).

2.3.2 INDIVIDUAL MINDSET IN DONATION BEHAVIOR

Donation type has an impact on the donors' mindset. Research by Liu and Aaker (2008) reveals that asking individuals to think about "how much time they would like to donate" (versus "how much money they would like to donate") to a nonprofit organization increases the amount that they ultimately donate. Different mindsets are activated by time versus money. People are more generous when they are first primed with a concept that makes them feel personally engaged in a cause (donating time; volunteering) than when they are primed with a concept that distances them from the cause (donating money). Considering spending time with a cause activates emotional thoughts about giving. How interested are you to volunteer" (a time-ask), versus, "how interested are you to donate money" (a money-ask), activate distinct mindsets, due to the different mental associations of these concepts. As a result, a nonprofit organization request is more successful when the donor is first approached with a time-ask, rather than a money-ask. Because spending time is inherently a personal action, thinking about time activates thoughts of personal emotions and goals; on the other hand, because money is a major accounting unit, thinking about money activates associations of economic value and exchanges. Thus, answering a question about time activates an emotional mindset in which people interpret events based on their emotional meaning, whereas answering a question about money activates a transactional mindset in which people evaluate the utility of events. Thinking about time activates goals of emotional well-being, whereas thinking about money suppresses such goals by activating goals of economic utility (Brendl et al, 2003). Emotions are often considered to be critical in determining the willingness to donate (Small and Verrochi, 2009). As a result, considering donating time leads the individual to focus on the emotional implications of helping others, thereby bring the nonprofit organization closer to the self. Asking of time reduces psychological distance to the nonprofit organization, and increases subsequent actual donations; on the other hand, a money-ask highlights the exchange nature of a donation, thereby distances the donor from the nonprofit organization and thus decreases actual donations.

Research in the literature about monetary vs nonmonetary framing of the donation is limited to how the corporations are perceived. Research about individual giving behavior is limited to money vs time (nonmonetary). There is a gap in the literature about individual giving behavior which examines monetary vs nonmonetary donation in terms of goods (rather than time).

3. RESEARCH PROPOSITIONS

Asking for time (i.e. a nonmonetary request) leads the individual to focus on the emotional implications of helping others, thereby increases subsequent actual donations (Brendl et al., 2003). Asking for goods is a nonmonetary donation request as time. So, we assume that asking for goods as nonmonetary donation would increase donations as well. Therefore, we posit that:

P1 *Individuals are more likely to donate when they receive nonmonetary (i.e. goods) donation requests compared to monetary donation requests.*

Findings show that intrinsically religious believers are more empathetic compared to extrinsically oriented believers. (Watson et al., 1984). Thus, we propose that:

P2 a) *Intrinsically religious individuals are more likely to donate compared to extrinsically religious individuals when they receive nonmonetary donation requests.*

P2 b) *Extrinsically religious individuals are more likely to donate compared to intrinsically religious individuals when they receive monetary donation requests.*

Previous studies show that monetary donation requests are perceived as strategic thus trigger rational mindset (Gershon and Cryder,2016) whereas asking for time (nonmonetary donation) triggers emotional mindset (Liu and Aaker, 2008). People give more when under an emotional mindset rather than a transactional mindset (Liu and Aaker, 2008). We need a closer look at how donation type influences mindset for intrinsic and extrinsic religious individuals. Accordingly, the following proposition is addressed to be explored:

P3 a) *Nonmonetary donation request triggers emotional mindset more than monetary donation request thus causes intrinsically religious individuals to donate more compared to extrinsically religious individuals.*

P3 b) *Monetary donation request triggers rational mindset more than nonmonetary donation request thus causing extrinsically religious individuals to donate more compared to intrinsically religious individuals.*

3. CONCLUSION

Intense competition in the today’s world has forced nonprofit organizations to introduce marketing to get more share of the individual’s donation budget. In this paper the donor and donation related factors that have an impact on donation behavior have been summarized. The aim is to understand how nonprofit organizations should frame their donation call to influence donation behavior. This study has discussed the constructs of donation type, donation behavior, religious orientation and situation specific thinking style. This paper intends to make theoretical and managerial contributions not only to donation literature but also to the message framing literature.

The next step is to examine the relationships proposed above which will provide empirical evidence for the relationship between the constructs of donation type, donation behavior, religious orientation and mindset. We believe that further empirical testing of the propositions above could be a starting point for nonprofit organization senior management to formulate the appropriate fundraising strategy. The findings of an empirical study would provide better understanding to nonprofit organizations about their indivudual contributors’ conception associated with a particular donation request; i.e. their thinking styles and how their religious orientation interacts with the donation request.

If our propositions are supported by empirical research the practical implications for nonprofit organizations could be to design their donation calls to trigger emotional mindset; i.e. they will frame their donation calls by asking for a nonmonetary contribution. Nonprofit organizations rely on donations in order to pursue their charitable intiatives. Traditional fundraising asks individuals or organizations to make a monetary contribution. If our proposition is supported monetary requests should be avoided as they trigger rational mindset in both religious orientations. In addition to traditional fundraising nonprofit organizations form partnerships with for-profit organizations in which their consumers buy products and part of the purchase price is donated to the nonprofit organization. Such partnerships should be designed with caution as they may trigger rational mindset and decrease donations as as well. Based on the results of the empirical researh nonprofit organizations can make best use of their marketing budget and formulate the appropriate fundraising strategy by targeting the right audience. Knowing what demographic group they are trying to reach will determine every aspect of their campaign, including the platforms, messages, and language they use to communicate. They may tailor their messages and calls to action.

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