**Демонстрационный вариант и методические рекомендации
по направлению «Менеджмент»**

Профили:
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«Маркетинговые коммуникации и реклама в современном бизнесе»;
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«Управление проектами: проектный анализ, инвестиции, технологии реализации»;
«Управление человеческими ресурсами»;
«Экономика впечатлений: менеджмент в индустрии гостеприимства и туризме»

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Theories and studies on branding are emerging in many contexts. The two major contributions of this study are to progress the notion of «retailer as a brand» and assess the possibility that different market segments may perceive a different brand meaning from the same retailer (brand).

The research develops the «retailer as a brand» through a quantitative assessment of the link between two of the key dimensions of brand knowledge of *Keller (1993)*, namely brand attitudes and brand attributes. Brand attitudes are a higher (more abstract) level of a consumer's brand knowledge, representing a summary judgment or overall evaluation of a brand. Brand attributes operate at a more concrete, operational level in terms of the retailer– consumer interaction. The study selects one specific retailer (Wal-Mart), representing a specific retail category (discount department store) in a specific country (Canada). Wal-Mart is a suitable choice to start a new research program because of its high awareness among potential respondents, and its status as the world's largest retailer.

Brand morphing refers to the notion that different consumers may associate different meaning to the same corporate brand. That is, multiple brand meanings can co-exist. *Kates and Goh (2003)* are the leading proponents of brand morphing, using qualitative cases. *Berthon et al. (2009)* provide a theoretical frame for brand morphing, emphasizing the theory of mutual knowledge. *De Chernatony et al. (2009)* recognize the paucity of studies of brand morphing. While conceptual studies of brand morphing are rare, quantitative tests of brand morphing seem to be non-existent. The current study fills this void.

Three literatures are critical for the current study. Firstly, the retailer as a brand literature forms the basis of the conceptual model. Such a literature connects to the corporate branding and brand association theories that support the model. Secondly, segmentation literature facilitates the testing for brand morphing. Thirdly, the brand morphing literature is relevant. One of the research

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[1] Подготовлена на основе: Merrilees B., Miller D. Brand morphing across Wal-Mart customer segments // *Journal of Business Research,* 2010, Vol. 63, pp. 1129–1134.

objectives is to be the first study to demonstrate quantitatively, brand morphing. *Davies (1992)*, in his pioneering work, enunciates two meanings of retailer as a brand, which include the use of private (retailer-labeled) product brands and a more holistic or organizational conception of the retailer brand. Subsequently, researchers actively apply the brand concept to retailing *(Ailawadi & Keller, 2004; Birtwistle & Freathy, 1998; Burt & Sparks, 2002; Davies & Chun, 2002; Merrilees & Fry, 2002)*. Most of the subsequent research, including most of the 2004 special issue in the Journal of Retailing *(Grewal et al., 2004)*, focuses more on the retailer (product) labels component. Less research applies to the retailer as a brand in the corporate branding sense. *Burt and Sparks (2002)* illustrate the concept with four UK supermarkets. *Davies and Chun (2002)* show that there may be a gap in the retailer brand image between the external (consumer) and internal (employee) perspective.

A small number of studies assess which retailer brand attributes form the strongest brand associations. *Selnes (1993)* links a single attribute, product performance quality, to brand reputation. *Merrilees and Fry (2002)* find two brand attributes (interactivity and navigability) influence brand attitudes in an e-retail context of corporate branding. Few if any corporate retailer empirical studies seem to include more than two brand attributes as a determinant of brand attitudes. An apparent exception, *Martenson (2007)*, includes four attributes linked to the store as a brand, but these are reflective rather than formative relationships.

Researchers show the possibility of different market segments having different needs. Indeed, such a possibility forms the rationale for segmentation studies. *Wedel* is associated with sophisticated segmentation research, for example, *Wedel and Desarbo (2002)* profile market segments using finite mixture models. Their commercial application to a financial service provider reveals two segments. In segment one, three service-attributes, namely convenience, design and counter service, influence profit, while only two of these attributes apply to segment two. *Lewis (2004)* models the influence of a reward program and other marketing instruments on customer retention. Using a sample of Internet grocery users, Lewis derives two segments with different behavioral characteristics. Segment one customers purchase less frequently, favor larger orders and are more likely to earn loyalty rewards. Identification of market segments through latent-class models is common *(Bodapati & Gupta, 2004)*. Other studies segment customers in terms of how deal-prone they are *(Garretson & Burton, 2003)*. The review of segmentation studies is necessarily selective. The review here shows that different segments respond to different attributes, assisting model development in the current study. The review also shows that different segments may have different spending patterns. Such a characteristic supports the identification of the two Wal-Mart segments and one of the aspects of propositions developed later. However, segmentation studies fall short of considering whether different needs might translate into different brand meanings for the same firm.

Conceptually, brand polysemy embraces the idea that brands may create several different meanings to segments *(Brown, 2006; Gottdiener, 1995)*. Brand morphing is another way of looking at the same phenomenon *(Kates & Goh, 2003)*. *Kates and Goh (2003)* explore the brand morphing concept in depth. Their paper discusses the perceptions of certain segments (e.g., gays) holding different meanings to other segments, though the interviews in their study emphasize how different brand meaning may apply to foreign markets versus domestic markets. Brand morphing within a

domestic market was a minor part of their discussion. Moreover, the emphasis was on how the advertising agencies (top-down) can recognize brand morphing to help shape brands for their clients.

Recent developments focus on how consumers can co-create the brand *(Beverland & Ewing, 2005; Boyle, 2007; Brown et al., 2003)*. The co-creation literature combines a top-down and a bottom-up way of building brands. The potential exists to create more than one interpretation of the same brand, that is, brand morphing.

Brand community is a special case of consumer sub-groups. Brandcommunities represent the potential for consumers to capture brands and instill their own meaning *(Muniz & O'Guinn, 2001)*. Multiple sub-groups may imbue different brand meaning to the same corporate brand, leading to brand morphing. Relationships seem very important for brand communities *(Veloutsou & Moutinho, 2009)*. Harley-Davidson sub-cultures are a favorite research context *(Schouten & McAlexander, 1995; Schembri, 2009)*. Despite the potential, previous studies of brand communities do not quantitatively test for brand morphing.

The literature on brand relationships is relevant because the implication is that different consumers might relate differently to the same brand *(Fournier, 1998; Muniz & O'Guinn, 2001)*. However, this literature does not empirically demonstrate that different subcultures attach different brand meaning to the same corporate brand. *Berthon et al. (2009)* provide a theoretical foundation for brand morphing. The theory of mutual knowledge underpins their conceptual model. Mutual knowledge through marketing communications and experience can form common meaning. Conversely, different marketing communications and experiences can create multiple brand meanings. Various propositions in their paper seem orientated towards the (apparent ideal) creation of common meaning. For example, one of their propositions, strongly influenced by *Kates and Goh (2003)*, indicates that different groups may hold divergent knowledge about the brand. If this is the case, different communications will be necessary to produce consistent brand meaning across groups.

In the internal context of organizations, de *Chernatony (2009)* proposes an evolutionary spectrum that suggests why the meaning of brand might vary among managers in the same organization. Potentially, managers who are more sophisticated have more emotionally oriented brand values. The current study combines the empirical emphasis of segmentation studies, which quantitatively profile different customer segments, with the conceptual emphasis of the brand morphing and brand relationship literatures. That is, one research objective is to test quantitatively whether customer segments of a given retailer (Wal-Mart) form different brand meanings. Later sections discuss both the theoretical and the managerial implications of the results, and the contributions of the study.

Research design
The current study uses the *Keller (1993)* brand knowledge paper as a starting position to research retailers as corporate brands. Two major dimensions of brand knowledge in the *Keller (1993)* schema are brand attitudes and brand attributes. Brand attitudes are a higher (more abstract) level of a consumer's brand knowledge, representing a summary judgment or overall evaluation of a brand. Brand attributes operate at a more concrete, operational level in terms of the retailer–

consumer interaction. Several studies in the literature *(Merrilees & Fry, 2002; Selnes, 1993)* have linked the two dimensions of brand knowledge, usually with just one or two brand attributes. The current study goes further by specifying a greater number (four) of brand attributes in the brand association model.

Formally, the study specifies the retailer brand association as follows, BA = f (M, SD, S, LP) where BA denotes brand attitudes of customers towards the retailer, M denotes customer perceptions of merchandise quality, SD denotes customer perceptions of store design, S denotes customer perceptions of staff service and LP denotes customer perceptions of low prices.

Including four brand attribute variables in the model enables a more elaborate understanding of brand knowledge relevant for a particular retailer. The relative importance of each brand attribute is inferable, and critical to managing real and powerful retailer brands such as Wal-Mart.

The BA model is tested for Wal-Mart as a whole and also for the two separate segments (customers with a first-preference or second-preference attachment to Wal-Mart). Segments with different levels of attachment or loyalty to a retailer may form different brand meanings. Consistent with *Berthon et al. (2009)*, more loyal customers may have greater familiarity and experience of the same retailer brand and on that basis form a more intense meaning than that of a less-loyal segment. For example, *Low and Lamb (2000)*, based on an inter-brand rather than an inter-segment contrast, suggest more familiar brands have more elaborate and complex brand associations. The current study tests this theoretical expectation empirically in terms of two Wal-Mart segments. The dependent variable is a multi-item, summative measure of brand attitudes towards the retailer. Table 1 specifies the three items that measure brand attitude. The three items are in terms of Wal-Mart as a corporate retailer. Summative means that the scale refers to the respondent's overall evaluation or assessment of a corporate brand.

For example, one of the items asks respondents the extent (on a tenpoint scale) to which they agree that they admire what Wal-Mart does. Overall refers to the total or holistic brand. For modeling purposes, the variable brand attitude is the average score of the three items. Note that the brand attitude items relate to the overall Wal-Mart corporate brand, not to a particular store.

Each brand attribute (of the four attributes in the model) forms a brand association with the retailer. The model is able to assess the relative contribution of each brand association, through standardized beta coefficients. The four brand attributes represent the main retail mix attributes in retail research *(Rinne & Swinyard, 1995)*. The brand attitude items are taken from *Selnes (1993), Sandvik and Duhan (1996) and Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman (2001)*. Ten-point scale intervals suit a telephone interview, anchored at one (for very low) and ten (for very high). Table 1 shows the scale items.

The study uses quantitative analysis, namely multiple regression analysis. The context of the study is the market leader (Wal-Mart) in the Canadian discount department store category. Data collection focuses on a region joining two major cities, Hamilton (population about 500,000) and Burlington (population about 150,000) in Ontario, Canada. Although other areas within Canada are relevant, the particular chosen locality is a major population center in the largest province in Canada. Other more remote areas are less typical.

Table 1
Scale items used in the survey instrument.

Merchandise quality (three item scale using 10-point rating scales)
1. Merchandise is of high quality
2. Store has clothing of latest trends/styles
3. Private label brands are very good

Store design (six item scale using 10-point rating scales)
1. The store is laid out so that merchandise is easy to find
2. Displays look good visually
3. Neat and clean
4. Modern look
5. Self-selection is easy and well guided
6. Product displays have helpful information

Staff service (five item scale using 10-point rating scales)
1. Sales staff are knowledgeable
2. Sales assistants are quick to help
3. Store has fast checkout
4. Friendly staff
5. Customer service staff are quick and efficient

Low prices (three item scale using 10-point rating scales)
1. Store has everyday low prices
2. Sales and specials are real bargains
3. Store offers value for money

Retailer brand attitudes (three item scale using 10-point rating scales)
1. There is something special about this store
2. Really value the unique identity of the store
3. Greatly admire what the store does

Random surveys are the most robust. However, few viable ways of conducting random surveys are available. Mall intercepts are popular, but are not random surveys because not all members of the population frame have an equal chance of selection. In the current study, the main choice was between a mail survey and a telephone survey. Access to an up-to-date population (household) address database was not available, so a random mail-based survey was not possible. Thus telephone surveys were the only viable method of conducting a random survey. Additionally, a telephone survey was chosen because of the ease and speed of conducting random surveys. Generating a sample frame through a random generation of digital numbers was easily done. Essentially all households with a telephone are in the sample frame because 90% of the population shop at a discount department store. However, more precisely, the sample frame is all shoppers at a discount department store. In Canada, only two major retail chains in the discount department store category (Wal-Mart and Zellers) exist. The interviewers established that the respondents were discount department store shoppers by asking whether they shop at either Wal-Mart or Zellers.

Trained interviewers conducted the random (telephone) survey of discount department store shoppers. The interviewers changed the order of asking questions to prevent item order bias.

The first research objective was to measure the relative power of different brand associations influencing customers' overall brand attitudes to Wal-Mart. Multiple regression analysis was conducted, with overall brand attitudes towards Wal-Mart as the dependent variable and four key corporate brand attributes as the independent variables. The independent variables were the main retail mix variables established in the retailing literature: merchandise quality, pricing, store design (layout and visual merchandising) and service. The standardized beta coefficients from the regression indicate the relative brand impact weighting of a particular retail mix element.

A second research objective is to compare the brand associations of two segments of customers, one very attached to Wal-Mart and the other less attached. Preliminary questions guided the allocation of respondents into one of the two segments. An early question in the survey asks whether the respondent did shop at either Wal-Mart or Zellers in the previous six months. If the answer is neither then the interview ceases because the person is not part of the sampling frame. The next question asks whether the respondent prefers Wal-Mart or its main competitor, Zellers. If the respondent prefers Wal-Mart or only shops at Wal-Mart for this retail category, this person is allocated to the first-preference segment. All remaining questions in the survey are about their perceptions of Wal-Mart. Alternatively, respondents were assigned to the second-preference segment if they shop at both Wal-Mart and Zellers, but prefer Zellers. For this segment as well, all of the remaining questions were about their perceptions of Wal-Mart, so that brand associations can be compared across the two segments. As a further probe to the veracity of the preference identification, another question asks in which of the two stores the greater monthly expenditure was, with a close fit with the preference answer. Exaggeration of allegiance to brands may occur in some studies. However, the potential problem seems to be less of an issue in the current context where effectively only two brands are in the retail category and where one firm (Wal-Mart) has a dominant share (70%). To reiterate, the two-segment split of respondents is a deliberate part of the research design. Checks and balances, combined with subsequent analysis, give confidence that the study identifies the segment more closely attached to Wal-Mart and the segment less attached.

Samples and data reliability

The sample was 250 Wal-Mart customers, including 160 first-preference customers and 90 second-preference customers. The unbalanced sub-samples reflect the high market share of Wal-Mart. With 70% of the market, the number of respondents nominating Wal-Mart as a first preference dominates those nominating Wal-Mart as a second preference. Women comprised 73% of the sample, consistent with known information about the typical discount department store consumer *(Williams Group, 2000)*. The age distribution is broad, spread around a modal sub-group aged 30–54, again consistent with the known profile of the typical shopper in this retail category. The city split between Hamilton and Burlington is 70/30, reflecting Canadian census populations and imposed by random sample objectives.

The Cronbach alpha tests each scale for reliability. All of the scales exceed the 0.70 benchmark for satisfactory reliability. The Cronbach alpha scores are brand attitudes 0.91,

merchandise quality 0.81, service 0.85, low prices 0.88 and store design 0.88. Confidence in the data stems from the random generation of the sample, credible demographics and reliable scales.

All of the multiple regressions have high explanatory power, with adjusted R2 greater than 0.50 (see Table 2). None of the regressions has a multicollinearity problem, with all VIF values less than 5. Additional tests using confirmatory factor analysis demonstrate the discriminant validity of the constructs *(Fornell & Larker, 1981)*.

The standardized beta coefficients reflect the strength of particular brand associations. For the total (aggregate) sample, three brand attributes are statistically significant in determining brand attitudes to Wal-Mart. Service has the strongest brand association (beta = 0.30), closely followed by store design (beta = 0.28) and merchandise quality (beta = 0.16).

Separate regressions of the two customer segments, the first-preference Wal-Mart segments and the second-preference segment, reveal diverse results. The first-preference Wal-Mart segment replaces merchandise quality with low prices. In contrast, only two brand attributes, merchandise quality and service, are relevant for the second-preference Wal-Mart segment.

Statistical tests, using the Chi-square test (the Chow test; *Studenmund, 2001*) confirm that separate regressions are appropriate for the Wal-Mart preferred and the less-preferred segments. That is, the two segments do differ in the weightings of their brand associations. Different weights attach to the relevant brand associations, demonstrating that in practice brands morph for different subcultures.

Discussion of theoretical implications

The study provides insight into which retailer brand attributes are instrumental in influencing customer brand attitudes about the retailer. Thus, the results progress the understanding of the influences that shape retailer brands, in the corporate brand sense. The brand model, linking brand attributes to overall brand attitudes, is consistent with the data. Conceptually, the model evaluates and ranks the differential strength of specific brand attributes. The model is potentially applicable to other retailers in other retailer categories.

The results support brand morphing, the subject of previous conceptual literature *(Brown, 2006; Kates & Goh, 2003)* and thereby strengthen that literature.

For the first-preference segment, the Wal-Mart brand assumes richer texture, with a greater number of retailer attributes (that is, three) shaping the retailer brand. For the second-preference market segment, only two brand attributes, staff service and merchandise, influence brand attitudes.

Table 2
Components of brand association: Wal-Mart study.

Variable	Total sample (n = 250)	First-preference segment (n = 160)	Second-preference segment (n = 90)
Constant	−1.84 (3.06)	−2.89 (3.59)**	−0.98 (1.06)
Staff service	0.30 (4.69)**	0.23 (2.70)**	0.31 (2.87)**
Low prices	0.10 (1.62)	0.19 (2.48)*	−0.00 (0.01)
Store design	0.28 (3.82)**	0.37 (4.00)**	0.21 (1.77)
Merchandise	0.16 (2.65)**	0.06 (0.84)	0.32 (3.03)**
Adjusted R^2	0.52 (67.8)**	0.54 (47.3)**	0.51 (23.8)**

Dependent variable: customer perceptions of brand attitude towards Wal-Mart (absolute t or F values are in parentheses).
Note: ** denotes significant at the 0.01 level; * denotes significant at the 0.05 level.

The needs of the second-preference segment appear more limited; these less attached customers simply want to obtain the merchandise and receive appropriate service. Although speculation is premature, the results are consistent with different shopping motives delineating the two segments. Extensive decision-making with a comprehensive brand criteria set seems relevant for deciding a primary retailer destination choice in a particular retail category. *Low and Lamb (2000)* support the notion that brands that are more familiar tend to exhibit more developed brand association structures than unfamiliar brands. Their study compares brands rather than segments across a given brand, but a similar concept applies in the current findings.

Contrasting the two Wal-Mart segments reveals salient differences, as follows: more loyal or attached versus less attached; high annual dollar spend versus low spend; more frequent purchases versus less frequent; and of special significance, rich multidimensional brand texture versus a basic or minimalist brand texture (focusing on the core product, namely merchandise). That is, in a retailing context, the more attached segment likely exhibits regular and habitual spending patterns, while the less attached segment likely exhibits irregular, top-up or emergency spending patterns. The propositions represent a way of coding the Wal-Mart cross-segment results, facilitating future researchers' replication and extension of the current study.

The contrast of the two brand segments compares with a simple alternative view, namely that the second-preference segment simply does not care where they shop, the classic apathetic shopper identified in many shopper typologies. Arguably, the weaker brand texture of the second-preference segment is attributable to apathy. In contrast, this paper argues against such an alternative view for several reasons. Firstly, the assumption that all apathetic shoppers go to one chain only (Zellers) is not plausible. Apathetic shoppers are likely spread across stores, so a certain proportion of first-preference Wal-Mart segment will be apathetic shoppers. In all likelihood, apathetic shoppers are

proportionately present in both stores. Secondly, apathetic shoppers in other studies tend to give low ratings on many store attributes. In the current study, the second-preference Wal-Mart segment does not give low ratings to Wal-Mart. Indeed, they give quite high ratings on most attributes, albeit and understandably about 10% lower than the ratings by the first-preference segment. Thirdly, the second-preference Wal-Mart segment will likely have stronger preferences (with richer brand texture) when it comes to their first-preference discount retailer (Zellers), not covered here. Thus, the main differences between first-preference and second-preference Wal-Mart segments have little to do with the general shopping trait of apathy.

Questions for your consideration

1. What is the main research question of the article?

2. What are the drawbacks of the research design (data, methods, analysis)?

3. What managerial implications of the findings do you suggest?

4. What new research methods can you suggest that were not available for the original research project? Is this research still relevant?

5. What additional tools of loyalty measurement can you suggest for retail business?

**Профиль «Маркетинговые коммуникации и реклама
в современном бизнесе»**

Прочитайте статью[2] и сделайте ее критический анализ на русском языке.

**VISUAL PROCESSING AND NEED FOR COGNITION CAN ENHANCE
EVENT-SPONSORSHIP OUTCOMES: HOW SPORTING EVENT SPONSORSHIPS
BENEFIT FROM THE WAY ATTENDEES PROCESS THEM**

INTRODUCTION

More than 30 years ago, an advertising scholar noted the «expanding scope of visual-imagery theory and research promises many future insights for advertisers. Visual-imagery theory and research (on the role of visual communications) … may be the breakthrough perspectives for creating more effective advertising» *(Rossiter, 1982, p. 105).* Today, one may say the same thing for event marketers and sponsors as the advertising ecosystem – and the brand logos therein – moves more aggressively toward out-of-home venues, among them sporting events.

Although that call for efficacy was followed by decades of research for traditional advertising contexts, there remains a need to extend this thinking to measurement and process models for experiential (or «event») sponsorship-linked marketing. Global sponsorship spending is projected to reach $57.5 billion in 2015, up 4.1 percent from 2014 levels, with 18.3 percent growth since 2011 *(IEG, 2015).* Given the substantial investments made in sponsorship, it is crucial to understand how sponsorship works from visual-processing and cognition perspectives.

The current research objective was to assess sporting-event attendees' visual-processing tendency and need for cognition to determine how these factors influenced their attendees' perceptions of the event and sponsor. Although visual processing refers to how people tend to process information via visuals (rather than words or hearing), need for cognition is a personality variable that relates to thinking. In psychology, need for cognition reflects the extent to which consumers engage in and enjoy effortful cognitive activities *(Cacioppo & Petty, 1982).*

There are two components of event sponsorship – exchange and leveraging:

• The exchange in event sponsorship links an event and a sponsor, where a sponsor receives the right to associate itself with the event in exchange for compensation or rights fees.

• Leveraging event sponsorship is collateral communication that (here, at the event), includes presentation of brand logos, products displayed, and banners and branded activities. In itself, sponsorship is not necessarily a visual tool; it is the on-site leveraging of sponsorship that often is visual for event attendees and media audiences.

Leveraging sponsorships with the sponsor's logo in signage and product displays at an event is an industry practice that may be part of larger integrated sponsorship arrangements at professional sporting events. Sport sponsors, for example, may leverage their brand onsite by placing their logo on the outfield fence in baseball, on hardwood courts in basketball, on the ice rinks at hockey games, and along the stadium paneling in football.

In many professional tennis sponsorships, the title sponsor's brand logo prominently appears in the doubles-alley portion of the net and on banners aligning the tennis court. For example, Mercedes-Benz, Lexus, and Kia strategize to put their automotive brand logos in the net at professional tennis tournaments around the world (e.g., the U.S. Open, Australian Open, and French Open). Placing the sponsor's logo near the center of action is one strategy to minimize the risk of a brand logo's being lost in cluttered events. To the authors' knowledge, however, this practice of embedding brands in ways that keep branding in the attendee's focal interest area has not yet been examined empirically in the sponsorship-linked marketing literature.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The nature of event communication has seen limited research *(Wakefield et al., 2007)*. There has been a call for theoretical research examining how individuals' visualizing and thinking relates to their assessment of an event and sponsor *(Wakefield et al., 2007)*. To understand the role of visual processing and need for cognition in event sponsorship evaluation, the current authors turned to visual-imagery theory *(Rossiter & Percy, 1978, 1980)*.

Aspects of visual-imagery theory may be applicable to understanding the role of cognitively related individual differences for effective sponsorship and event marketing.

The current research focused on the two traits of visual processing and need for cognition. Although the marketer may not change «person variables» pertaining to seeing and thinking styles, these variables easily are addressed in communication development if better understood.

The authors tested a conceptual framework through empirical findings based on a sample of 185 attendees of a U.S. professional tennis tournament, using a field study based on a survey with psychometrically sound constructs that have been established in the literature (See *Methods*).

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Visual processing is just one form of consumer information processing. Visual processing maintains spatial and size dimension in stimuli such as a brand logo *(MacInnis & Price, 1987)*. Consumers tend to process brand logos and other visual information as a whole, instead of as parts of the visual information at a time. Visually processed information is holistic and distinct from semantically processed information; in semantically processed information, features may be independent or sequential *(MacInnis & Price, 1987)*.

For sponsorship, visually processed information is important. Generally, brands want to be reinforced by pleasant visual imagery *(Rossiter & Percy, 1978)*. Pleasant visual imagery can be a sufficient condition for visual reinforcement to occur *(Rossiter & Percy, 1978)*. For a tennis enthusiast, attending a match involving professional world-class athletes competing on a sunny day represents a pleasant visual image.

Visual reinforcement is important in visual processing because an event attendee actively or passively sees the exposure of the sponsor without necessarily thinking about the event sponsorship. For sport-event attendees, brand logos are backdrops to the actual event action. This suggests low-level encoding into short-term memory and constant passive exposure to the brand. Visual processing may involve words or nonwords (e.g., a brand logo). Also, events range widely in the use

of auditory sponsor cues: Golf and tennis are quiet whereas football and basketball may be cluttered auditorally, reducing the effect of any verbal brand communication.

Need for cognition reflects a need to «structure relevant situations in meaningful, integrated ways» and «understand and make the experiential world reasonable» *(Cohen et al., 1955, p. 291)*.

Consumers who rate high in need for cognition expend more cognitive effort and recall more about messages than those who score low in need for cognition *(Cacioppo et al., 1983)*. Drawing on the visual processing and need for cognition literature, the current study's conceptual framework illuminates the impact of visual brand placement in event sponsorship (See *Figure 1*).
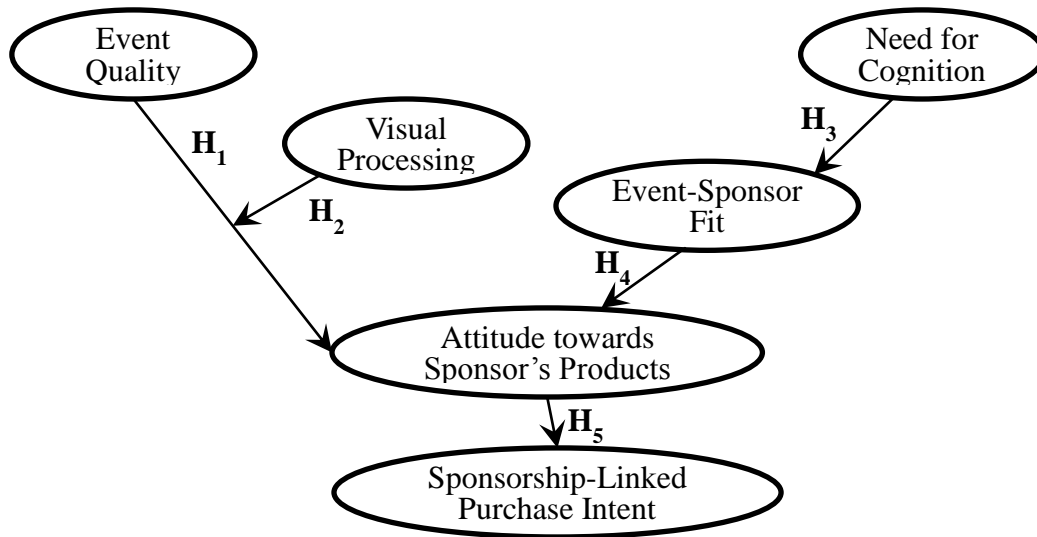

Figure 1 Hypothesized Model of Drivers of Sponsorship-Linked Purchase Intent

HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Event Quality, Attitude, and Visual Processing

For the purposes of the current study, «attitude» is an individual's favorable or unfavorable evaluation of a particular company and its products.

The quality of the sponsored event helps to drive attitudes toward the sponsor and the sponsor's on-site products. Sponsorships enable brand representatives to interact with event attendees personally via on-site sampling, hospitality services, information booths, and other sponsorship-linked activities.

When a brand is associated with a sponsored event, some event linkages connect with the brand *(Keller, 1993)*. In instances when attendees favorably view an event, favorable attitudes much more likely will be held toward the sponsor and, in turn, its products *(Alexandris et al., 2007)*. Generally, it is accepted that image transfer flows from event to sponsoring brand *(Gwinner, 1997)*. Thus, raised perceptions of quality regarding the sponsor's products ensue from the sponsor's association with a high-quality event *(Walker et al., 2011)*. Hence,

H1: Event quality will be positively associated with favorable attitude toward the sponsor's products.

The aforementioned relationship between event quality and consumer attitude especially may be strong when the attendees are «visual processors» – people to whom psychologists sometimes refer as «visualizers». This is because visualizers may be more prone to notice the sponsor's involvement and backing.

Visual processors describe individuals whose mental images predominantly are portrayed in pictorial schemata. They have a disposition to construct visual images in their assessments of events *(Childers et al., 1985)*. Similarly, research in consumer psychology has investigated the extent to which individuals' responses to visual images affect their assessments of advertisers. This is done by constructing mental images of events over and above the effects of any supplementary verbal information *(Edell & Staelin, 1983; Miniard et al., 1991)*.

Visual attention operates through a visual-processing mechanism, in contrast to a higher-level encoding mechanism – such as what happens when a person reads and interprets a complex calculus equation. Symbols (e.g., words, logos, and pictures) are information in symbolic form – as messages that must be processed cognitively by means of learned pictorial schemata *(Scott, 1994)*.

In the case of a sponsorship of a major sporting event, a brand logo represents a sponsor's brand image built and reinforced by advertising and product experience. The overall impression of the consumption experience of a sponsored event determines attendees' perceptions of the event quality. Based on this discussion:

H2: Visual processing will be positively associated with favorable attitude toward the sponsor's products.

Cognition and Event-Sponsor Fit

Attendees interpret a sponsorship according to its «shallow meaning». This means that generally speaking, consumers go to the event to enjoy the match or game and not «to be advertised to». A shallow, meaning passive, interpretation is without any relative effort by the consumer unless he or she has reasons to elaborate further and consider other inputs to judgment *(Johar & Simmons, 2000)*. When an attendee cannot solve any incongruity, the greater cognitive effort required for processing extremely incongruent information leads to unfavorable perceptions about the source *(Wansink & Ray, 1996)*.

Event-sponsor fit is the extent to which an attendee perceives that an event and its sponsoring brand have a similar image, values, and a logical connection *(Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006)*. Sponsorships with a greater fit with the event provide attendees with sense of cognitive consistency.

In event-sponsorship perception, need for cognition has been shown to be a predictor of perceptions of fit between the event and the sponsor *(Deitz et al., 2009)*. Those with a higher need for cognition are more inclined, or perhaps driven, to think about how a sponsor links conceptually with an event. Individuals often strive to find organizing themes for information encountered, even if this information is a seemingly unrelated list of words (*Tulving & Pearlstone, 1966*).

As higher need for cognition positively relates to consumer efforts to structure information and enhance understanding *(Cohen et al., 1955)*, higher need for cognition should contribute toward a more enhanced understanding of how the sponsor and event fit together (even if not intuitive or intended by the sponsor). Thus:

H3: Need for cognition will be positively associated with perceived event-sponsor fit.

Event-Sponsor Fit and Attitude

Fit has been modeled as a mediator (e.g., *Deitz et al., 2012; Wakefield & Bennett, 2010*). In the current study, event-sponsor fit serves as a mediator between need for cognition and an attendee's attitude toward a sponsor's products.

Scholars have concurred that event-sponsor fit leads to more positive attitudes toward the sponsor (e.g., *Ellen et al., 2000; Rifon et al., 2004*). If an event attendee perceives the sponsor and event to be congruent, this assessment more likely will be associated with favorable evaluations of the sponsor *(Becker-Olsen & Simmons, 2002; Pappu & Cornwell, 2014)*. In turn, the attendees who perceive the sponsor as fitting with the event may have a more favorable attitude toward the sponsor's products.

H4: Perceived event-sponsor fit will be positively associated with favorable attitude toward the sponsor's products.

Attitude and Purchase Intent

Attitude toward the sponsor's products also is conceptualized as a mediator in the hypothesized model. Attitudes are positively related to intentions to perform a behavior *(Ajzen, 1991)*; applying this finding to sponsorship research, positive attitudes toward the sponsor's products formed during interaction or seeing the products at the event should lead to higher sponsorship-linked purchase intentions. Consumers with unfavorable brand attitudes less likely would consider purchasing from event sponsors *(Koo et al., 2006)*. Extending past research:

H5: Favorable attitude toward the sponsor's products will be positively associated with sponsorship-linked purchase intent.

METHODS

The authors of the current study tested their hypotheses with consumer-survey data collected at a weeklong women's professional tennis tournament. The event was a U.S. Tennis Association (USTA) Pro Circuit Event, with 64 professional tennis players in the draw. The venue for this professional tournament had a capacity of 1,500; the stadium court, where the feature matches were played, seated 300.

For attendees, the event areas included a hospitality tent, a food-and-beverage area by a pool, general admission seating, box seats, and VIP seating.

Sponsors can be either endemic or nonendemic. An endemic sponsor tends to be in the same (or similar) category or genre as the event. For instance, brands of tennis equipment (such as Penn, Wilson, or Head) are endemic to a tennis tournament. In many cases, however, the title sponsors are non-endemic, such as an automobile brand sponsoring sport.

Like many, if not most, sport sponsorships, the tennis competition that served as the anchor event in the current study offered a nonendemic sponsorship. The title sponsor, a luxury automobile brand, was the official vehicle of the event and provided cars that took players to and from the court. The sponsor had two vehicles (a sports utility vehicle and a sedan) on display near the court. The event also provided free valet parking that utilized the sponsor's autos. The title sponsor received event- naming rights and strategic corporate branding through all seven days of the tournament. Last, the title sponsor's logo appeared on all tournament printed materials, the front-cover advertisement

on the tournament program booklet, the tournament website, and all tournament apparel and tickets.

The selected event was an appropriate context to study information processing in sponsorship-linked marketing for three reasons:

There was a defined title sponsor having used visual placement in the context (parking service, commons area) and at the heart of action (logo in the net, product display).

There were not any spillover effects from a previous sponsor that might have influenced attendees *(McAlister et al., 2012)*. The title sponsor had been involved with this event since its inception, so potential confounding of results with past title sponsors was not an issue.

This particular event was not leveraged with auditory sponsor communications, such as announcements regarding the brand during the event-making for a cleaner focus on visual processing of a brand at an experience.

Field Research Procedures and Sample

Survey data were collected, not in a sponsor area but near the stadium court. Similar to other event-sponsor studies *(Irwin et al., 2003; Wakefield & Bennett, 2010)*, several aspects of event sponsorship effectiveness were captured using intercept surveys of event attendees. The lead author trained and supervised a field-research team consisting of university undergraduate marketing students and students with master in business administration degrees.

The research team wore official volunteer shirts and badges to signify their role to attendees. The research team had a tent close to the center of action (i.e., the stadium court), with a table of laptops so the participant could take the survey at the tent. A few of the field-study participants requested paper surveys and could take a clipboard back to their seats. As incentives, participants received vouchers for a free fruit smoothie or frozen coffee beverage.

Overall, 185 attendees completed the survey. The nonresponse rate was approximately 15 percent, which was comparable to other sporting-event sponsorship field surveys *(Alexandris et al., 2007; Irwin et al., 2003)*. The most common reason for – nonresponse was being in a hurry to get to a match.

Among other attendees' attributes,
* gender was nearly equally distributed (53 percent female);
* the median age was 40.7 years;
* more than half (53 percent) reported household incomes of more than $100,000; 34 percent with incomes between
* $50,000 to $100,000; and
* 43 percent had a bachelor's degree; another one-third had a graduate degree.

Thus, participants were skewed toward middle and high incomes and were well educated – characteristics representative of professional tennis fans.

Measurement and Data Analysis

The authors used Likert-type scales (1 = «strongly disagree» to 7 = «strongly agree») to assess respondents' perceptions. Before conducting the field study, the survey instrument was pretested on 40 individuals to verify the suitability of terminology and clarity of instructions and scales.

Established scales were used (See Table 1 for the specific scale items, along with their reliability):

- The authors employed the visual subscale, referred to in the current study as «visual processing» *(McQuarrieandMick, 1999)* by using six items from the style-of-processing scale *(Childers et al., 1985)*.

- The scale assessing need for cognition measured an individual's tendency to engage in and enjoy effortful information processing *(Cacioppo & Petty, 1982)*.

- Event-sponsor fit was measured with an established scale *(Speed & Thompson, 2000)*.

- Attitude toward the sponsor's products was measured with items on sponsor product features and superiority versus competitor products because such considerations are key dimensions in other product-attitude scales established in the literature.

- To measure event quality, an established three-item scale *(Cronin et al., 2000)* was modified to capture event quality.

- To assess sponsorship-linked purchase intent, four items from an established scale *(Cornwell & Coote, 2005)* were used.

TABLE 1

Scale Items and Confirmatory Factor Analysis

	Lambda Loadings[a]	Composite Reliability	Avg. Variance Extracted
Visual Processing		0.85	0.54
I like to picture how I could fix up a room if I could buy anything I wanted.	0.78		
I like to daydream.	0.73		
I generally prefer to use a diagram than a written set of instructions.	0.78		
It helps me to think in terms of mental pictures when doing things.	0.80		
My thinking often consists of mental pictures or images.	0.83		
There are some special times in life that I like to relive by mentally picturing how everything looked.	0.65		
Need for Cognition		0.89	0.68
Thinking is my idea of fun.	0.79		
I really enjoy a task that involves coming up with new solutions to problems.	0.80		
I prefer my life to be filled with puzzles that I must solve.	0.71		
The notion of thinking abstractly is appealing to me.	0.84		
Event Quality		0.93	0.83
Thus far, the event quality is excellent.	0.84		
Thus far, the event quality is superior.	0.93		
This event, thus far, is meeting high standards.	0.90		
Event-Sponsor Fit		0.92	0.70
There is a logical connection between the event and this sponsor.	0.75		
The image of the event and the image of the sponsor are similar.	0.74		
The sponsor and the event fit together well.	0.90		
The company and the event stand for similar things.	0.83		
It makes sense to me that this company sponsors this event.	0.86		
Attitude toward Sponsor's Products		0.85	0.73
The sponsor's products on-site at the event indicate it as having many positive features.	0.84		
The sponsor's products on-site at the event indicate it as superior to competing products.	0.93		
Sponsorship-Linked Purchase Intent		0.93	0.78
When choosing brands and retailers, I choose those that sponsor this event.	0.90		
I would drive out of my way to buy from a sponsor of this event.	0.91		
When a new sponsor joins this event, I switch my buying to support them.	0.88		
I would choose to buy from a sponsor of this event even if the prices of competitors were lower.	0.83		

[a]*Standardized solutions*

Measurement reliability and validity of the data were assessed via confirmatory factor analysis using LISREL 8.80. This analysis yielded the following results:

- $\chi^2_{(237)} = 392.94$, $p < 0.01$
- nonnormed fit index (NNFI) = 0.97
- comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.97
- incremental fit index (IFI) = 0.98, and
- root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.06

The limitations of the chi-square test of exact fit have led researchers to advocate measures for assessing fit *(Tomarken & Waller, 2003)*. The NNFI, CFI, and IFI values exceeded the recommended cutoff of 0.95 *(Hu & Bentler, 1999)*. The RMSEA value was more favorable than the conventional threshold of 0.08 *(Browne & Cudeck, 1993)*.

Construct measures of the hypothesized model yielded sound reliability and validity properties (See Table 1). Analyses provided evidence of convergent validity in each construct, with the parameter estimates ranging from 0.65 to 0.93. Discriminant validity was established, with each average variance extracted measure exceeding the 0.50 benchmark *(Bagozzi & Yi, 1988)*. Finally, internal reliability was assessed through composite reliabilities, ranging from 0.85 to 0.93; all are above 0.70 *(Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994)*.

RESULTS

The authors analyzed the structural model using two exogenous constructs and three endogenous constructs. There is evidence for the superiority of using structural equation models for small samples (n < 200) for models testing mediation effects *(Iacobucci et al., 2007)*. This especially is true for studies involving relatively few constructs, constructs assessed with multiple indicators, and when the mediating relationship is part of a more complex nomological network *(Iacobucci et al., 2007)*.

Goodness-of-fit statistics for the theorized structural model indicate the observed data are a reasonable fit for the hypothesized model: $\chi 2$ (130) = 257.93 p < 0.01, NNFI = 0.97, CFI = 0.98, IFI = 0.98, and RMSEA = 0.07.

All five hypotheses were supported. Recall, H1 and H3 through H5 posited direct relationships, whereas H2 posited an indirect relationship. Results of the direct relationships were as follows:

• As predicted in H1, the posited relationship between event quality and event attendees' positive attitudes toward the sponsor's products was significant (β = 0.35, t = 5.32, p < 0.001).

• As predicted in H3, the attendee's need for cognition was positively associated with perceived event-sponsor fit (β = 0.49, t = 6.52, p < 0.001).

• In turn, as predicted by H4, greater event-sponsor fit strengthened the event attendees' positive attitude toward the sponsor's products (β = 0.63, t = 8.19, p < 0.001).

• Attendee attitude toward the sponsor's products (H5) had a positive effect on sponsorship-linked purchase intent (β = 0.81, t = 8.30, p < 0.001).

As for H2, visual-processing style was hypothesized to moderate the direct relationship between attendees' perceptions toward the quality of the event and attendees' positive attitude toward the sponsor's products. With this in mind, the authors grouped attendees who agreed or strongly agreed with statements used to assess visual-processing style.

Respondents were divided into two groups on the basis of this criterion for visual processing's seven-point scale:

• high visual processors (mean = 6.23; SD = 0.50; range = 5.67–7.0; n = 59) and
• low visual processors (mean = 4.80; SD = 0.53; range = 3.0–5.50; n = 126).

The multigroup comparison showed visual processors positively moderated the posited relationship (H2) with a significant difference in chi-square ($\Delta\chi2 = 4.67$, $p < 0.05$). This process is consistent with the advice of methods experts in structural equation modeling *(Joreskog & Sorbom, 2006)*.

DISCUSSION

The current research focused on individual cognitive and visual-processing differences in the context of sporting-event sponsorships.

It examined their respective roles toward building stronger consumer attitudes toward the sponsor's products and enhanced commitment to buy the sponsor's products. Although previous research had focused on heightening the attitude to the sponsoring brand in general, it had not investigated the importance of the sponsor's products and attitudes toward them as an event sponsorship outcome. The current model, tested in a sport setting, can serve as a basis for other scholars to test in other events that are leveraged by visual communications.

Empirical support for the hypothesized model demonstrated that individual differences in visual processing and need for cognition played significant roles in how an attendee perceived the sponsor's products. Overall findings showed how attendees who rated the event as higher quality had a higher attitude toward the sponsor's products that were showcased at the tournament. That relationship was moderated by visual-processing style; that is, attendees who were visual processors showed an especially strong link from event quality to enhanced attitude.

Further, attendees who were high in need for cognition more likely would evaluate a non-endemic sponsor – such as the luxury automaker sponsor used in the current study – as fitting with the event, plausibly because they tended to elaborate or think about how the two fit more so than attendees who were lower in need for cognition. In turn, a better fit led to enhanced attitudes toward the sponsor's on-site products.

Ultimately, having a strong positive attitude toward the sponsor's products makes for higher sponsorship-linked purchase intent, the current study showed.

This research expanded on visual-imagery theory by bringing it into a new context of event sponsorship and showing how visual processing is important in event-sponsorship perceptions. Building on visual-imagery theory *(Rossiter & Percy, 1978, 1980)*, the current authors assessed how individual characteristics of visual processing and need for cognition together explain the extent to which an event attendee processes the affiliation between the event and sponsor. Once achieved, events and sponsors then are anticipated to benefit directly from these associations.

The current study incorporated individual differences, such as need for cognition. In contrast to affect-based individual traits studies, which have dominated advertising and marketing literature, the present study examined individual traits and event sponsorship primarily from a cognitive perspective. As a symbolic form of information, brand logos must be processed cognitively. Brand symbolism consists of repeated promotion exposures and product experiences. This type of learning is common at sponsored events.

MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

The current study's findings revealed how the manner in which event attendees visualize and

think relates to their assessment of an event and sponsor – especially for those individuals who tend to be more visual and cognitive – will positively influence their level of appreciation for the event sponsors. Thus, given that many people are visual processors, both event venues and sponsors benefit by incorporating strategically placed visual elements (e.g., logos, product display) at the epicenter of action in sporting events.

This implication holds across a rich variety of sporting venues and events, as sponsors can seek logo placement near goals, backboards, bases, nets, and other places where attendees tend to look, to improve the likelihood that they visually process the event sponsor. The potential impact for brand-logo visibility is amplified when the sports activity is viewed online or via television.

The findings also elaborated on the importance of helping consumers visualize and cognitively understand the relationship between the event and the sponsor. Congruent elaboration especially is important in those instances involving nonendemic fit, which was the case in the current field study with a luxury automaker's title sponsorship of a professional tennis tournament. Here, an example of endemic fit would be the case of a sporting-goods manufacturer, such as Wilson, Babolat, or Prince sponsoring a tennis event. Consumers easily may see that these are leading tennis brands, and it makes sense to sponsor a tennis event.

The current empirically tested model results suggest that many consumers desire to understand why, and in what ways, the sponsor fits the event image. Perhaps this is because it makes the event and sponsor feel more credible. Or, perhaps, «seeing» the fit is more comfortable as it is cognitively consistent.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

There were two notable limitations to the current research:

• Field-study findings may hold only for tennis events and may not be generalizable to other sport sponsorships. Tennis tends to be a quieter atmosphere, thus there is less leveraging with sound, which may put a greater role on the visual communication elements.

• Despite extensive identification of the title sponsor throughout the event and on the field-survey instrument, the authors' use of a general sponsorship-linked purchase intent scale raised a potential confound for any respondents who may have been considering other sponsors than the title sponsor of the tested event.

In sum, the current study opens the door for future projects. The authors offer the following three considerations for future research:

• Investigate the process and/or outcomes of processing styles (i.e., visual, verbal, auditory) at live events versus televised events, or examine a televised event only. Eye-tracking methods would be appropriate for this venture. In the current study, the sponsored event that served as the research context was a live, nontelevised event. Although this allowed the authors to isolate the marketing communication, future work would apply and extend this model to a televised event.

• Test this model for multiple tiers of sponsors. In the current study, the sponsor of interest was the title sponsor. That said, there often is an array of sponsorship opportunities for brands; for new or growing brands especially, a title sponsorship financially may not be feasible. Thus,

work on nontitle sponsorships seems important. Nontitle sponsorships, for instance, receive comparatively less visual placement as their title sponsor counterparts.

- Apply the current model to other contexts. This model could be tested in other sport or event contexts. One could argue, for example, that nonteam sports, such as tennis or golf, traditionally are quieter and may place different emphasis on visual brand imagery compared to team sports (e.g., baseball, football, basketball, hockey, soccer) that tend to encourage more vocal fan involvement than that in tennis.

Each is a ripe opportunity to extend the advertising, consumer psychology, and marketing communications literature.

Questions for your consideration

1. What research questions were investigated in the article? What scientific methods were applied to investigate each of these questions? Were the hypotheses formulated and reasoned correctly in the article? Please, explain your opinion.

2. Do you think there are differences between persuasion models used in sport sponsorship as opposed to those used in mass-media advertising? Please, substantiate your point.

3. How to measure sponsorship effectiveness (could you propose any metrics or indicators)? What impact sport sponsorship can have on the performance of sponsor's corporate brand and product brands?

4. Whether sponsorship as marketing communication tool has broad or narrow audience reach? What concepts of advertising reach / frequency do you know and what of them do you find relevant for sponsorship?

5. Brand attitude has a key role in sponsorship. Could you comment on the Expectancy-value Model of brand positioning?

6. How are the concepts of «sponsor» and «sponsorship advertising» interpreted in the Russian Federal law «On advertising»?

7. What type (or types) of advertising strategy in terms of 'type of involvement / type of attitude' would be suitable for sponsorship advertising for a luxury sport car brand?

Профиль «Стратегии развития бизнеса: управление и консалтинг»

Прочитайте статью[3] **и сделайте ее критический анализ на русском языке.**

1. Introduction

Different studies examine how environmental institutional factors affect the strategic decisions of firms. These studies indicate that institutional factors, along with firms' resource endowments and capacities and the level of competition in the sector, determine corporate strategies such as internationalization *(Gao et al., 2010; Peng et al., 2008)*.

Some of the literature analyzing the impact of institutions on firms' decisions examines the differences between origin and destination countries via institutional distance *(Kostova, 1999)*. In line with this idea, this paper focuses on the regulative dimension, as it has been observed to have a strong impact on internationalization decisions such as the choice of entry mode *(Chao & Kumar, 2010; Yiu & Makino, 2002)*. Regulatory institutions include laws, regulations, and political and social configurations *(Dikova & Van Witteloostuijn, 2007)* that determine the governance framework for economic, legal and social relations *(Globerman & Shapiro, 2003)*. On the one hand, these institutions define in a coercive manner what is and what is not allowed; firms, then, do not have the option of freely deciding to follow these regulations or not, they are obliged to do so *(Eden & Miller, 2004)*. As *Slangen and Beugelsdijk (2010)* suggest, this situation may imply that governance imperfections are exogenous hazards that have to be taken as a given by firms. And on the other hand, since any modification to this situation depends on the regulators, a change in the regulations is more rapid and can quickly affect business decisions, in contrast to informal institutions whose change is slower *(Estrin et al., 2009; North, 1990)*. Lastly, regulatory institutions in distinct countries can be classified via degree of development. Specifically, different authors include with regulative distance the fact that the regulatory development of destination countries may be more or less weak than that of the origin country *(Hakanson & Ambos, 2010; Wu, 2013)*. For this reason, then, we need to consider the two directions of distance: negative distance (when a firm enters countries with less developed regulatory conditions than the origin country); and positive distance (when a firm enters countries with more developed regulatory conditions than the origin country).

The inclusion of asymmetry in the study of institutional distance is a recent phenomenon. The literature on institutional distance – and specifically regulative distance – has traditionally conducted its analysis in absolute terms, solely considering the magnitude of the distance. This focus has resulted in no distinction being made between firms entering countries with higher or lower levels of regulatory development than the origin country (positive and negative regulative distance). This limitation could explain why studies based on transaction cost economics (considering efficiency criteria) and institutional theory (considering legitimacy criteria) – the two theoretical approaches used to examine the impact of regulative distance on entry mode choice – find contradictory results. Some papers argue that greater regulative distance leads firms to prefer entry forms requiring lower resource commitments *(Dow & Larimo, 2009; Xu et al., 2004; Xu & Shenkar, 2002)*; other research,

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[3] Подготовлена на основе: Hernandez V., Nieto M.J. (2015) The effect of the magnitude and direction of institutional distance on the choice of international entry modes // *Journal of World Business*, Vol. 50(1), pp. 122-132.

however, suggests the opposite relation *(Estrin et al., 2009; Gaur & Lu, 2007)*. We believe that the analysis of the asymmetric effect of regulative distance requires the inclusion of both criteria in order to reveal how firms tackle the choice of entry mode as they seek efficiency under institutional constraints *(Kim & Gray, 2008; Roberts & Greenwood, 1997)*.

The paper looks to contribute to the literature in different ways. First, the focus on the regulative dimension advances our understanding of the asymmetrical effect of this particular dimension on firms' decisions. Although the regulative dimension is central to internationalization decisions, few studies analyze the asymmetric effect of distance. Second, our examination of the direction of the distance by integrating economic and institutional perspectives makes it possible to consider how firms respond to the dual need for legitimacy and efficiency. This enables us to shed light on the contradictory findings of previous studies that limit their focus to the magnitude of institutional distance. Third, and in line with the recommendation by *Bruton, Ahlstrom, and Li (2010)*, this paper also goes beyond most other studies, which are restricted to a single origin or destination country. The richness of the available data (with a sample of European SMEs from more than 30 countries operating in over 100 destination countries around the world and from different manufacturing and service sectors) allows us to perform a multilevel analysis considering factors at the decision, firm, and firm's home country levels.

The paper is organized as follows. The next section addresses the relevant theoretical aspects and research hypotheses, before going on to discuss the methodology. The final sections present an analysis of the results and their implications, concluding with some comments on limitations and future lines of research.

2. Literature review and hypotheses

The impact of institutions – and of institutional distance – on the choice of entry mode has typically been viewed from the perspectives of transaction cost theory and institutional theory *(Demirbag et al., 2007; Gelbuda et al., 2008; Kim & Gray, 2008)*. The former focuses on efficiency criteria, while the latter examines legitimacy criteria. The studies based on transaction cost economics suggest that firms prefer entry forms requiring lower resource commitments in order to minimize the effect of uncertainty when the regulative distance is great *(Dow & Larimo, 2009)*.

Of the studies that analyze institutional differences from the institutional theory perspective, some suggest that firms prefer entry modes that require lower resource commitments when distance grows because they allow them greater flexibility and minimize the conflicts between external legitimacy and internal consistency *(Xu et al., 2004; Xu & Shenkar, 2002)*. Other papers, however, argue that entry forms that offer higher levels of control make it possible to manage regulatory differences more easily *(Estrin et al., 2009)* – an approach that gives priority to internal consistency over the acquisition of external legitimacy *(Davis et al., 2000)*. The empirical evidence from this approach, though, suggests that it is external legitimacy that is vital for the survival of MNEs *(Xu et al., 2004)*. Moreover, this external legitimacy may be especially important for SMEs, as these firms are more influenced by external forces than are large firms *(Cheng & Yu, 2008)*.

Given that institutions provide the structure for transactions to take place and affect the firm's choice of entry mode, both perspectives seem to be required *(Delios & Beamish, 1999)*. Specifically, we follow the line of those authors who believe that they are complementary, as firms are obliged to

manage the needs of legitimacy and efficiency in their decisions *(Kim & Gray, 2008; Roberts & Greenwood, 1997)*. And yet, although these papers make an effort to integrate both approaches, they only analyze the magnitude of the distance. We feel that by including the impact of direction we are able to clarify the relation between regulative distance and entry mode choice. This is the case because the needs of legitimacy and efficiency may exert different effects on firms' decisions depending on the direction of the distance.

Some studies explore asymmetry in the relation between cultural distance and firms' decisions, such as the assignation of expatriates in subsidiaries or the degree of influence of the headquarters over subsidiaries *(Brock et al., 2008; Drogendijk & Holm, 2012)*. Other research extends the reach of asymmetric effects to other institutional dimensions *(Cuervo-Cazurra & Genc, 2011; Phillips et al., 2009)*.

Taking this idea of asymmetry as a starting point, our reasoning is based on the argument that the direction component makes it possible to consider institutions as constraints for firms' decisions only in some circumstances.

All in all, considering both factors (magnitude and direction of the distance) makes it seem reasonable to assume that distance will have a different effect on firms' decisions (specifically on the resource commitment of the entry mode) depending on the favorability or unfavorability of the regulatory infrastructures compared to those of the origin country. We should, then, bear in mind not only the differences among institutions, but also the impact of the varying degrees of institutionalization in the origin and destination countries *(Phillips et al., 2009; Wu, 2013)*. Put more simply, we need to note *how* regulatory institutions differ in addition to by *how much (Zaheer et al., 2012)*. This leads us to consider two different scenarios: situations in which the regulatory development in the destination country is lower than in the origin country; and situations in which the regulatory development in the destination country is higher than in the origin country.

2.1. Regulatory development in the destination country is lower than in the origin country: negative regulative distance

The most common example of internationalization decisions in countries with lower levels of regulatory development occurs when firms from developed countries move into developing countries. Developing countries commonly offer advantages related to lower labor costs and the availability of natural resources, among others *(Dunning, 1998)*. In this situation, however, the mismatch between the two systems produces greater risk and uncertainty, essentially stemming from a lack of knowledge about how to handle such levels of risk *(Berry, 2006)*.

Countries with high levels of regulatory unpredictability typically display frequent and unexpected changes in government policies, government intervention in business, and inadequate means to enforce laws and contracts *(Slangen & Van Tulder, 2009)*. The existence of high levels of corruption has also been shown to have a negative impact on investment *(Javorcik & Wei, 2009)*, while ambiguous and complex local regulations are likely to generate hazards in technology transfers *(Coeurderoy & Murray, 2008)* or to hinder the success of product innovations *(Wu, 2013)*.

The previously mentioned factors imply a regulatory uncertainty in the destination country, an uncertainty that significantly affects the ability to conform to local legitimating requirements *(Chan & Makino, 2007)*. Destination countries with weak institutions characterized by restrictions and

limitations pose great problems of adaptation for firms, specifically because they lack correctly functioning formal institutions *(Schwens et al., 2011)*. These arguments suggest that a poorer understanding of less developed institutions increases the perception of the difficulties to manage regulative distance *(Hakanson & Ambos, 2010)*.

Firms then, need to give priority to the possibility of obtaining legitimacy in the host environment, as they have to seek efficiency by considering the institutional constraints. Thus, in situations with small distance gaps (e.g., when firms from countries with low levels of regulatory development enter even more poorly regulated countries), the difficulty to adapt to the regulatory institutions of the destination country is lower. In these cases, the institutions are similar to those of their origin country *(Cuervo-Cazurra & Genc, 2008)*. In contrast, the difficulty is greater for firms from countries with more developed regulatory frameworks. These firms will find it harder to achieve legitimacy in destination countries where the regulative institutional distance is high *(Xu & Shenkar, 2002)*, especially in destination countries where they are not familiar with the regulatory 'rules of the game' and where the rules may not even be clearly established. As distance increases in a negative direction, then, firms will face greater deficits of institutional knowledge and more adaptation problems caused by the growing gap between regulations of the origin and destination countries. Since firms need to choose entry modes that first satisfy their needs for external legitimacy, they may prefer low commitment entry modes that could alleviate these adaptation problems *(Xu et al., 2004)*. These considerations lead us to put forward the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: As negative regulative distance increases, firms will be more likely to prefer entry modes requiring a lower level of resource commitment.

2.2. Regulatory development in the destination country is higher than in the origin country: positive regulative distance

The literature on firms going in the opposite direction (i.e., from countries with lower levels of regulatory development to destinations with higher levels) typically analyzes the entry decisions of firms from developing countries that plan to begin operating in developed ones. These studies highlight different reasons for this type of internationalization, such as looking to overcome the limitations of their countries of origin; gaining access to new technologies or a more developed customer base; or aiming to improve their reputation or brand image *(Luo & Tung, 2007; Wright et al., 2005)*. In any case, the analysis should not be limited to the differences between developed and emerging countries. Indeed, many regulatory differences exist among the so-called developed countries, and the level of regulatory development is also important in the internationalization decisions of firms in these countries.

Globerman and Shapiro (2003) observe that firms have a better chance of performing FDI operations in countries with relatively good governance (i.e., with a transparent, impartial and effective legal system that protects property and individual rights; with stable, credible and honest public institutions; and with government policies that promote open and free markets). Infrastructures of this kind make for strong institutions that are able to establish predictable rules that support the efficiency of transactions *(Gelbuda et al., 2008)*. Additionally, *Kostova and Zaheer (1999)* point out that regulatory issues are easier to observe, interpret and understand when they are formalized, and that firms can obtain external legitimacy by conforming to the regulatory domain of

the destination country. Firms, therefore, should be able to operate with greater ease in scenarios in which the 'rules of the game' are more clearly established *(Cuervo-Cazurra & Genc, 2011)* and act in accordance with the coercive mechanisms of regulations *(Phillips et al., 2009)*.

These efficiency criteria cause firms to consider the potential risks and costs of greater distance. Thus, greater distance implies higher costs and risks, which results in firms choosing entry modes with a lower resource commitment *(Brock et al., 2008; Tihanyi et al., 2005)*. But firms considering the magnitude of the distance in conjunction with positive direction may perceive less environmental uncertainty; in these cases, greater distance does not bring with it higher costs and risks for their operations. Indeed, firms that enter better regulated countries will perceive that they can benefit from the institutional advantages in those markets *(Chan et al., 2008)*. These considerations lead us to put forward the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: As positive regulative distance increases, firms will be more likely to prefer entry modes requiring a higher level of resource commitment.

3. Empirical analysis

3.1. Sample

The study uses the *Internationalisation of European SMEs, European Commission, DG Enterprise and Industry*, 2010 survey to perform the empirical analysis. As its name suggests, this survey contains data on the international deployment of European SMEs; the survey was generated from a study commissioned by the European Commission (Directorate General Enterprise and Industry) and implemented by EIM Business and Policy Research. It was conducted in the spring of 2009 and contains a cross-section of data from 2008. Studies such as *Hessels and Parker (2013)* use previous editions of this survey to perform their analyses (in this specific case, the *ENSR Enterprise Survey, 2003*).

The database has entries on 9480 SMEs with between 1 and 249 employees. The sample considers three types of SMEs according to size: micro (1–9 employees); small (10–49 employees); and medium (50–249 employees). These firms are also classified by business sector. The data correspond to 33 European countries; specifically, the EU-27 plus Croatia, Iceland, Liechtenstein, FYR Macedonia, Norway and Turkey. The large number of firms and countries included in this survey makes its results widely generalizable to different countries and contexts. Of the total number of firms, 4422 (46.6%) declare having performed one of the following activities to enter foreign markets: exporting; collaboration (understood as technology transfer); and foreign direct investment. Given that our study seeks information on strategic international entry mode decisions (depending on institutional distance) and that the responding firms may have used more than one entry mode, we adapted the database to account for observations in terms of decisions rather than firms. This adaptation provides us with a total of 18,066 observations on entry mode decisions. As, however, the study examines the relation between regulative distance and entry forms, we only consider internationalization decisions in which the origin and destination countries are known. This reduces the total to 10,560 observations on entry mode decisions. These decisions correspond to 3703 firms from 32 countries.

3.2. Measures

3.2.1. Dependent variable

Entry mode indicates the entry form chosen, classified via the degree of resource commitment required. Because we are looking at institutional regulative differences of home and host environments, the resource commitment construct is appropriate for the analysis. Specifically, we analyze the firm's level of resource commitment in its entry modes in gradual terms *(Hill et al., 1990; Shrader et al., 2000)*. In this way, we constructed an ordinal categorical variable in which exports take value 1; collaboration agreements (such as technology transfers and licenses) take value 2; and foreign direct investment takes value 3.

3.2.2. Independent variables

Regulative distance is a continuous variable that measures the difference between regulatory development in the destination and origin countries.

Distance direction is a dummy variable that takes value 1 when the regulative distance is positive (i.e., regulatory development of the destination country is greater than that of the origin country); it takes 0 when the opposite is the case and the distance is negative (i.e., the regulatory development of the destination country is lower than that of the origin country). This variable allows us to identify the observations via the relative position of the origin country compared to the destination country in terms of regulative distance.

The study constructs a third independent variable – *Regulative distance × Distance direction* – by means of the interaction of these variables. The interpretation of the coefficients of the independent variables will be explained in detail in Section 3.3.

3.2.3. Control variables

As pointed out in the literature, variables at different levels are needed to control for important effects on internationalization decisions *(Coeurderoy & Murray, 2008)*. In this study we have taken account of these levels of analysis and based our selection of control variables on the theoretical and empirical literature on entry mode choices. Specifically, as this paper analyzes entry mode decisions in different markets by firms from different countries, we need to control for the variation in the data from the different levels of analysis under consideration: at the decision level (level 1); the firm level (level 2); and the home country level (level 3).

Control variables are included at the decision level (level 1) by taking into account factors linked to conditions in the destination country that are theoretically distinct from institutional variables *(Coeurderoy & Murray, 2008)*. First, we consider different dimensions of distance that have an impact on entry decisions *(Berry et al., 2010; Dow & Larimo, 2009)*. *Geographical distance* is measured by the logarithm of distance (in kilometers) between the capital cities of the origin and destination countries *(Coeurderoy & Murray, 2008; Slangen & Beugelsdijk, 2010)*. And *Economic distance* is measured by the logarithm of the absolute distance of GDP per capita of the origin and destination countries *(Tsang & Yip, 2007)*. Second, in line with other studies of entry modes in different countries, we include variables to control for the market potential of the destination country Specifically, we control for the market size of the destination country – *GDP of destination*, measured via the logarithm of GDP – and its degree of economic development – *GDP per capita of*

destination, measured via the logarithm of GDP per capita *(Alvarez & Marın, 2010; Chan & Makino, 2007; Javorcik & Wei, 2009; Meyer et al., 2009; Talay & Cavusgil, 2009).*

Next, variables are included at the firm level (level 2) because the entry mode decision is also influenced by factors related to the resources and capabilities of the firm *(Arregle et al., 2006).* We include the variable *Experience in internationalization* (measured via the number of years since the firm's initial involvement with any of the international operations described). Likewise, the variable *Age (Hessels & Parker, 2013)* captures the life span of the firm, measured by the number of years the firm has been in existence. We also consider the possible effect of size *(Cui & Jiang, 2009; Schwens et al., 2011)*, as this has been shown to influence entry mode selection *(Agarwal & Ramaswami, 1992).* The study measures size with three dummy variables that distinguish among *Micro, Small* and *Medium-sized firms* (firms are classified in these categories based on their number of employees). To avoid problems of perfect multicollinearity, the models incorporate two of the three categories; the study uses *Medium* as a baseline category. In this paper, we include a variable to control for the legal form of the firm with a dummy variable (*Legal form*). This variable takes value 1 if the enterprise is a cooperative or has sole proprietors and 0 if the firm is a public limited or a private limited enterprise *(Wiklund & Shepherd, 2008).* The paper captures the effect of these sectoral characteristics via dummy variables. The observations correspond to firms from nine sectors in manufacturing and services. Within the manufacturing sectors, we distinguish among *High, Medium* and *Low Technology Manufacturers (Tseng & Johnsen, 2011)*, as these firms display different internationalization strategies depending on the added value and scientific knowledge of their products and processes *(Bell et al., 2004).* Within the service sectors, we identify *Construction*; *Wholesale*; *Retail; Transport*; *Business services*; and *Personal services*. In the models, however, we only include eight sectors to avoid problems of perfect multicollinearity, with Personal services representing the baseline category.

Lastly, we include controls at the home country level (level 3). Because we are analyzing firms from different countries, it is especially relevant to control for home country differences. We capture market size with the variable *GDP of origin* and the level of economic development of the home market with the variable *GDP per capita of origin*, measured via the logarithm of GDP and GDP per capita of the home country, respectively.

3.3. Model estimation

Different studies agree multidimensional models are required to analyze market entry modes because this decision can be explained according to different levels (e.g., the decision or firm level) *(Brouthers & Nakos, 2004; Demirbag et al., 2007; Yiu & Makino, 2002).* And yet, although these studies present multilevel conceptual models with variables measured at different levels, they ignore the multilevel dimension in their methods *(Arregle et al., 2006).* Since our model seeks to explain the decision behind international entry modes (classified by resource commitment) of different firms from different countries, we need to consider this hierarchical structure of the data. Specifically, we treat each decision as an observation. One firm may enter different countries in the same period, thus giving us multiple decisions for a single firm. As each of these decisions represents a different observation, the observations corresponding to each firm are not independent. This lack of independence in the observations requires the use of a multilevel analysis in order to avoid biased

statistical results *(Arregle et al., 2009; Arregle et al., 2006; Chan et al., 2006; Nielsen & Nielsen, 2011)*. Multilevel models address statistical problems of intra-class correlation, misestimated precision and aggregation bias *(Bliese & Hanges, 2004; Raudenbusch & Bryk, 2002)*.

Table 1 summarizes the descriptive statistics included in the models (with the exception of the sectoral dummies), and Table 2 displays the matrix of correlations. To identify potential problems of multicollinearity, we performed an analysis of the variance inflation factor (VIF). Individual VIF values greater than 10, combined with average VIF values greater than 6, indicate a problem of multicollinearity *(Neter et al., 1989)*. In our case, the values obtained were within the acceptable limits.

Table 1
Descriptive statistics.

Level	Variable	Obs.	Mean	s.d.	Min	Max
Decision	Regulative distance	10,560	0.707	0.607	0.001	3.69
	Distance direction	10,560	0.4685	0.499	0	1
	Geographical distance	10,560	6.91	1.072	4.09	9.86
	Economic distance	10,560	9.39	1.259	4.35	11.62
	GDP pc destination	10,560	10.17	0.952	5.23	11.63
	GDP destination	10,560	27.204	1.846	20.09	30.29
Firm	Experience	3703	15.66	16.36	1	209
	Age	3703	28.14	29.13	1	325
	Micro	3703	0.25	0.43	0	1
	Small	3703	0.36	0.48	0	1
	Medium	3703	0.40	0.49	0	1
	Legal form	3703	0.23	0.42	0	1
	High Tech Manufact.	3703	0.05	0.22	0	1
	Medium tech manufact.	3703	0.12	0.33	0	1
	Low tech manufact.	3703	0.17	0.38	0	1
	Construction	3703	0.05	0.22	0	1
	Wholesale	3703	0.09	0.29	0	1
	Retail	3703	0.12	0.33	0	1
	Transport	3703	0.06	0.23	0	1
	Business services	3703	0.21	0.41	0	1
	Personal services	3703	0.09	0.28	0	1
Origin	GDP pc origin	32	10.23	0.75	8.47	11.63
	GDP origin	32	25.85	1.87	21.28	28.92

Decision (level 1); firm (level 2); origin (level 3).

As Table 1 shows, we include variables for level 1 (decision), level 2 (firm) and level 3 (home country). We need to consider this distinction for each observation, given that the variables for levels 2 and 3 do not change within the same firm. Thus, each decision is treated as an independent observation, with the variables for levels 2 and 3 repeated for each level-1 observation. Given the ordinal nature of the dependent variable, we use a multilevel model for ordinal categorical variables with random intercepts *(Rabe-Hesketh & Skrondal, 2005)*. Ordinal logistic regressions are well-suited to capture the ordinal properties of the dependent variables *(Chu & Anderson, 1992; Li & Meyer, 2009)*. The three-level data structure can be described in this way: $i = 1, ..., n_{jk}$ level-1 units are nested within $j = 1, ..., n_k$ level-2 units, which are in turn nested within $k = 1, ..., n$ level-3 units. More formally, the empirical model has the following econometric specification:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text{Logit}\{Pr(&y_{ijk} > s | x_{ijk}, \zeta_{jk}, \zeta_k)\} \\
= \beta_1 &(\text{Regulative distance})_{ijk} + \beta_2(\text{Distance direction})_{ijk} \\
&+ \beta_3(\text{Regulative distance} \times \text{Distance direction})_{ijk} \\
&+ \beta_4(\text{Geographical distance})_{ijk} \\
&+ \beta_5(\text{Economic distance})_{ijk} + \beta_6(\text{GDP dest})_{ijk} \\
&+ \beta_7(\text{GDP pc dest})_{ijk} + \beta_8(\text{Experience})_{jk} + \beta_9(\text{Age})_{jk} \\
&+ \beta_{10}(\text{Micro})_{jk} + \beta_{11}(\text{Small})_{jk} + \beta_{12}(\text{Legal form})_{jk} \\
&+ \beta_{13}(\text{High manufact})_{jk} + \beta_{14}(\text{Medium manufact})_{jk} \\
&+ \beta_{15}(\text{Low manufact})_{jk} + \beta_{16}(\text{Wholesale})_{jk} \\
&+ \beta_{17}(\text{Retail})_{jk} + \beta_{18}(\text{Transport})_{jk} \\
&+ \beta_{19}(\text{Business service})_{jk} + \beta_{20}(\text{GDP origin})_k \\
&+ \beta_{21}(\text{GDP pc origin})_k + \zeta_{jk}^{(2)} + \zeta_k^{(3)} - \kappa_s
\end{aligned}
$$

where $s = 1 \ldots, S$ ordered categories. $\zeta_{jk}^{(2)}$ is a random intercept varying over firms (level 2), and $\zeta_{jk}^{(3)}$ is a random intercept varying over home countries (level 3). It should be noted that in those observations in which the destination country displays a lower level of regulatory development than the origin country (*Distance direction* equals 0), the model is determined by the following equation:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text{Logit}\{Pr(y_{ijk} > s | x_{ijk}, \zeta_{jk}, \zeta_k)\} &= \beta_1(\text{Regulative distance})_{ijk} + (\ldots) \\
&+ \zeta_{jk}^{(2)} + \zeta_k^{(3)} - \kappa_s
\end{aligned}
$$

And in the opposite case, for those observations in which the destination country displays a higher level of regulatory development than the origin country (*Distance direction* equals 1), the model is determined by:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text{Logit}\{Pr(y_{ijk} > s | x_{ijk}, \zeta_{jk}, \zeta_k)\} &= \beta_2 + (\beta_1 \\
&+ \beta_3)(\text{Regulative distance})_{ijk} \\
&+ (\ldots) + \zeta_{jk}^{(2)} + \zeta_k^{(3)} - \kappa_s
\end{aligned}
$$

In terms of interpreting the results, then, the coefficient of *Regulative distance* (β_1) is used to test hypothesis 1 and the coefficients of *Regulative distance* and *Distance direction × Regula-Regulative direction* are used to test hypothesis 2 (requiring us to add β_1 and β_3 together).

The coefficient of *Distance direction* '(β_2) represents the difference in the constant term of the observations of *Distance direction* with values equal to 0 and 1.

For their part, β_4 to β_7 represent the slopes of the rest of the covariates at level 1; β_8 to β_{19} represent the slopes of the covariates at level 2; and β_{20} and β_{21} represent the slope of the covariates at level 3. κ_s are category-specific parameters called thresholds.

Table 2
Correlation matrix.

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1	Regulative distance	1													
2	Distance direction	−0.09**	1												
3	Geographical distance	0.33**	−0.055**	1											
4	Economic distance	0.45**	0.08**	0.19**	1										
5	GDP pc destination	−0.46**	0.47**	−0.164**	0.011	1									
6	GDP destination	−0.05**	0.13**	0.33**	0.063**	0.45**	1								
7	Experience	0.01	−0.12**	0.11**	0.041**	0.0165	0.112**	1							
8	Age	−0.0024	−0.12**	0.076**	0.012	0.021*	0.091**	0.63**	1						
9	Micro	−0.023*	−0.026**	0.0032	0.012	0.0205*	−0.003	−0.1**	−0.154**	1					
10	Small	−0.024*	−0.003	−0.002	−0.012	0.0078	−0.008	−0.056**	−0.047**	−0.375**	1				
11	Medium	0.042*	0.025*	−0.0007	0.002	−0.024*	0.01	0.137**	0.171**	−0.467**	−0.645**	1			
12	Legal form	0.066**	0.143**	0.011	−0.003	−0.042**	−0.034**	−0.062**	−0.08**	0.0247*	0.03**	−0.049**	1		
13	GDP pc origin	−0.17**	−0.324**	0.076**	0.07**	0.165**	0.205**	0.275**	0.297**	0.061**	−0.0057	−0.045**	−0.32**	1	
14	GDP origin	−0.0012	−0.0112	0.17**	−0.07**	0.065**	0.192**	0.197**	0.237**	0.027**	−0.026**	0.0019	−0.017	0.4**	1

Sectoral dummies not included.
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

4. Results

Table 3 presents the results for models 1 and 2. Model 1 is estimated exclusively with the control variables and model 2 is estimated including the independent variables. We performed a Log Likelihood test to compare both models. This test shows a better fit when the independent variables are included.

Table 3 Results

Level	(1)	(2)
Level 1: Decision		
Regulative distance		-0.279*** (0.081)
Distance direction		0.222* (0.096)
Regulative distance × Distance direction		0.555*** (0.154)
Geographical distance	0.145*** (0.033)	0.153*** (0.033)
Economic distance	0.174*** (0.024)	0.179*** (0.029)
GDP pc destination	-0.136*** (0.035)	-0.296)*** (0.059)
GDP destination	0.0825*** (0.019)	0.0811*** (0.019)
Level 2: Firm		
Experience	-0.0127*** (0.003)	-0.0127*** (0.003)
Age	0.0016 (0.002)	0.0016 (0.002)
Micro	-0.839*** (0.101)	-0.844)*** (0.101)
Small	-0.571*** (0.085)	-0.575*** (0.085)
Legal form	0.00499 (0.102)	-0.00250 (0.103)

High tech manufact.	-0.764*** (0.190)	-0.772*** (0.191)
Medium tech manufact.	-0.857*** (0.148)	-0.867*** (0.148)
Low tech manufact.	-1.131*** (0.141)	-1.138*** (0.141)
Construction	0.283 (0.182)	0.283 (0.183)
Wholesale	-0.525** (0.161)	-0.527** (0.162)
Retail	-0.636*** (0.152)	-0.636*** (0.153)
Transport	0.162 (0.180)	0.164 (0.180)
Business services	0.425*** (0.126)	0.416** (0.127)
Level 3: Origin		
GDP pc origin	0.286** (0.104)	0.417*** (0.119)
GDP origin	-0.157*** (0.04)	-0.157*** (0.042)
N level 1	10.560	10.560
N level 2	3703	3703
N level 3	32	32
Log likelihood	-8462.5	-8454.8
Log likelihood test		15.21**

Note: Intercept cut points are excluded from the output. Regulative distance is mean centered. Standard errors in parentheses.

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

*** $p < 0.001$

N indicates the number of observations for each level.

Specifically, in model 2 we include *Regulative distance*, *Distance direction* and the interaction between both (i.e., *Regulative distance*Distance direction*). As can be observed in model 2, the coefficient for *Regulative distance* is negative and significant. This finding provides support for Hypothesis 1 by showing that when the distance is negative, regulative distance has a negative and significant impact on entry modes requiring a higher resource commitment ($\beta_1 = -0.279$).

In contrast, the coefficient for *Regulative Distance × Distance direction* is positive and significant ($\beta_3 = 0.555$). As previously mentioned, the effect of regulative distance for those observations in which the destination country displays greater levels of regulatory development than the origin country is equivalent to adding the coefficient of *Regulative distance* to the coefficient of *Regulative distance × Distance direction*. Thus, when the regulatory development of the destination country is greater than that of the origin, the resulting coefficient is positive ($\beta_1 + \beta_3 = 0.276$). This finding, then, provides support for Hypothesis 2 by indicating that when the distance is positive, regulative distance has a positive impact on entry modes requiring a higher resource commitment.

5. Discussion

The aim of this research is to analyze the impact of regulative institutional distance on the international entry mode decision. Specifically, we study the different impacts that this distance may have on the choice of international entry mode, with reference to both the magnitude and direction of the distance.

This study advances our knowledge of the impact of the direction of regulative distance and stimulates debate on the asymmetric effect of institutional distance on internationalization decisions. Distance direction may be behind the lack of consensus in the results of previous studies (from the perspectives of both transaction costs and institutional theories). In these cases the firm, despite the large differences between regulatory environments, perceives that the new environment is easier to understand (thereby reducing the difficulty of obtaining external legitimacy) and gives priority to evaluating the costs and risks of the entry form.

The paper also helps improve our understanding of the role regulatory institutions play in entry mode decisions. Our focus on the level of regulatory development makes it possible to investigate the different regulatory components of the international entry mode decision and to go beyond the consideration of country risk seen in most other works *(Slangen & Van Tulder, 2009)*. These regulatory frameworks define in a coercive manner what is and what is not permitted, leaving firms with no option other than following them *(Eden & Miller, 2004)*.

6. Conclusions

Our study confirms that institutional differences between origin and destination countries have an impact on entry mode decisions. Firms need to bear in mind questions of legitimacy and efficiency when dealing with these differences, which is why we consider the transaction costs and institutional approaches in this paper. Moreover, our research goes a step further by postulating that it is not only important to determine *how much* two countries differ, but also *how* they differ (requiring an examination of the direction of the distance). As expected, our empirical results show that firms are more likely to opt for entry modes requiring a lower level of resource commitment when the regulative distance is negative; our findings also indicate that this tendency increases as the regulative distance grows. And vice versa, firms that move in the opposite direction (when the distance is positive) are more likely to opt for entry forms requiring a higher level of resource commitment as the regulative distance increases. Researchers, then, should consider extending the analysis of institutional factors to include the potential asymmetric effect of institutional differences caused by the relative positions of the origin and destination countries.

Our study has uncovered many issues that merit attention and suggest lines for future research. This paper focuses solely on the level of regulatory development; it does not consider other institutional factors. Although we believe that our study contributes to an improved understanding of the internationalization strategies of firms, future research could extend our work by analyzing international entry mode choices with regard to the direction of regulative distance and its effects on firm performance.

Вопросы для размышления
1. В чём заключаются проблема, цель и методология исследования статьи?
2. На какие проекты можно экстраполировать полученные результаты?
3. Как с точки зрения объёма выборки данного исследования обосновывается её качество, а также надёжность полученных результатов? Прокомментируйте представленные полученные значения статических показателей.
4. Какие факторы определяют стратегию интернационализации компании?
5. Насколько актуальна представленная проблема для России и российских компаний?

Национальный исследовательский университет «Высшая школа экономики»

Профиль «Управление проектами: проектный анализ, инвестиции, технологии реализации»

Прочитайте статью[4] и сделайте ее критический анализ на русском языке.

1. Introduction

Project management is designed to ensure the success of a project is a subjective concept that depends on the perspective of the individual who is evaluating that success *(Carvalho, 2014)*.

Traditionally, compliance with cost, schedule, and quality/ has been used as a criterion to measure project success *(Barclay & Osei-Bryson, 2010)*. These dimensions, known as the «iron triangle», though often criticized, are still considered the gold standard for measuring project success *(Papke-Shields et al., 2010)*. Accordingly, a focus on these factors suggests that project management is expected to be more concerned with organizational efficiency than with organizational effectiveness.

To better understand the causes of project failure, researchers explored a number of project management dimensions, including how projects are conducted and the internal and external contexts in which projects are executed *(Papke-Shields et al., 2010)*. Over the last three decades, many authors have used different lines of research to identify the variables or conditions that lead to successful projects. Among these lines of research, the greatest number of publications is related to critical success factors *(Fortune & White, 2006)* and project management maturity models *(Berssaneti et al., 2012; Jiang et al., 2004)*. The current business environment shares the general assumption that the adoption of project management methodologies and the achievement of maturity in this field result in improvement of both organizational performance and project performance.

Although businesses have been engaged in project management for more than half a century, its contribution to performance is still not acknowledged outside the group of professionals who believe in project management *(Aubry & Hobbs, 2010)*. Some empirical studies support the general view *(Besner & Hobbs, 2013; Kerzner, 2006)* and highlight the challenges associated with the implementation of project management methodologies *(Ala-Risku & Kärkkäinen, 2006)*. However, scholars argue that the contribution of project management methodologies to enhancing performance is a controversial subject that requires in-depth research *(Aubry & Hobbs, 2010)*.

There is a lack of empirical and structured researches *(Grant & Pennypacker, 2006)* to address the relationship between project management and performance. This paper aims to fill the research gaps and to answer the research question «what are the variables that influence project success»?

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[4] Подготовлена на основе: Berssaneti F.T., Carvalho M.M. (2015) Identification of variables that impact project success in Brazilian companies // *International Journal of Project Management*, Vol. 33(3), pp. 638-649.

2. Literature review
2.1. Project success

The goal of project management is to ensure the success of the project. Success, as a subjective term, is dependent on the perspective of those who are measuring it *(Jha & Iyer, 2006)*. According to *Barclay and Osei-Bryson (2010)*, a key challenge of a projects often includes the lack of clearly defined objectives and the mismatched stakeholders' expectations. Moreover, the success criteria can vary from project to project as they are dependent on the context and on the perspectives of the various stakeholders, according to *Toor and Ogunlana (2010)*.

Factors such as time, cost, and quality are traditionally used as criteria for measuring project success *(Pinto & Slevin, 1987; Papke-Shields et al., 2010)* and the «iron triangle» *(Meredith & Mantel, 2000; Pinto & Slevin, 1987)*. However, there is no consensus regarding the success criteria among researchers *(Jha & Iyer, 2006)* because there are many variables that can affect success, such as the context of the internal organization and the external environment in which a project is performed, and can influence both the outcome and the success of a project *(Papke-Shields et al., 2010)*. In addition, over the years, the three criteria (time, cost, quality), often called the basic or traditional criteria, have been criticized because they seem inadequate. Some authors consider them excessive, while others consider them incomplete *(Yu et al., 2005)*. Accordingly, several efforts have been made to overcome the inadequacies. These attempts can be grouped into two different approaches: (1) adding more dimensions to the traditional criteria (iron triangle), exploring the variables that can impact success; and (2) reducing various criteria to a single evaluation criterion, the financial criterion *(Yu et al., 2005)*. The second approach considers that time and quality are project cost variables *(Yu et al., 2005)*. This study is aligned with approach 01, exploring variables that impact project success.

Because of the complexity of the project success concept discussed above and the lack of consensus among authors in the field, the traditional dimensions of the «iron triangle», albeit criticized, are still considered central to the measurement of project success *(Papke-Shields et al., 2010)*. *Agarwal and Rathod (2006)* stated that cost, time and quality (functionality) are still important criteria for evaluating the performance of projects from the professional's point of view, and these criteria have been used in several studies, both alone and in combination with other measures.

The present research used the basic dimensions, denoted as efficiency by *Shenhar and Dvir (2007)*. Project performance was evaluated according to the planned budget, the schedule, the technical specifications (product/service requirements), and the ability to meet the customer service requirements. Note that the quality dimension was subdivided into two criteria: meeting technical specifications and meeting customer demands. Projects were considered successful when all four dependent variables of the conceptual model proposed and stated above as basic dimensions were met. Partial success was considered when only one, two, or three of the basic dimensions were met.

2.2. Critical success factors — CSFs

Many authors have published lists of factors, sometimes relating them to specific problem areas and activities, sometimes highlighting their applicability to all projects types, and in some cases, changing the concept and referring to them as «Critical Failure Factors» *(Fortune & White, 2006)*. These authors presented a list of twenty-seven critical factors, in which the most

cited was top management support, cited by 39 references (62%). In any organization, top management is primarily responsible for providing the necessary support and resources required for the project *(Rauniar & Rawski, 2012)*. A lack of engagement by the top management and a lack of attention from the organization during the early stage of the project are linked to poor performance *(Sosa et al., 2007)*.

Zwikael (2008) suggested that effective executive involvement can significantly improve project success. However, the literature does not provide organizations with a clear list of effective top management support practices to facilitate or to achieve this type of support. As a result of his research, *Zwikael (2008)* identified a short list of critical processes and best practices that most contribute to effective top management support and, hence, to project success.

The above discussion suggests the following hypothesis:

H01

There exists a relationship between top management support and the performance (success) of executed projects.

Another critical success factor often cited in the literature corresponds to the existence of a dedicated project manager *(Fortune & White, 2006; Pinto & Mantel, 1990)*. *Archibald (1976)*, for example, considers the project manager the link responsible for integrating the entire project. *Nguyen et al. (2004)* identified five critical success factors, among which are included a competent project manager and the availability of resources. The leadership literature states that the project manager provides the team with the proper direction and goals, provides motivational support, and helps to resolve any interpersonal and organizational issues *(Rauniar & Rawski, 2012)*. In another research, *Qureshi et al. (2009)* posited that project management leadership has a significant impact on project management performance.

The above discussion leads us to propose the following hypothesis:

H02

There exists a relationship between the presence of a dedicated project manager and the performance (success) of executed projects.

In conclusion, in this research, the two critical success factors highlighted by the literature are used in the conceptual model (see Fig. 1), as follows: (a) top management support; and (b) a project manager dedicated to the project. These two critical success factors were selected based on the feasibility of verification and checking by survey respondents and because they are most often cited in the literature related to CSFs.

2.3. Project management maturity models

Project management maturity of a company is a measure of its efficiency in completing the project *(Kerzner, 2001)*. The emergence of project management maturity models is a recent phenomenon, which dates back approximately a decade and a half. The literature has focused its attention on the methods used to conduct a maturity assessment based on the potential value of project management maturity models *(Grant & Pennypacker, 2006)*.

Among the project management maturity models, three models can be highlighted: Capability Maturity Model Integration (CMMI), the Organizational Project Management Maturity Model (OPM3) *(Project Management Institute, 2008)* and the Kerzner Project Management Maturity Model (PMMM) *(Kerzner, 2001)*.

CMMI, based on concepts of maturity levels or stages and on structural requirements for key process areas, execute a series of practices, both specific and general, that are inherent to

each of the five maturity Levels: (1) initial, (2) managed, (3) defined, (4) quantitatively managed, and (5) optimized).

Organizational Project Management Maturity Model (OPM3) was established to develop a maturity model certified according to PMI standards. Additionally, the OPM3 program helps organizations develop the ability to support macro company processes in managing all projects and relating these projects to corporate strategy.

The Project Management Maturity Model (PMMM) is composed of five levels: Level 1 – Common Language; Level 2 – Common Processes; Level 3 – Singular Methodology; Level 4 – Benchmarking; and Level 5 – Continuous Improvement. As in Software Engineering Institute models, each level represents a different degree of project management maturity. Maturity Level 2, for example, represents the transition from immaturity (Levels 1 and 2) to maturity (Level 3) *(Kerzner, 2001)*. According to *Carvalho et al. (2008)*, despite the similar structure, the CMMI and PMMM have different focuses, as the CMMI is more specific to the software engineering context, and different terminology, which could lead to misunderstandings when both models are being implemented in the same organization.

Level 2 represents the transition from immaturity to maturity. The PMMM Level 2 has the following main characteristics: recognition of benefits from project management, organizational support at all levels, recognition of the need for processes/methodologies, recognition of the need for cost control, and development of a project management training curriculum. The PMMM Level 2 can be deployed in five life cycle phases as follows: (1) embryonic, (2) executive management acceptance; (3) line management acceptance, (4) growth, and (5) maturity *(Kerzner, 2001)*.

Although companies with more mature project management practices could be expected to have better project performances, the findings are, in fact, conflicting *(Yazici, 2009)*. In recent decades, some studies have been published which evaluated the relationship between project management maturity and project success. However, there is limited evidence on the existence of a relationship between maturity and success, and to date, this relationship has not been confirmed. Accordingly, these studies demonstrate the need for further research regarding the relationship between project management maturity and project success.

Dion (1993) mentioned that organizations that adopt the CMM model tend to demonstrate higher quality software development, a faster development cycle and greater productivity. *Herbsleb and Goldenson (1996)* found evidence that process maturity of software development is associated with better organizational performance.

Jiang et al. (2004) identified a statistically significant relationship between project success and maturity levels of software development.

The previous discussion suggests the following hypothesis:

H03

There exists a relationship between organizational maturity in project management and the performance (success) of executed projects.

2.3.1. Comparative analysis of the maturity models

For assessing project management maturity, the Kerzner maturity model was selected. The PMMM, Maturity Level 2 – Common Processes, mark the transition within an organization, from immaturity stages (Levels 1 and 2) to maturity (Levels 3, 4 and 5), according to *Kerzner (2001)*.

2.4. Research conceptual model

For answering the research question, a set of hypotheses arose as a result of the theoretical discussion. Three variables that can impact project success were considered: top management support, dedicated project manager and organizational project management maturity. The main effect of these three variables was analyzed, besides the effect of the interaction among them. Project success, the dependent variable, is considered according to the iron triangle perspective. Fig. 1 shows the research conceptual model and hypotheses.

The research hypotheses are the following:

H01. There exists a relationship between top management support and the performance (success) of executed projects.

H02. There exists a relationship between the presence of a dedicated project manager and the performance (success) of executed projects.

H03. There exists a relationship between organizational maturity in project management and the performance (success) of executed projects.

H04. There exists a combination of the variables of top management support and a dedicated project manager that explains the success of executed projects.

H05. There exists a combination of the variables of organizational maturity in project management and a dedicated project manager that explains the success of executed projects.

H06. There exists a combination of the variables of organizational maturity in project management and top management support that explains the success of executed projects.

H07. There exists a combination of the variables of top management support, a dedicated project manager, and organizational maturity in project management that explains the success of executed projects.

3. Research methods

3.1. Unit of analysis selection

The unit of analysis is the project. The sample is composed of people who have responded to the questionnaire on behalf of their companies. These individuals are part of institutes and associations dedicated to studying project management, and are from project-oriented companies.

We obtained an effective return of 336 questionnaires, a sample that is larger than that calculated by the software G*Power 3.0 *(Faul et al., 2007)* when considering the level of statistical significance (α) at 5% and the level of power required at 80% *(Hair et al., 2005)*, which results in a sample of 153 respondents.

3.2. Research instrument

The research instruments were designed based on the literature review, deployed into 4 sections as follows (see Table 1):

Table 1 Research instruments

Section 1	Characterization of the interviewee (participation in projects, responsibility in projects etc); characterization of the Company (number of employees, revenue estimates, number of ongoing projects etc.)
Section 2	Evaluation of organizational maturity in project management using Kerzner's (2001) PMMM Level 2 assessment – life cycle phases: transition, within an organization, from immaturity (Levels 1 and 2) to maturity (Levels 3, 4 and 5).

	[For a company to be eligible for maturity Level 3, it is necessary to have high scores (six or greater) in all five life cycle phases. In this case, the company may be considered mature]
Section 3	Observation of critical success factors (existence of an exclusively dedicated project manager and if the estimated resources of the project were made available by the top management)
Section 4	Analysis of the project performance: to draw a relationship between critical success factors and project management maturity

3.3. Conceptual model

In the present research, there are four dependent variables, all of which were analyzed separately. Tables 2 and 3 identify the dependent, independent and/or moderating variables of the conceptual model.

Table 2 Evaluation of project success – dependent variables

Dependent variable	
D1	Compliance with project budget (cost)
D2	Compliance with original project timetable (schedule)
D3	Delivery of product/service requirements as planned
D4	Customer service requirements (needs)

Table 3 Input variables of the conceptual model

Input variable	Variable category	Construct
V01 – Top management support	Independent and/or moderating	Critical success factor
V02 – Dedicated project manager	Independent and/or moderating	
V03 – Project management maturity	Independent	Project management maturity models

A moderating variable is a factor, phenomenon or property that also impacts the dependent variable, but to a lesser extent, thus influencing the relationship between the independent and the dependent variables *(Marconi & Lakatos, 2003)*. The two critical success factors selected are the two possible moderating variables used to evaluate their influence on generating lower costs, meeting deadlines and improving the quality of the projects. Therefore, these two CSFs were considered independent variables for verifying hypotheses H01, H02 and H04, while they were considered moderating variables for verifying hypotheses H05, H06 and H07.

To verify hypotheses H01, H02 and H03, chi-squared independency tests were performed using as a benchmark a p-value lower than or equal to 0.05 (descriptive level) of the maximum likelihood test, from Minitab v.16.

To verify hypotheses H04, H05, H06 and H07, binary logistic regressions were tested also using as a benchmark a p-value lower than or equal to 0.05. The binary logistic regression analysis applied in this study corresponds to a multivariate statistical technique used for explaining a dependent variable with binary outcomes (success or failure). According to *Hosmer and Lemeshow (2001)*, the logistic equation corresponds to a probability distribution restricted between 0 and 1, as seen in Eq. (1):

$$P \text{ (success)} = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\alpha}} \qquad (1)$$

Where:

$\alpha \ \beta 0 + \beta 1 X1 + \beta 2 X2 + \ldots + \beta iXi$

βi – constants

Xi – independent or moderating variables

4. Results

For evaluating which organizations can be classified as mature with respect to project management, the data from the project management maturity (Level 2) questionnaire were verified for each of the five stages of the Level 2 life cycle of the PMMM. Table 4 presents, for each one of the five stages, the number of companies with scores equal to or greater than six, from the perspective of the survey participants.

Table 4 Results per PMMM life cycle phase

Life cycle PMMM Level 2	Companies with a score equal to or greater than 6	Mean	Standard deviation	Median
Embryonic	98	1.62	5.67	2.00
Executive management acceptance	59	0.61	5.24	1.00
Line management acceptance	71	1.28	4.86	2.00
Growth	72	0.66	5.40	1.00
Maturity	58	−0.74	5.88	−1.00

When analyzing Table 4 (distribution of companies according to Level 2 life cycle), in which a given company can have a score equal to or above six in one of the stages of Level 2 of the PMMM, great variability of the data can be observed. We note that out of the 336 questionnaires only 32 (or 9.5%) evaluated their companies with scores equal to or above six in all stages of the life cycle, the case necessary for a company to be considered mature *(Kerzner, 2001)*. The results have shown that there is a great opportunity to improve project management practices in the evaluated companies, given that less than 10% of the sample has evaluated their company as meeting the requirements necessary to be assessed as mature with respect to project management. This result corroborates those obtained by *Yazici (2009)* and *Berssaneti et al.*

(2012), who have also found that only a small portion of their samples qualify as mature regarding their project management practices.

To verify the hypotheses in the research, the hypotheses have been broken into four sub-hypotheses that aim to verify the relationship between the input variables of the conceptual model and each of the four dependent variables in the model. Based on the results in Table 5, we can infer that H01b and H01c are true. Hence, there is a relationship between top management support and meeting the project timetable and also between top management support and product/service requirement delivery. These results support the critical success factor most often cited in the literature – top management support *(Fortune & White, 2006)*.

Table 5 Specific hypotheses deployed from hypotheses H01, H02 and H03

Hypothesis		a – budget (cost)	b – schedule (time)	c – project requirements	d – customer demands
H01	Chi-square test $\chi 2$ p-Value	Fail to support 1.147 0.284	**Support** **8.39** **0.004**	**Support** **4.796** **0.029**	Fail to support 3.187 0.074
H02	Chi-square test $\chi 2$ p-Value	Fail to support 0.966 0.326	**Support** **4.161** **0.041**	Fail to support 1.775 0.183	Fail to support 0.000 0.983
H03	Chi-square test $\chi 2$ p-Value	**Support** **6.326** **0.012**	**Support** **5.296** **0.021**	**Support** **6.392** **0.011**	Fail to support 0.435 0.509

H02 is also partially true as a relationship between the existence of a dedicated project manager and meeting the timeline was found. The result indicates the importance of a dedicated project manager in meeting timelines, thus contributing to studies such as *Qureshi et al. (2009)*.

With respect to hypothesis H03, three sub-hypotheses were confirmed. This result corroborates the findings of *Berssaneti et al. (2012)*, who conducted a similar study on the technology sector in which they identified a relationship between project management maturity and meeting stakeholders' demands. The result also supports the studies by *Jiang et al. (2004)*, which confirm the hypothesis that project management maturity is positively related to improved project performance. Furthermore, according to H04, H05, H06 and H07, the presence of more than one variable, when present and combined, provides an explanation for the success of the projects. To perform the binary logistic regression analysis, these hypotheses have been further broken down into four specific hypotheses (Table 6).

At this level, only hypothesis H06 was partially confirmed, thus resulting in a regression equation for variable D3 – product/service requirements delivery as planned.

Table 6 Specific hypotheses deployed from hypotheses H04, H05, H06 and H07

Hypothesis	a – budget (cost)	b – schedule (time)	c – project requirements	d – customer demands
H04 - Binary logistic regression Constant Top management support Project manager	Fail to support p-Value = 0.004 p-Value = 0.327 p-Value = 0.382	Fail to support p-Value = 0.361 p-Value = 0.007 p-Value = 0.087	Fail to support p-Value = 0.022 p-Value = 0.038 p-Value = 0.283	Fail to support p-Value = 0.001 p-Value = 0.067 p-Value = 0.837
H05 - Binary logistic regression Constant Maturity Project manager	Fail to support p-Value = 0.000 p-Value = 0.045 p-Value = 0.432	Fail to support p-Value = 0.245 p-Value = 0.049 p-Value = 0.067	Fail to support p-Value = 0.000 p-Value = 0.047 p-Value = 0.265	Fail to support p-Value = 0.000 p-Value = 0.521 p-Value = 0.964
H06 - Binary logistic regression Constant Maturity Top management support	Fail to support p-Value = 0.000 p-Value = 0.043 p-Value = 0.330	Fail to support p-Value = 0.715 p-Value = 0.045 p-Value = 0.005	**Support** **p-Value = 0.004** **p-Value = 0.046** **p-Value = 0.035**	Fail to support p-Value = 0.000 p-Value = 0.584 p-Value = 0.074
H07 - Binary logistic regression Constant Maturity Project manager Top management support	Fail to support p-Value = 0.006 p-Value = 0.047 p-Value = 0.049	Fail to support p-Value = 0.3 p-Value = 0.059 p-Value = 0.126	Fail to support p-Value = 0.033 p-Value = 0.052 p-Value =	Fail to support p-Value = 0.001 p-Value = 0.57 p-Value = 0.797 p-Value =

		0.379	0.071
p-Value = 0.370	p-Value = 0.009	p-Value = 0.047	

In Table 7, we present the β coefficients of Eq. (1), p-value – and «Odds Ratio Exp(B)», which allows us to determine how the probability of a given event increases in the presence of a single variable when compared to its non-existence.

Table 7 Input variables of the model

Dependent variable	Independent variable	Coefficient	Standard error	p-Value	Odds Ratio Exp(B)
D3 – delivery of the product/service requirements of the project as planned	Constant	$\beta_0 = 0.724260$	0.248697	0.004	
	V03 – project management maturity	$\beta_3 = 1.48368$	0.744685	0.046	4.41
	V01 – top management support	$\beta_1 = 0.621888$	0.295039	0.035	1.86

When analyzing data from Table 7, we can conclude that variables V03 and V01 influence the delivery of product/service requirements as planned. Therefore, they should be included in the model. We then obtain Eq. (2):

$$\mathbf{P(D3)} = \frac{1}{1+e^{-(0.724260+1.48368V03+0.621888V01)}} \qquad (2)$$

By substituting values in Eq. (2), that is, V03 = 1 (presence of variable) and V01 = 1 (presence of variable), the probability that the project delivers product/service requirements as planned is 94.43%.

Independent variable V03 and moderating variable V01 positively influence the probability that product/service requirement delivery as planned will be met. In the presence of variable V03 (project management maturity), the probability of product/service requirement delivery as planned increases by 4.41 times (Odds Ratio Exp(B)), and in the presence of moderating variable V01 (top management support), it increases by 1.86 times (Odds Ratio Exp(B)).

5. Conclusions

The research hypotheses presented herein provides a means for correlating the organizational project management maturity with project success, as well as two critical success factors (top management support and the presence of a dedicated project manager). However, the impact is not significant in all dimensions of project success.

Other moderating and control variables should be explored in the future, such as the project complexity, sector, project life cycle phases and company size. Finally, this study also demonstrates that the time vertices of iron triangle are more sensitive to the studied variables than the others. Thus, it is important to investigate if there are tradeoffs among the project

success dimensions, because this study demonstrates that the studied variables impact each success dimension in different ways.

Вопросы для размышления

1. Систематизируйте, каким образом авторы статьи анализируют эволюцию отношения к проблеме влияния зрелости проектного управления на успех их реализации?

2. Какая из моделей оценки зрелости проектного управления была использована в исследовании? На Ваш взгляд, почему авторы выбрали именно такую модель? Целесообразно ли было использовать другие популярные модели? Обоснуйте Вашу точку зрения.

3. Прокомментируйте выдвинутые авторами гипотезы и выразите Ваше отношение к ним.

4. В чём состоит проблема исследования, какова его цель и методология? Подтвердились ли поставленные авторами гипотезы?

5. С помощью какого статистического метода (методов) была протестирована концептуальная модель исследования? Какую роль в оценке модели играют показатели p-value, бэта-коэффициент, Odds Ratio Exp(B)?

6. На основании результатов исследования, прокомментируйте, какие факторы, относящиеся к зрелости проектного управления (исходя из материалов статьи), являются определяющими для успеха проекта и почему?

7. Какие факторы успеха, на Ваш взгляд, не учли авторы, но, по Вашему мнению, эти факторы следовало бы учесть?

Национальный исследовательский университет «Высшая школа экономики»

Профиль «Управление человеческими ресурсами»
Прочитайте статью[5] и сделайте ее критический анализ на русском языке.

Introduction

Historically, interview research has focused on the characteristics and behaviors of the interviewer that caused the interview to have purportedly poor validity. As it became apparent that the validity of the interview was substantially higher than previously thought *(McDaniel et al., 1994)*, research took a more construct-oriented approach, and among other things, examined applicant characteristics that are related to interviewer evaluations. These factors range from knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) to personality characteristics, values, and applied social skills *(Huffcutt et al., 2001)*. Although the direct effect of each of these factors on interview outcomes has been extensively studied, these factors have also become central components in the study of person–environment (P–E) fit *(Kristof-Brown, 2000)*.

The concept of P–E fit is a venerable one in psychology, dating at least as far back as *Lewin's (1935)* study, in which behavior was conceptualized as a function of the interaction between the person and the environment (B f[P, E]). Historically, the concept also has been emphasized in vocational counseling *(Holland, 1973)* as well as in interactional psychology *(Endler & Magnusson, 1976)*, which developed as a reaction to *Mischel's (1968)* critique of the personality literature. In industrial–organizational psychology, much of the research on P–E fit has focused on assessments of person–organization (P–O) and person–job (P–J) fit made by recruiters during the employment interview (e.g., *Adkins et al., 1994; Kristof-Brown, 2000; Rynes & Gerhart, 1990*). Although this research is extensive, it is far from conclusive. For example, although research has shown that recruiters do attempt to evaluate applicant fit during the employment interview and that perceptions of fit affect subsequent selection decisions *(Cable & Judge, 1997)*, little research has examined the extent to which applicant behaviors affect evaluations of perceived fit.

If applicant behaviors affect recruiter evaluations of fit, and it seems likely that they do, one class of behaviors that may affect these evaluations are applicant influence tactics. Influence tactics are behaviors used by an individual to manage shared meaning *(Ferris et al., 1994)*. In other words, these tactics are used in an effort to manage others' perceptions of a situation in a way that is beneficial to the influencer. In the present study, we examined antecedents to applicant influence-tactic use, the use of influence tactics in employment interviews, and the effect these tactics have on interview out-comes such as recruiter perceptions of fit and hiring recommendations.

When examining employment interviews, fit assessments, and influence tactics in combination, one sees a number of important relationships between these three distinct areas of research. For example, *Stevens and Kristof (1995)* found that self-promotion and ingratiation are the primary influence tactics used in employment interviews. Also, the use of these tactics often leads to positive interview outcomes such as second interview invitations and job offers. Furthermore, previous research has found that recruiter perceptions of fit lead to positive interview outcomes *(Cable & Judge, 1997; Kristof-Brown, 2000)*. However, several questions have not been answered. Specifically, what factors contribute to applicants' use of influence tactics in employment interviews? What is the nature of the relationship between applicant

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[5] Подготовлена на основе: Higgins C.A., Judge T.A. (2004) The effect of applicant influence tactics on recruiter perceptions of fit and hiring recommendations: a field study // *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 89(4), p. 622.

influence tactics and recruiter perceptions of fit? And finally, do influence tactics have only a direct effect on interview outcomes, as suggested by previous research, or is the effect mediated by some intervening mechanism, such as perceived fit?

In the Hypotheses section, we address these questions as we discuss previous research on influence tactics, P–E fit, and the employment interview. We then propose a series of hypotheses that replicate findings from previous research and form the foundation for the present study. Finally, we develop hypotheses that extend previous research in a number of ways.

First, we explore self-monitoring as an antecedent to applicant influence tactics. Although self-monitoring has been widely discussed as a possible antecedent to influence tactics, as we note shortly, little research has linked it to contemporary conceptualizations of this construct. Second, we examine the effect of influence tactics on perceptions of fit. We are aware of no research that has examined the possible relationship between influence tactics and perceived fit. Third, we explore a mediating role for perceived fit in the relationship between applicant influence tactics and recruiter hiring recommendations. Previous research has implied only a direct effect of influence tactics on recruiter recommendations. By examining these relationships, we hope to gain a better understanding of the impact of influence tactics and fit perceptions on the interview process.

Hypotheses
Influence Tactics and Hiring Recommendations

The initial employment interview is a rather ambiguous situation in which neither party typically has extensive, first-hand knowledge of the other *(Judge & Ferris, 1993)*. As a result, both the applicant and the recruiter attempt to gather as much information as possible about the other to determine whether they are interested in further pursuit of an employment relationship. Be-cause initial job interviews tend to be rather short, accurate assessments of available information and cues are critical to the success of selection decisions. Unfortunately, accurate assessments may be difficult to obtain.

Many authors have argued that the ambiguity surrounding the employment interview creates a situation in which influence tactics are likely to be used to successfully manage perceptions *(Ferris et al., 1989; Gilmore & Ferris, 1989; Judge & Ferris, 1993)*. Although it is difficult to manage impressions consistently for extended periods of time, it may be much less difficult to manage impressions over the course of a 30 to 45 min. interview. Therefore, past research has focused on determining which influence tactics are used most often in employment interviews and the extent to which the use of these tactics leads to favorable interview outcomes.

Although the broader influence-tactic literature has identified a number of different tactics, two seem particularly relevant to the employment interview: ingratiation and self-promotion. Ingratiation is the use of specific actions such as opinion conformity, other enhancement, and favor doing in an attempt to increase the target person's liking of the individual *(Jones, 1964)*. However, self-promotion is the act of promoting one's positive characteristics in an attempt to elicit attributions of competence *(Stevens & Kristof, 1995)*. Previous research has found that both ingratiation and self-promotion are likely to be used by applicants in employment interviews and are likely to have positive effects on interview outcomes *(Stevens & Kristof, 1995)*.

Research by *Stevens and Kristof (1995)* found that applicant ingratiation tactics are positively related to interview outcomes and evaluations, such as perceived applicant suitability and likelihood of organizational pursuit. This relationship may be explained by *Byrne's (1969)*

similarity–attraction theory. Similarity–attraction theory suggests that individuals are attracted to those with whom they share something in common. Therefore, when an applicant uses ingratiatory tactics such as agreeing with opinions expressed by a recruiter, the recruiter may believe that the parties share many similar beliefs and attitudes, thus causing the recruiter to become more attracted to the applicant. As a result of this attraction, the recruiter can be expected to provide positive evaluations of the applicant. As the recruiter is making his or her evaluations, it seems the most important evaluation he or she makes is an evaluation of whether to recommend hiring the applicant. If the recruiter is attracted to the applicant, a positive recommendation to hire is likely to result.

Just as ingratiation is expected to influence recruiter hiring recommendations, self-promotion is also expected to have a positive impact on hiring recommendations. *Again, Stevens and Kristof (1995)* provided support for this expected relationship with results of their study, which suggest that self-promotion has a strong, positive correlation with perceived applicant suitability and likelihood of organizational pursuit. Because the traditional focus of the selection process has been on finding competent individuals to fill job openings *(Werbel & Gilliland, 1999)*, it seems that applicants who promote their own skills and abilities to create an impression of competence should be seen as viable candidates by recruiters. In turn, those applicants who recruiters believe have the KSAs necessary to do the job are likely to receive positive hiring recommendations. Thus, we expect self-promotion to be positively related to recruiter hiring recommendations.

Perceived Fit and Hiring Recommendations

The present study examined two forms of fit: P–O fit and P–J fit. P–O fit focuses on the compatibility between the individual and the organization in terms of values and/or personality traits *(Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown, 2000)*. However, P–J fit is concerned with the fit between an individual's abilities and the demands and requirements of a specific job *(Edwards, 1991)*.

Looking specifically at the role of P–O fit in the selection process, several researchers have suggested that P–O fit perceptions likely play an important role in recruiters' decision-making processes *(Gilmore & Ferris, 1989; Rynes & Gerhart, 1990)*. In fact, recent empirical work suggests that subjective evaluations of P–O fit are indeed important factors in the selection process *(Cable & Judge, 1997; Kristof-Brown, 2000)*.

Specifically, *Kristof-Brown (2000)* examined recruiters' subjective evaluations of P–O fit and the effect of these evaluations on selection decisions. Results suggest that recruiters' subjective P–O fit perceptions are strong predictors of subsequent hiring recommendations. Furthermore, *Cable and Judge (1997)* found that recruiters' P–O fit perceptions are the single most important factor in predicting hiring recommendations. On the basis of the results of these studies, we hypothesized that recruiters' perceptions of P–O fit would be positively related to subsequent hiring recommendations.

Just as a positive relationship is expected between perceived P–O fit and recruiter hiring recommendations, research suggests that perceived P–J fit will also have a positive relationship with hiring recommendations. Previous selection research has suggested that a central purpose of many selection processes is to select those candidates whose objective qualifications best match the requirements of the job *(Werbel & Gilliland, 1999)*. However, research has also shown that subjective evaluations made by recruiters tend to have stronger effects on subsequent selection

decisions than do objective qualifications *(Gilmore & Ferris, 1989; Kinicki et al., 1990; Rynes & Gerhart, 1990).*

For example, *Kinicki et al. (1990)* found that whereas objective qualifications had little effect on selection recommendations, subjective evaluations of P–J fit were strongly related to hiring recommendations. Furthermore, *Kristof-Brown (2000)* examined recruiters' judgments of applicant fit in an effort to determine how recruiters evaluate fit and how they use judgments of fit in making selection decisions. Results of this study also suggest that recruiters' judgments of applicant P–J fit are the strongest predictors of recruiters' hiring recommendations. Therefore, in this study we expected recruiters' perceptions of P–J fit to have a positive effect on hiring recommendations.

Hiring Recommendations and Job Offers

Finally, although recruiters' hiring recommendations are an important part of the selection process, they do not represent the final outcome. Ultimately, the most important question is whether the organization actually extends a job offer to the applicant. Therefore, it is necessary to understand the relationship between recruiters' hiring recommendations and the actual hiring decisions made by organizations. Past research has suggested that recruiters' recommendations are likely to have a positive effect on actual hiring decisions. For example, many of those responsible for making final hiring decisions have reported that recruiters' recommendations are one of the most important factors in making their final decision *(Dipboye, 1994). Cable and Judge (1997)* provided empirical evidence of this, reporting a correlation of .64 (p < .05) between recruiter hiring recommendations and organizational hiring decisions. As this suggests, it is reasonable to expect that recruiter recommendations will have a positive effect on organizational decisions to extend a job offer.

In an effort to replicate previous research and to lay the groundwork for the focal issues of the present study, we hypothesized the following:

Hypothesis 1: Ingratiation will be positively related to recruiter hiring recommendations.

Hypothesis 2: Self-promotion will be positively related to recruiter hiring recommendations.

Hypothesis 3: Perceived P–O fit will be positively related to recruiter hiring recommendations.

Hypothesis 4: Perceived P–J fit will be positively related to recruiter hiring recommendations.

Hypothesis 5: Recruiter hiring recommendations will be positively related to actual job offers.

Self-Monitoring and Influence Tactics

One critical question about the use of influence tactics in employment interviews is, Who is most likely to use these tactics? Although a number of factors may play a role in determining influence-tactics use, a critical individual difference variable is self-monitoring. As suggested by *Ferris et al. (1994)*, individuals who score high on self-monitoring are able to scan their environment for cues that suggest appropriate behaviors. These individuals are then able to modify their behaviors in such a manner that they are able to portray the image most appropriate to a given situation. Having the ability to identify social cues in the environment and to control one's behavior is obviously a skill that is important to the implementation of influence tactics. In

fact, empirical evidence suggests that those individuals who score high on self-monitoring are more likely to try to influence others' perceptions *(Fandt & Ferris, 1990; Von Baeyer et al., 1981)*.

Von Baeyer et al. (1981) examined the behaviors of individuals in an interview context when they were told that the interviewer held stereotypical beliefs about women (i.e., that they should be feminine, attractive, etc.). Results suggested that female participants who scored high on self-monitoring were more likely to behave in a feminine manner during the interview than were those who scored low on self-monitoring. In addition, *Fandt and Ferris (1990)* found that self-monitoring was a significant predictor of information manipulation when individuals were in a high accountability situation. As this research suggests, individuals who are high self-monitors can be expected to use influence tactics to manage impressions and influence perceptions.

Though these two studies suggest a link between self-monitoring and influence tactics, we are not aware of any published research that has linked self-monitoring to ingratiation and self-promotion in the context of employment interviews. This is important because though the interview context is a natural setting in which influence tactics may be used, in this setting, those who are good actors (high self-monitors) may be more effective because it is difficult for the interviewer to verify the accuracy of the behavior *(Judge & Ferris, 1993)*. Thus, we expected applicant self-monitoring to be positively related to both ingratiation and self-promotion.

Ingratiation, Perceived P–O Fit, and Hiring Recommendations

The basic function of influence tactics is to influence a target person's perception of a situation. In an interview setting, an applicant's ability to manage recruiters' perceptions may have a significant impact on such recruiter evaluations as P–O fit. One strategy applicants may choose in an attempt to influence recruiter perceptions and evaluations is to employ ingratiation.

A primary purpose of ingratiation is to increase the target's perception of similarity between him- or herself and the ingratiator. In fact, one tactic commonly considered a form of ingratiation is opinion conformity. When using opinion conformity, the ingratiatory expresses opinions that are in agreement with those of the target *(Jones, 1964; Wortman & Linsenmeier, 1977)*, thereby increasing the perceived similarity between the target and the ingratiator. Because P–O fit is based on similarities between the individual and the organization, this perceived similarity should have a significant effect on conclusions recruiters draw regarding the fit between applicant and organization. Just as *Byrne's (1969)* similarity–attraction theory provides a framework for explaining the positive relationship between ingratiation and hiring recommendations, it may also provide an explanation for the expected positive relationship between ingratiation and recruiter perceptions of P–O fit. Specifically, ingratiation is likely to increase the perceived similarity between a recruiter and an applicant. Because perceptions of P–O fit are influenced by perceived similarities in beliefs and attitudes about important values *(Kristof-Brown, 2000)*, the heightened perceptions of similarity brought about by ingratiation should have a positive effect on recruiter perceptions of P–O fit.

The expected relationship between applicant ingratiation and recruiter perceptions of P–O fit, combined with the expected relationship between P–O fit and hiring recommendations, leads us to expect a mediated relationship between applicant ingratiation and recruiter hiring recommendations. Specifically, ingratiation is expected not only to have a direct effect on recruiter hiring recommendations as previously hypothesized, but also to have an indirect effect through recruiter perceptions of P–O fit.

Self-Promotion, Perceived P–J Fit, and Hiring Recommendations

The research by *Stevens and Kristof (1995)* suggests that in addition to using ingratiation tactics during the interview, applicants use self-promotion during employment interviews. One result of applicant self-promotion is likely to be more positive recruiter perceptions of P–J fit. As previously suggested, the primary focus of the selection process traditionally has been on identifying competent individuals to fill job openings *(Werbel & Gilliland, 1999)*. Competency typically is established when an individual possesses the KSAs necessary to complete the tasks required in a given job. As such, initial assessments of P–J fit are often made by examining applicants' resumes and comparing their KSAs with job requirements.

Additional information regarding P–J fit is often gathered through the employment interview. Though objective measures of an applicant's qualifications and abilities (e.g., a resume and/or application blank) provide some evidence of his or her competency, significant amounts of information regarding competence are also gathered during the interview. It is in the interview that applicants may, and often do, use influence tactics to manipulate recruiters' judgments *(Ferris & Judge, 1991; Stevens & Kristof, 1995)*. Although influence tactics are not likely to completely obscure the effects of objective qualifications on perceived P–J fit, the use of influence tactics may work to enhance recruiters' already positive evaluations of P–J fit or to offset recruiters' previously formed negative assessments of P–J fit. Self-promotion is one influence tactic that may allow applicants to manage recruiters' perceptions of P–J fit.

As noted earlier, the goal of self-promotion is to create an impression of competence. Self-promoters often use verbal accounts of their achievements and abilities to help establish positive impressions of themselves. In addition, those who use self-promotion are likely to downplay or ignore negative aspects of their background while taking credit for past successes *(Schlenker, 1980)*. Self-promotion tactics highlight positive information about an applicant and are expected to have positive effects on recruiters' perceptions of P–J fit. We previously hypothesized that self-promotion and P–J fit would have direct effects on hiring recommendations. However, as the preceding discussion suggests, self-promotion is also likely to have an indirect effect on hiring recommendations, with this effect being mediated by perceived P–J fit. As argued earlier, self-promotion may be used by applicants to promote those qualities they possess that match the requirements of the job. To the extent applicants are able to do this successfully, recruiters' perceptions of how well that applicant fits the job in question should be positively affected. Therefore, self-promotion should have a positive impact on perceived P–J fit. In turn, as suggested by previous research (e.g., *Kristof-Brown, 2000*), P–J fit is expected to be positively related to recruiter hiring recommendations. As a result, we expected perceived P–J fit to mediate the relationship between self-promotion and recruiter hiring recommendations.

To advance previous research and to more closely examine the process through which applicant influence tactics affect interview outcomes, we proposed the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 6: Applicant self-monitoring will be positively related to (a) ingratiation and (b) self-promotion.

Hypothesis 7: Applicant ingratiation will be positively related to perceived P–O fit.

Hypothesis 8: Perceived P–O fit will mediate the relationship between ingratiation and recruiter hiring recommendations.

Hypothesis 9: Applicant self-promotion will be positively related to perceived P–J fit.

Hypothesis 10: Perceived P–J fit will mediate the relationship between self-promotion and recruiter hiring recommendations.

Method

Participants

Data were collected from 116 undergraduate Business and Liberal Arts majors who registered for job search assistance with the campus placement office of a large Midwestern university. The average age of participants was 21 years, 51% were men, and 49% were women. Ninety-one percent of the participants were Caucasian, 5% were Asian, 3% were African American, and 1% were Hispanic. Participation was voluntary and confidentiality was assured.

Design and Procedure

On registering with the campus placement office, job applicants were given a brief overview and asked to participate in the present study. At their placement office orientation meeting, participants were asked to complete an initial survey (Time 1). Next, participants were asked to complete a short, post-interview survey following each interview they participated in during the recruiting season (Time 2). Beginning 3 months after the start of the recruiting season, follow-up surveys were sent to all applicants who completed post-interview surveys (Time 3). The delivery of these surveys was timed so that they arrived approximately 3 months after the post-interview survey was completed.

As company recruiters arrived on campus to conduct initial employment interviews, each recruiter was asked to participate in the present study. Those who agreed completed a short survey following each interview to record their perceptions and evaluations of each candidate (Time 2).

Measures

Resume data. Each applicant was required to have a resume on file with the campus placement office, and study participants gave permission for the authors to have access to these resumes. Because the effect of applicant influence behaviors on recruiter perceptions and evaluations might be affected by applicant quality (e.g., the best applicants might feel less of a need to self-promote), we examined each resume´ and coded applicants' grade point average (GPA) and total months of work experience. These variables served as controls in our analyses.

Initial applicant survey. The initial applicant survey, completed at Time 1, was used to assess self-monitoring as well as to collect demographic data about the participants. The Revised Self-Monitoring Scale *(Lennox & Wolfe, 1984)* was used to assess applicant self-monitoring tendencies. Applicants were asked to respond to 13 items designed to measure their sensitivity to social cues and their ability to modify their own behavior (e.g., «Once I know what the situation calls for, it's easy for me to regulate my actions accordingly»). The internal consistency reliability estimate of the self-monitoring scale was $\alpha = .73$.

Post-interview applicant assessments. Following each interview (Time 2), applicants were asked to complete a survey that provided information about the influence tactics they used in the interview. Past research has suggested that applicants are able to report their use of influence tactics with reasonable accuracy *(Stevens & Kristof, 1995)*. In their investigation of applicant use of influence tactics during employment interviews, *Stevens and Kristof (1995)* found that applicant reports of influence-tactic use had strong, positive correlations (ranging from .50 to .68) with independent, third-party observer reports of applicant influence-tactic use. This suggests that applicants are aware of the tactics they use and are willing and able to accurately report them.

To establish the extent to which influence tactics were used during the interview, we adapted measures developed by *Stevens and Kristof (1995)* and *Wayne and Ferris (1990)* for use in the present study. To assess ingratiation, we used a nine-item measure adopted from *Stevens and Kristof (1995)*. This measure was developed for use in an interview setting and was well suited for use in the present study. Applicants responded to a series of statements regarding their use of ingratiation tactics using a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree. The coefficient alpha reliability estimate of this scale was .85. The items used in this scale are provided in the Appendix.

Self-promotion was assessed using a combination of items developed by *Stevens and Kristof (1995)* and *Wayne and Ferris (1990)*. A combination of items from these two scales was used to obtain the most construct valid measure possible of self-promotion. Each of the scales from which the items were drawn has advantages and disadvantages. The Stevens and Kristof scale was designed for use with interview research, but not all items apply to the definition of self-promotion used in the present study. The Wayne and Ferris measure, however, was not specifically developed for interview research but appears to be a more construct valid measure of self-promotion as defined in the present study. Therefore, we used a five-item scale created with items adapted from both Stevens and Kristof's and Wayne and Ferris's studies. This measure used the previously described 7-point scale. The coefficient alpha reliability estimate of this scale was .77. As with the ingratiation scale, the items used in this scale are provided in the Appendix.

Follow-up survey. For each completed post-interview survey, a follow-up survey was sent approximately 3 months after the interview. The 3-month lag time was provided to allow organizations to make job offer decisions. This survey asked applicants to report whether they received a job offer as a result of the initial interview.

Post-interview recruiter assessments. Following each interview, recruiters were asked to provide several assessments of the applicant. Each of these assessments was based on the recruiter's agreement with a series of statements using the same 7-point scale used by applicants on their post-interview evaluations.

The first post-interview assessment was recruiters' perceptions of applicant P–O fit and P–J fit. Although research and theory suggest that P–O fit and P–J fit are distinct constructs *(Edwards, 1991; Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown, 2000)*, recruiters seem to have difficulty differentiating between the two types of fit. Therefore, the formatting and wording of items measuring P–O fit and P–J fit was specifically designed to draw out the distinctions between these two constructs. Perceived P–O fit was assessed using two statements adapted from measures used by *Cable and Judge (1997)*. The first statement was «This applicant is a good match or fit with my organization and its current employees». The second statement was «This applicant's values reflect the values of my organization». In the present study, these items displayed an internal consistency reliability of $\alpha = .86$.

To be consistent with the earlier definition of P–J fit, we assessed perceived P–J fit using two statements designed to determine the congruence between the demands of the job and the abilities of the applicant. The first statement was «This applicant possesses the KSAs necessary to perform the duties of this specific job». The second statement was «I believe this applicant can achieve a high level of performance in this particular job». The coefficient alpha reliability of this scale in the present study was .89.

Recruiters were also asked about their hiring recommendations for each applicant. Specifically, recruiters were asked the likelihood that they would recommend hiring the applicant («I would recommend extending a job offer to this applicant») and for their overall evaluation of the applicant («Overall, I would evaluate this candidate positively»). Recruiters responded using the same 7-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) described previously. These two items were combined to form a hiring recommendation variable similar to that used by *Cable and Judge (1997)*. In the present study, the internal consistency reliability was α = .92.

Results

The means, standard deviations, and correlations among the study variables are shown in Table 1. Although most of the correlations are consistent with expectations, several correlations warrant comment. To begin, the correlation between recruiters' subjective evaluations of P–O fit and recruiters' subjective evaluations of P–J fit was high (.88). Although correlations of this magnitude between these variables are not uncommon (e.g., *Kristof-Brown, 2000*), it is nonetheless important to further investigate the distinctiveness of these dimensions. Accordingly, two confirmatory factor analysis models were specified using LISREL 8 *(Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996)*. The first analysis tested a two-factor model of fit. This model is consistent with theoretical arguments that suggest that P–O fit and P–J fit are distinct constructs *(Kristof-Brown, 2000)*. The second model tested a single-factor model of fit in which the P–O and P–J fit items loaded on a single, unitary construct. The results of these analyses indicate that a single factor model is the best fit to the data in the present study. Therefore, a single fit construct (overall fit) was used in the remainder of the analyses. The reliability of this measure was A = .93.

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations Among Study Variables

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. GPA	3.19	0.45	—								
2. Work experience	48.64	28.20	.16	—							
3. Subjective P–O fit	5.06	1.32	−.11	−.01	(.86)						
4. Subjective P–J fit	4.84	1.41	−.10	.00	.88**	(.89)					
5. Self-monitoring	4.89	0.52	−.25**	−.13	.20*	.21*	(.73)				
6. Ingratiation	5.57	0.86	−.12	−.10	.38**	.37**	.16	(.85)			
7. Self-promotion	4.88	0.99	−.21*	−.22*	.24*	.29**	.18*	.53**	(.77)		
8. Hiring recommendation	5.06	1.78	−.12	−.05	.87**	.86**	.20*	.40**	.27**	(.92)	
9. Job offer	0.15	0.36	−.01	−.01	.29**	.32**	.03	.16	.13	.34**	—

Note. Reliabilities are on the diagonal in parentheses. $N = 116$. GPA = grade point average; P–O fit = person–organization fit; P–J fit = person–job fit.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Figure 1 presents the parameter estimates and standard errors of the proposed model following the previously discussed modification. Structural equation modeling was conducted using LISREL 8 *(Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996)* with maximum-likelihood estimation.
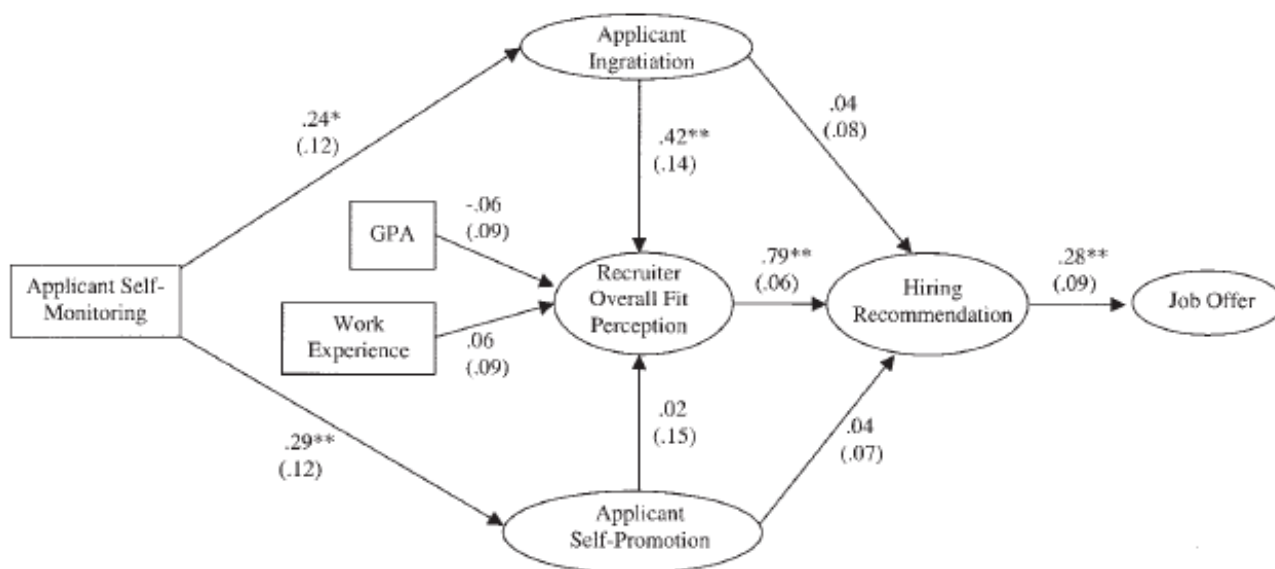
Figure 1. Structural estimates of proposed model. Statistics are standardized path coefficients. Standard errors are in parentheses. GPA = grade point average. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

All analyses were based on covariance matrices, and empirical support for the models was assessed by examining seven fit indices including the ratio of chi-square to degrees of freedom, standardized root-mean-square residual (RMR), root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA), goodness-of-fit index (GFI), adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI), normed-fit index (NFI), and nonnormed-fit index (NNFI). In our initial analyses we tested a series of hypotheses in an effort to replicate previous research on applicant influence tactics, perceived fit, and employment interviews.

Results of the present study provide support for most, but not all, of these relationships.

First, we hypothesized that applicant ingratiation and self-promotion would have positive effects on recruiter hiring recommendations. On the one hand, parameter estimates in Figure 1 suggest only weak, nonsignificant effects of applicant ingratiation and self-promotion on recruiter hiring recommendations. On the other hand, these estimates represent only the direct effects of applicant influence tactics on recruiter hiring recommendations. A more complete understanding of these relationships can be obtained by examining the direct, indirect, and total effects of influence tactics on hiring recommendations. However, most of this effect was indirect. Thus, Hypothesis 1 was supported, but Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Next, Hypothesis 3 and Hypothesis 4 suggested that P–O fit and P–J fit would be positively related to recruiter hiring recommendations. Because we collapsed our two measures of fit into a single overall fit variable, we were unable to directly test these hypotheses. However, the parameter estimate relating overall fit to hiring recommendations was positive and significant. Thus, our results support the general hypothesis that recruiter perceptions of fit have a positive impact on subsequent hiring recommendations. Finally, we proposed that recruiter hiring recommendations would be positively related to second-interview invitations. As expected, results suggest a strong, positive relationship β = .79, p < .01), thus providing support for Hypothesis 5.

The second step in this study was to propose a series of new hypotheses that examined antecedents to applicant influence-tactic use and the mediating effect of fit on the relationship between applicant-influence tactics and recruiter hiring recommendations. To begin, we hypothesized that applicant self-monitoring would predict applicant use of ingratiation and self-

promotion. Parameter estimates of self-monitoring predicting ingratiation and self-promotion were positive and significant, providing support for Hypothesis 6.

Next, applicant influence tactics were hypothesized to affect recruiters' perceptions of fit. First, applicant ingratiation was expected to have a positive effect on perceived fit. Perceived fit was then expected to mediate the effect of applicant ingratiation on hiring recommendations. Results of our analyses provided support for these hypotheses. The parameter estimate of the relationship between ingratiation and perceived fit was significant and positive, providing support for Hypothesis 7.

Because ingratiation had a positive effect on perceived fit and perceived fit had a positive effect on hiring recommendations, it seemed likely that fit evaluations mediated the relationship between ingratiation and recruiter hiring recommendations. In fact, results shown in Table 2 provide support for the mediating role of fit. These results suggest that whereas the total effect of ingratiation on hiring recommendations was significant, the direct effect was weak and nonsignificant. Only the indirect effect through perceived fit was significant, accounting for 89% of the effect of ingratiation on hiring recommendations. Therefore, Hypothesis 8 was supported.

Finally, the relationships in the covariance structure model among self-promotion, perceived fit, and hiring recommendations were not as strong as expected. First, as previously noted, the effect of self-promotion on hiring recommendations was nonsignificant and failed to support the hypothesized relationship. Likewise, the parameter estimate for the relationship between self-promotion and fit was weak and nonsignificant. As a result, Hypothesis 9 was not supported. In addition, perceived fit was hypothesized to mediate the effect of self-promotion on hiring recommendations. As the previous results have shown, self-promotion had only weak, direct effects on perceived fit and recruiter hiring recommendations. Furthermore, as Table 2 suggests, self-promotion had only weak, nonsignificant indirect and total effects on hiring recommendations. Thus, Hypothesis 10 was not supported.

Although we expected influence tactics to affect recruiters' perceptions of fit, it is also possible that other applicant characteristics played a role in the development of fit perceptions. Therefore, applicant GPA and work experience were controlled in our analyses. As the results in Figures 1 and 2 suggest, GPA $\beta = -.06$, p > .05) and work experience ($\beta = .06$, p > .05) had only weak, nonsignificant effects on recruiter perceptions of fit. Thus, these objective applicant characteristics were not important factors in the formation of recruiter fit perceptions. Rather, it was more subjective characteristics such as the use of influence tactics, and ingratiation in particular, that had the strongest effect on perceptions

This result was not completely surprising. In fact, *Gilmore and Ferris (1989)* similarly found that applicant behaviors had a more significant impact on recruiter judgments than did applicant qualifications. In combination, these results seem to suggest that recruiters' judgments and perceptions may be influenced more by an applicant's interview behaviors than by his or her objective qualifications.

Discussion

Previous research has examined a number of behavioral and perceptual factors that influence employment interview decisions *(Cable & Judge, 1996; Stevens & Kristof, 1995)*. Although this research has provided a better understanding of the interview process, we do not yet fully understand the intricacies of the human interactions embedded within the employment interview. Furthermore, we have yet to precisely model the process through which behaviors

lead to perceptions and perceptions lead to outcomes in the interview context. The present study is an attempt to integrate previous research and develop a model that explains how an applicant's words and actions ultimately lead to interview outcomes and decisions.

One contribution of the present study is that it extends previous work on the role of self-monitoring in the employment interview. Previous research by *Cable and Judge (1996)* has shown that self-monitoring has a direct, positive effect on recruiter perceptions of fit. The present study suggests that although self-monitoring does affect fit perceptions, the effect is mediated by applicants' use of influence tactics. In fact, the effect of self-monitoring on recruiter perceptions of fit is 37% weaker when applicant influence tactics are added to the model. Therefore, a primary role of self-monitoring may be to affect the extent to which applicants use influence tactics during the employment interview.

Next, influence tactics positively affected recruiter perceptions of fit. Previous research has failed to include influence tactics when examining predictors of recruiters' fit perceptions. The omission of influence tactics in previous research becomes more important when one considers the strength of the effect of ingratiation on perceived fit in the present study. Failing to include a variable with such strong effects may have artificially inflated the observed effects of other variables reported to be strong predictors of perceived fit. Therefore, future research that examines predictors of perceived fit should control for the use of influence tactics by applicants.

The present study also contributes to our understanding of the relationship between applicant influence tactics and interview outcomes. Whereas previous research has examined the direct effects of influence tactics on interview outcomes *(Baron, 1986; Gilmore & Ferris, 1989; Kacmar et al., 1992; Stevens & Kristof, 1995)*, the present study suggests that the effect of applicant influence tactics on interview outcomes is mediated by recruiter perceptions of fit. For example, *Stevens and Kristof (1995)* found significant, positive relationships between applicant self-promotion and recruiters' perceptions of applicant suitability and recruiters' reports of the likelihood of organizational pursuit of the applicant. However, the present study found only a weak, nonsignificant effect of self-promotion on hiring recommendations when controlling for recruiter perceptions of fit.

Similarly, whereas *Stevens & Kristof (1995)* found significant, direct effects of ingratiation on interview outcomes, results of the present study suggest that these effects are weak and nonsignificant when recruiter perceptions of fit are included in the model. Thus, it appears that influence tactics may not directly affect interview outcomes as previously reported. Rather, influence tactics appear to exert influence on outcomes primarily through their effect on the perceptions of fit recruiters develop throughout the course of the interview.

Limitations

Although results of the present study are promising and provide valuable insight into the interview process, the study is not without limitations. For example, data from the present study suggest a strong relationship between recruiters' subjective evaluations of P–O fit and P–J fit. Although theory suggests that these are two distinct constructs and previous research has treated them as such (e.g., *Kristof-Brown, 2000*), the bivariate correlation between the two constructs in the present study was very high ($r = .88$). One possible explanation for the high correlation between subjective P–O fit and subjective P–J fit in the present study is common method bias. Each construct was assessed with a two-item measure on the recruiters' post-interview survey. Thus, each recruiter reported their evaluations of subjective P–O fit at the same time they

reported their evaluations of subjective P–J fit. Because these evaluations were reported simultaneously and on a single survey, common method bias may have artificially inflated the correlation between subjective P–O fit and subjective P–J fit.

Conclusion

The present study extends previous research on the use of influence tactics in employment interviews and the role of perceived fit in the employment process. Whereas previous research has suggested that ingratiation and self-promotion have direct effects on interview outcomes, results of the present study suggest that these effects are mediated by recruiter perceptions of fit. Furthermore, results suggest that the impact of perceived fit goes beyond recruiter recommendations to include a strong influence on final job offer decisions. These findings suggest that influence tactics have implications throughout the employment process.

However, to fully understand the effects of influence tactics in this process, future research must rely more heavily on the perception and social influence literatures to help elucidate the intricacies of interpersonal interactions that take place in the employment interview. The present study provides a solid foundation on which to base this future research and provides strong evidence that influence tactics are indeed an important part of the employment process.

Вопросы для размышления

1. Каковы основные проблемы, рассматриваемые в статье?

2. Какие из приведённых в статье исследовательских методов и выводов по результатам исследования представляются вам спорными, недостаточно обоснованными? Почему?

3. Каковы ограничения проведённого исследования?

4. Каковы направления использования HR-менеджерами результатов этого исследования?

5. Являются ли рассмотренные в статье проблемы актуальными для российских организаций?

Профиль «Экономика впечатлений: менеджмент в индустрии гостеприимства и туризме»

Прочитайте статью[6] и сделайте ее критический анализ на русском языке.

Introduction

The importance of tourism to destinations is well documented in the literature *(Laws, 1995; Proenca & Soukiazis, 2008; Rita, 2000)*, but there has been little research into the impact this has on short and long visits *(Herington et al., 2013)*. Yet, tourism continues to be one of the fastest-growing industries in both developed and developing countries *(Tasci & Knuston, 2004)*, and tourism competitiveness is considered to be an important economic indicator. Hence, these tourist destinations must develop strategic plans to attract increasingly demanding customers and meet a range of requirements for short and long term visits if they are to make full use of the available attractions and amenities of that place.

Similar to product marketing, the most important element in destination marketing is to understand customer' needs and wants to be able to match those with the products and services at the destination. So it is important for marketers and planners ***first***: to fully understand the destination and what it has to offer, and ***second***: to gain knowledge about visitors and how attributes of the destination may influence their selection of a destination for leisure or business activities. This understanding of different consumer or «visitor» requirements helps tourism managers to make better decisions as they communicate and differentiate a destination *(Day, 2010)*, since it allows them to match visitor perceptions to the specific market segments on offer at each destination *(Wheeler et al., 2011)*. In other words, marketers need to consider individual visitors' needs and tailor the destinations to meet those needs. For example Herington et al. (2013) argues that the attractiveness of destinations should reflect the needs of target market to ensure visitors arrive on a regular basis. It is therefore relevant to address not only visitor needs but also how they can match destination attributes that become part of the destination brand.

In another context, the destination attractiveness attributes may be different depending on visitor length of stay. Although prior research (e.g., *Formica & Muzaffer, 2006*) has investigated travel motivations and destination features *Herington et al. (2013)* observe that few have studied the factors that influence visitors choice of long and short breaks. They argue that existing models are too broad and general ignoring the possibility of differing requirements of tourists at different times in different contexts or for different holiday purposes. Additionally, understanding destination attractiveness attributes in the tourism sector is often limited to research in a US context *(Herington et al., 2013)*. Yet, the findings of these studies are unlikely to be appropriate for generalization into other cultures, systems and service sectors *(Hofstede, 1980, Jogaratnam & Ching-Yick Tse, 2006)*. More specifically, it is important to investigate length of stay in relation to destination branding attractiveness in different locations, countries and cultures to gain a better understanding of push factors (market demand forces) as well as pull factors (supply-side factors) that may create a more competitive environment.

Switzerland enjoys an excellent reputation in the field of tourism and the country has been one of the first to develop tourism as a major industry *(Tajeddini, 2010)*. The objective of this

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[6] Подготовлена на основе: Mussalam G.Q., Tajeddini K. (2016) Tourism in Switzerland: How perceptions of place attributes for short and long holiday can influence destination choice // *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management,* March, Vol. 26.

research is to examine how the needs and perceptions of tourists can be influenced by place brand attributes as they make their choice of destinations to visit, and how these decisions relate to a long or short-term break in countries such as Switzerland. More specifically, this study has three main objectives: (i) To explore destination attributes and destination brands that influence tourists in selecting short and long holidays in general; (ii) To explore destination attributes and destination brands that influence tourists in selecting short and long holidays in Switzerland; (iii) To analyze how the relationships between destination attributes and destination brands may influence tourists in their selection of short vs. long holiday breaks.

Background and literature review

The literature identifies several studies on destination choice and destination decision process *(Chon, 1990, Ewing & Haider, 1999, Hanlan et al., 2005)*. Destination attractiveness for tourists is associated with the ability of the destination in delivering its perceived attributes.

It can be argued that there is a relationship between the attributes of the destination and travelers' decision in selecting their destination. Yet, most studies, evaluated the attributes without much of a distinction between long and short holidays, a point that was raised by *Herington et al., (2013)*. However travelers have various reasons for taking a holiday such as relaxation, exploration, taking a break from work, attending family or friends' events. The length of the holiday could be short or long and may be determined by the type of activities chosen. Literature on short and long holidays did not provide clear definitions or an agreed opinion on the length of stay of each type. For example, *Herington et al. (2013, p. 152)* defined 'short break as being one to three nights away from home and a long break as being four or more nights away'. For the purpose of this research a short holiday is defined as being up to one week while a long holiday being one to three weeks break. This distinction of the two types of holiday is mounting in the tourism industry. Scholarly work differentiating between short and traditional holidays began in the nineties (see for example, *Beioley, 1991; Davies, 1990*). It can be argued that short break travelers do not necessarily engage in similar activities as long break travelers. Also, short breaks are available more frequently during the year as opposed to long breaks that are mainly seasonal. As motivations and reasons are different for both types, it is assumed that the importance of destination attributes is evaluated differently by travelers. This was evident in the study of *Herington et al. (2013)* who suggest that the destination attractiveness attributes may be different depending on the length of stay.

Some gaps were identified from the previous research which indicated that distinguishing short and long breaks are pioneering without precedence in the literature. An important finding was that 'both short-break and long-break destinations should be able to meet the needs of the mainstream segment. In particular, short-break-oriented destinations cannot assume that the dominant segment would be satisfied simply, say, with a short, sharp and dynamic shopping spree or attending a major event. The major (mainstream) segment wants a balanced vacation, combining excitement and relaxation and so on, even if it is just a short break' *(Herington et al., 2013, p. 160)*. Given that the former study was exploratory and pioneering in nature it is important to replicate in other countries. As a result, the authors of this research decided to follow up on the research and evaluate to what extent preferences for destination attributes differ in selecting short and long breaks in the case of Switzerland.

Tourism in Switzerland

In its recent report, the World Economic Forum report outlined that Switzerland continues to lead the top rank of travel and tourism competitive where the main attributes that are highly rated for Switzerland are its infrastructure, mainly transportation and hotels; its natural resources and environmental sustainability; and Safety and Security *(World Economic Forum, 2013)*. It is worth noting that for some time, Switzerland has been considered a matured market *(Bieger & Laesser, 2002; Tajeddini, in press)* and is believed to be at the stagnation stage of the Product Life Cycle (PLC) for the past four decades *(Mayor, 2013)*. According to the Federal Office of Statistics, despite its top ranking, the number of tourists in Switzerland between 2008 and 2012 fell in its main markets (Germany 27%, Italy 16% and France 8%) *(Mayor, 2013, p. 1)*.

With this in mind, it would be interesting to measure the main attributes that sustained tourism visitations to Switzerland as a leisure destination. Some literature was found on the Swiss Traveler such as in the study on market segment by motivations on Swiss travelers *(Bieger & Laesser, 2002)* where they concluded that the travel profile and the attraction of a destination are the elements that determine the Swiss travel behavior. Additionally, the research conducted by *Simma et al. (2002)* analyzed destination choice of Swiss within Switzerland. Yet, none of the literature examined the differences of preference or destination attributes for short and long holiday breaks in Switzerland by foreign travelers. The current research would contribute to the insight of strategic marketing issues for Destination Marketing Organizations (DMOs) in promoting their destination and customizing their products and services to the relevant market segments.

Method

Data gathering and scale development

The objective of this study is to explore destination attributes influencing travelers in selecting short and long holidays in Switzerland. Measuring the attributes of short vs. long holidays is more problematic, as less empirical research and theoretical effort have been expended in this area. Until firmer foundation has been laid, a more narrowly focused strategy seems desirable. One approach would consist of adopting a sequential mixed-method approach using focus groups of travelers with varied levels of experience in a given destination domain followed up with some in-depth interviews to explore opinions and their travel experiences in more depth. This method enables to uncover and explore the most likely destination attractiveness criteria to access a large group of typical tourist consumers to determine the existence and characteristics of cluster segments *(Herington et al., 2013)*. It is anticipated that this approach will dictate the operationalization of short and long attributes of destination attraction. In doing so, two stages for data collection were used. In the first stage the authors tried to identify the relevant attributes and in the second stage administered the survey using the identified attributes.

Stage I

In order to explore and identify the relevant attributes of long and short holidays in Switzerland the authors used two groups composed of 21 international students (ten in one group and eleven in the other group) representing various cultures and nationalities gathered in a class meeting room to explore destination attributes in their travel behavior. Two focus groups using convenience sampling method were conducted in June 2013. Each focus group lasted approximately 45 min in duration. Saturation was reached after the second focus groups, with no

further data and insights being received at that point. The focus groups were digitally recorded for information accuracy and later transcribed and entered into NVivo software for content analysis.

As a result of the analysis, a general list of characteristics was compiled, which could evaluate attractiveness of short and long holidays. These results largely agreed with previous research, with the most consistently mentioned destination attractiveness features being efficiency, safety, security and lifestyle. Key destination attractiveness attributes on short and long holiday extracted from focus groups & the literature are:

1. Recommendations of Friends	10. Natural resources	19. Past experience
2. Efficiency of Transportation	11. Reputation of destination	20. Perceived service quality
3. Access to the destination	12. Value for money	21. Price
4. Safety & security of the destination	13. Image	22. Education
5. Architecture	14. Sports facilities	23. Lifestyle
6. Quality & variety of accommodation	15. Location	24. Adventure
7. Entertainment, events & festivals	16. Culture	25. Food & wine
8. Relaxation & health	17. Shopping	
9. Availability of tourist information	18. Quality of food	

Stage II

After some preliminary content analyses, the authors identified four subset attributes for each dimension. The discussion was set around four key dimensions derived from reviewing prior research as: (1) Destination brand/reputation; (2) Tourism attractions; (3) Tourism infrastructure; and (4) Tourism services.

These attributes were discussed in the second focus group discussion, and the participants agreed on the subsets of dimensions. In the second step, a survey questionnaire was designed to collect relevant data from international visitors about these attributes.

The questionnaire was pre-tested using two academics in order to insure that the survey content and measurement scales were clear, valid and appropriate. Following modifications, a second pre-test was carried out with 30 international visitors, to make sure that all the questions were relevant for respondents. This practice follows previous research to ensure the scales for all the dimensions were clearly marked and each item was critically evaluated and verified. Finally, a few open-ended questions were added to give "color" to the data and lead the respondents to think analytically and critically.

After the process of refining, the authors followed the procedure done by *Ekinci and Hosany (2006)* to collect the main data. Using two different samples, the study was conducted at

four different locations: three Swiss cities (*Sample 1*), and two International airports (*Sample 2*). For the first sample, the retrieval hypothesis *(Solomon et al., 1999)* was used to capture destination evaluation for visitors of Switzerland. Respondents were instructed to recall the last tourism destination they had visited inside of Switzerland in the previous 3 months. This method resulted in a number of destinations being evaluated. To participate in the survey, respondents were approached randomly on the high street, and around shopping complexes and train stations in Geneva and Zurich. These two cities were chosen due to their multicultural flair and the variety of leisure activities on offer attracts guests from all over the world. In general, participants were responsive and willing to participate, and refusal rates were predominantly low (around 10%). For the second sample, two trained MBA and MA researcher were hired. Data were collected in the departure lounge of two major International airports. Foreign tourists, waiting for their flights to return home after visiting Switzerland, were approached randomly to complete a questionnaire. Unlike the first sample, these respondents had to evaluate the same destination only a few hours after the holiday experience. In both cases, whenever a respondent refused to participate, the researcher moved to the next random available one. After the process of refining, a total of 158 questionnaires were collected, making a response rate of 56.4% that were valid and useful for analysis purposes across both samples (Sample 1: n = 83; Sample 2: n = 75). Care was taken that Swiss travelers were not included.

Results

The analysis started with a summary profile of the respondents of the 158 surveys. The percentage of Gender respondents was very close with (48.1%) male and (51.9%) female. The age of the respondents surveyed was skewed towards young aged people, with the majority (92.4%) falling between 18 and 33 years old.

The identified destination attributes were used in the survey questionnaire. Participants were first asked to rate the importance of destination attributes for short holidays then for long holidays. The survey continued using the same questions to evaluate participants' perception on the importance of attributes in selecting Switzerland for short and long holidays.

Data analysis

To determine whether general destination attributes of long and short holidays differed depending on travel behavior (i.e., past travel behavior, future intention to travel), different analytical techniques were implemented. Cluster analysis was used to determine potential target segments as well as ANOVA and cross-tabulation were computed to verify the characteristics of target segments and the preferred activities for target segments. Following the recommendation of *Herington et al. (2013, p. 155)*, a two-step cluster analysis was chosen to determine the likely existence of distinguishable target segments according to what the group members were attracted to for short and long holidays, as well as any distinguishing features of each cluster on demographic characteristics. Cluster analysis is considered an exploratory multivariate statistical technique for organizing observed data (e.g. people, things, events, brands, companies) into clusters based on homogeneous characteristics that they possess *(Field, 2009; Hair et al., 1998)*. Similar to factor analysis, cluster analysis makes no distinction between dependent and independent variables and the entire set of interdependent relationships are examined. Whereas factor analysis reduces the number of variables by grouping them into a smaller set of factors, cluster analysis reduces the number of observations or cases by grouping them into a smaller set

of clusters *(Field, 2009)*. Cluster analysis specifically attempts to maximize between-group variance *(Hair et al., 1998)* which the results provide an opportunity for marketers of destinations to target particular market segments for similar destination types *(Herington et al., 2013)*.

Findings

This section provides the list of the destination attractiveness attributes that were extracted from the focus groups and also those extracted from the literature, with a summary of the ratings of importance for each of these attractiveness attributes for both short and long holidays. The most noticeable feature is the similarity in importance placed by respondents when considering either type of holiday. Individuals were asked to indicate the level of importance on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = least important to 5 = most important. In order of importance, the most important attributes for short stay holiday type were found to be 'Price', 'Safety and Security of the Destination', 'Quality of Food', 'Value for Money' and 'Culture'. Similarly, in order of importance, the most important attributes for long holiday type were found to be 'Price', 'Quality of Food', 'Relaxation', 'Location' and 'Quality & Variety of Accommodation'. Apart from 'Price', 'Quality of Food', which were rated more highly for long and short stays, all other destination attributes were rated similarly and were in similar positions on the importance ranking. Further, for short holidays in general 'Sports Facilities', 'Adventure', 'Education' and 'Shopping' being least important and for long holidays 'Shopping' and 'Sports Facilities' being least important. This could mean that Switzerland is not a destination for shopping or for sports for this market segment. Therefore when dealing with this type of market, Swiss DMOs could use the most important attributes as valued by this market segment.

Besides that the importance of attributes when selecting Switzerland for short vs. long holiday was studied. It could imply that the destination itself influences the level of importance of attributes. Individuals were asked to indicate the level of importance on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = least important to 5 = most important. In order of importance, the most important attributes for short stay holiday in Switzerland were found to be 'Efficiency of Transportation', 'Location, Natural Resources', 'Relaxation & Health', and 'Reputation of Destination'. Both 'Location' and 'Natural Resources' have equal importance to respondents. Similarly, in the order of importance, the most important attributes for long holiday in Switzerland type were found to be 'Location', 'Quality of Food', 'Reputation of Destination', 'Perceived Service Quality', 'Access to the destination', 'Efficiency of Transportation', 'Quality & Variety of Accommodation', 'Recommendations of Friends', 'Natural Resources', 'Availability of tourist information', 'Lifestyle', 'Entertainment', and 'Events & Festivals'. Various attributes are noted to have similar level of importance such as 'Perceived Service Quality', 'Access to the destination', 'Efficiency of Transportation', 'Quality & Variety of Accommodation' and 'Natural Resources', 'Availability of tourist information'. Furthermore, Table 4 identifies 'Sports Facilities & shopping' being least important and again 'Sports facilities' being least important for long holidays.

The Cronbach alpha coefficient *(Cronbach, 1951)* was used to evaluate the extent of reliability (Table 1) for short and long holidays in Switzerland. This test resulted in the calculation of coefficients which ranged from 0.837 (for Tourism services in long holidays) to 0.667 (for Destination brand/reputation in short holiday). The high coefficient scores led to the conclusions that the scales were acceptably reliable.

Table 1 Reliability short holidays and long holidays in Switzerland

Attributes	Short holiday (up to one week) Cronbach's alpha if Item deleted)	Long holidays (1–3 weeks) Cronbach's alpha if Item deleted)
Destination brand/reputation	**(Cronbach's alpha = .667)**	**(Cronbach's alpha = .739)**
Safety & Security of the destination	.623	.735
Image	.570	.733
Past experience	.661	.737
Perceived Service Quality	.694	.680
Price	.695	.668
Recommendations of Friends	.617	.697
Reputation of Destination	.599	.758
Value for money	.650	.714
Quality of Food	.694	.708
Education	.669	.727
Lifestyle	.586	.742
Tourism attractions	**(Cronbach's alpha = .720)**	**(Cronbach's alpha = .663)**
Adventure	.700	.619
Architecture	.654	.616
Location	.677	.604
Natural Resources	.668	.675
Relaxation & Health	.729	.611
Culture	.716	.593
Entertainment, Events & Festivals	.671	.673
Tourism infrastructure	**(Cronbach's alpha = .689)**	**(Cronbach's alpha = .733)**
Access to the destination	.551	.742
Shopping	.724	.595
Sports Facilities	.525	.547
Efficiency of Transportation	.690	.788
Tourism services	**(Cronbach's alpha = .690)**	**(Cronbach's alpha = .837)**
Quality & Variety of Accommodation	.607	.883
Food & Wine	.733	.747
Availability of tourist information	.481	.526

In order to examine if there is a difference of importance of attributes for short and long holiday, a univariate t-test was performed as shown in Table 2. As can be noted the p-value is below 0.5 which is not statistically significant, yet it also means that there is a difference of opinion with regards the importance of attributes for short and long holidays. Moreover, the t-value indicates the differences of the four attribute groups where Tourism infrastructure and Tourism attractions differs significantly (10.5 & 8.8) when selecting short and long holidays in Switzerland.

Table 2 Results of univariate tests—T-tests of significant differences (Switzerland)

Attributes	Means scores		t-Value	p-Value

	Short holiday (up to one week) per year	Long holidays (1–3 weeks) per year		
Destination brand/reputation	4.0741 (.37829)	3.4760 (.37829)	5.868	.000
Tourism attractions	3.8128 (.38593)	3.5264 (.72061)	8.827	.000
Tourism infrastructure	4.2604 (.49454)	3.6582 (.03238)	10.556	.000
Tourism services	4.1667 (.50059)	4.2903 (.69717)	4.016	.000

To further investigate short and long holiday travelers' perceptions in a multivariate setting, logit analysis was performed *(Tajeddini & Mueller, 2009)*. The dependent variable is short holiday in Switzerland and the independent variables are the four short term attributes. Logit analysis results are summarized in Table 3. As shown, the logit model has a p value of 0.000, indicating a good fit. The results of logit analysis are consistent with those of the t tests in that, at a 0.05 level of significance, destination brand/reputation, Tourism attractions, Tourism infrastructure, and Tourism services are statistically significant. The negative coefficients indicate that short travelers' attributes have a great importance of destination brand/reputation, Tourism attractions, Tourism infrastructure, and Tourism services.

Table 3 Results of multivariate analysis–logit analysis results (Short holiday in Switzerland)

Attributes	df	Coefficient	Chi-square	p-Value
Intercept	1	41.695	4.745	.000
Destination brand/reputation	1	−2.398	2.583	.000
Tourism attractions	1	−3.745	2.089	.000
Tourism infrastructure	1	−2.8436	2.795	.000
Tourism services	1	−2.746	2.543	.000
Model (−2Log L)	1	−2.981	32.481	.000

Discussion and conclusion

The aim of the research was to explore destination attributes influencing travelers in selecting short and long holidays and assess the level of importance of these attributes in their selection. More specifically, the authors made an attempt to explore if there is a difference in the level of importance when selecting Switzerland for short vs. long holidays. The results of the research show that the level of importance of destination attributes differ in selecting short and long holidays. It is also noted that the level of importance varies when selecting short and long holidays in General vs. Switzerland. This could be interpreted that the destination may influence customers' evaluation of destination attributes.

The main findings from this research are in line with the literature (e.g. *Herington et al., 2013*) on meeting the needs of the market segments more specifically in this context when marketing the destination for short and long holidays. Participants evaluated destination attributes differently when choosing their short and long holidays. This entails the need for practical strategies to be taken when promoting Switzerland for short vs. long holidays. Destination marketers are advised to focus on the most important attributes when preparing their destination marketing strategies.

The findings show that 'Efficiency of Transportation' in selecting Switzerland for a short holiday was considered to be the most important. This is not surprising considering the positive reputation of the Swiss infrastructure well documented in the literature *(World Economic Forum, 2013)*. While for long holiday, 'Location' came on top of the list. This confirms *Herington et al. (2013)* suggestion about destination attributes being different depending on length of stay. However, what was surprising to see was that participants considered 'Sports Facilities' and 'Shopping' as least important both for short and long holiday in Switzerland. Considering that Switzerland is perceived as an expensive destination, the results imply that Switzerland may not be promoted as a shopping destination for example.

The results presented in Table 2 and Table 3 indicate the important variance in considering attributes in selecting short and long holidays. With this in mind, destinations could develop the relevant approach in marketing its destination for each type. For example, in the context of Switzerland, there are various promotions for city breaks which may be considered as short holidays. For such activities, considering the relevant attributes in their promotions would be beneficial as they would better target and meet the needs of the travelers. It would attract the attention of the relevant segment a very important first step in getting the customer interested in the product offer.

As destinations compete to attract tourists, they need to differentiate themselves from their competitors. Taking into considerations that many destinations have similar offer, marketers need to come up with innovative ideas and better understand customers' needs. Differentiating between short and long holidays could further assist marketers in understanding their need and better tailor the destination offer according to segment and length of stay. In this sense, marketers may work on better delivering Switzerland's perceived attributes to its customers. Further, the research has demonstrated such differences and confirms some findings found in previous research by *Herington et al. (2013)*. To the latter, it adds new findings in the context of a new destination Switzerland using a different market segment.

Previous research demonstrated in the literature review section shows the factors considered most important in selecting the tourist destinations which are not the same findings in this research. The authors believe that the destination itself influences the level of importance of destination attractiveness attributes. What could be important in selecting Taiwan or Australia for a holiday is not necessarily the same for Switzerland, a finding that could be appreciated by Swiss DMOs when considering strategic marketing planning.

To conclude, as customers may not engage in similar activities when selecting short and long holidays, it is evident from the research that the destination attractiveness attributes are evaluated differently. This is demonstrated clearly in the research both in general context and in Switzerland. Alluding to such differences could better assist marketers in meeting customers' expectations where the results from the research showed that same customers evaluate attributes differently for short and long holidays indicating that same customers have different preferences when selecting short and long holidays.

Вопросы для размышления

1. В чём заключаются проблема, цель и методология исследования статьи? Какие методы сбора и анализа данных использованы авторами настоящего исследования?

2. Настоящее олимпиадное задание составлено на основе научной статьи. При подготовке задания один из её весьма значимых смысловых блоков (разделов/параграфов), наполнение которого типично для научных статей, был существенно сокращён. Какой это блок? Что он должен отражать применительно к настоящей статье?

3. Какие выводы исследования представляются вам недостаточно обоснованными?

4. При подготовке задания был исключён присутствовавший в статье раздел «ограничения». Укажите ограничения настоящего исследования.

5. Какие направления развития данного исследования вы можете предложить? Обозначьте цель, методологию, необходимые методы сбора и анализа данных.

МЕТОДИЧЕСКИЕ РЕКОМЕНДАЦИИ

Олимпиада по направлению «Менеджмент» проводится в рамках отдельных магистерских программ (профилей): «Маркетинг», «Маркетинговые коммуникации и реклама в современном бизнесе», «Стратегии развития бизнеса: управление и консалтинг», «Управление проектами: проектный анализ, инвестиции, технологии реализации», «Управление человеческими ресурсами», «Экономика впечатлений: менеджмент в индустрии гостеприимства и туризме».

Участник олимпиады сообщает о своем намерении выполнять работу по профилю конкретной магистерской программы *в момент электронной регистрации*.

Участникам олимпиады предлагается для выполнения одно письменное творческое задание. На выполнение творческого задания отводится 3 (три) астрономических часа (180 минут). Творческое задание оценивается по 100-балльной шкале.

Творческое задание представляет собой *научную статью на английском языке* по профилю конкретной магистерской программы с вопросами для размышления.

В ходе выполнения творческого задания участник олимпиады должен прочитать предложенную научную статью (в том числе, намеренно содержащую спорные суждения, точки зрения, неточные выводы и т.п.) и, на основании сформулированных к статье вопросов для размышления, сделать ее критический анализ, дать свое *обоснованное и аргументированное оценочное суждение в письменном виде на русском языке*.

Важно помнить, что сформулированные к статье вопросы для размышления не являются вопросами-заданиями, на которые участнику олимпиады необходимо ответить. Они именно определяют, но *не ограничивают*, направления для размышления в рамках критического анализа материала и проблем статьи.

Выполнение творческого задания предполагает использование понятий, теорий и концепций, входящих в *Раздел 2 «ОБЩЕПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНЫЕ И ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКИЕ ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ»* Программы вступительного экзамена по менеджменту для поступающих на образовательные программы магистратуры по направлению «Менеджмент» НИУ ВШЭ (https://ma.hse.ru/vstupi_2017).

При подготовке к олимпиаде *особое внимание* следует уделить изучению дисциплин, соответствующих профилю выбранной участником олимпиады магистерской программы (см. таблицу).

Профиль магистерской программы	Дисциплины, соответствующие профилю магистерской программы	Основная[7] литература
Маркетинг	Маркетинг	1. Котлер Ф., Армстронг Г., Вонг В., Сондерс Дж. Основы маркетинга. – М.: ИД «Вильямс», 2016.

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[7] Список дополнительной литературы см. в разделах по соответствующим дисциплинам в Программе вступительного экзамена по менеджменту для поступающих на образовательные программы магистратуры по направлению «Менеджмент» НИУ ВШЭ (https://ma.hse.ru/vstupi_2017).

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Маркетинговые коммуникации и реклама в современном бизнесе	Маркетинговые коммуникации	1. Перси Л., Элиот Р. Стратегическое планирование рекламных кампаний. – М.: ИД Гребенникова, 2008. (или Росситер Дж., Перси Л. Реклама и продвижение товаров. – СПб: Питер, 2001.) 2. Романов А.А., Синяева И.М., Поляков В.А. Маркетинговые коммуникации. – М.: Инфра-М, 2016. 3. Аакер Д. Аакер о брендинге: 20 принципов достижения успеха. – М.: Эксмо, 2016. 4. Кутлалиев А., Попов А. Эффективность рекламы. – М.: Эксмо, 2005. 5. Российский рекламный ежегодник – 2015. – М.: РАР-Vi, 2016. (http://www.akarussia.ru/node/637) 6. Малхотра Н.К. Маркетинговые исследования. Практическое руководство. – М.: Вильямс, 2015. 7. Fill, C. Marketing Communications: Brands, Experiences and Participation. Pearson, 2013.
Стратегии развития бизнеса: управление и консалтинг	Стратегическое управление Основы корпоративного управления	1. Грант Р.М. Современный стратегический анализ. – СПб: Питер, 2008. 2. Томпсон А.А.-мл., Стрикленд А.Дж. III. Стратегический менеджмент. Концепции и ситуации для анализа. 12-е издание. – М.: Вильямс, 2007. 3. Аакер Д.А. Стратегическое рыночное управление. – СПб: Питер, 2011. 4. Ансофф И. Стратегический менеджмент. – СПб: Питер, 2009. 5. Коллис Д.Дж., Монтгомери С.А. Корпоративная стратегия. Ресурсный подход. – М.: ЗАО «Олимп-Бизнес», 2007.

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Управление проектами: проектный анализ, инвестиции, технологии реализации	Управление проектами	1. Алешин А.В., Аньшин В.М., Багратиони К.А. и др. Управление проектами: фундаментальный курс: учебник / Под ред. В.М. Аньшина, О.Н. Ильиной. – М.: Издательский дом Высшей школы экономики, 2013. 2. Мазур И.И., Шапиро В.Д., Ольдерогге Н.Г., Полковников А.В. Управление проектами. – М.: Омега-Л, 2009. 3. Милошевич Д. Набор инструментов для управления проектами. – М.: ДМК Пресс, 2006. 4. Управление проектами. Основы профессиональных знаний. Национальные требования к компетентности специалистов (National Competence Baseline, NCB SOVNET 3.0). Ассоциация управления проектами СОВНЕТ, 2010. 5. A Guide to the Project Management Body of Knowledge (PMBOK® Guide) – Fifth Edition (RUSSIAN). Project Management Institute, 2014.
Управление человеческими ресурсами	Теория организаций Управление персоналом Организационное поведение	1. Дафт Р. Теория организации. – М.: Юнити, 2006. 2. Мильнер Б.З. Теория организации. – М.: ИНФРА-М, 2013. 3. Армстронг М. Практика управления человеческими ресурсами. – СПб: Питер, 2012.

		4. Кибанов А.Я. Основы управления персоналом: Учебник. – М.: ИНФРА-М, 2012. 5. Armstrong M., Taylor S. Armstrong's Handbook of Human Resource Management Practice. 13th edition. Kogan Page, 2014. 6. Роббинз С.П. Основы организационного поведения. – М.: Вильямс, 2006. 7. Лютенс Ф. Организационное поведение. – М.: ИНФРА-М, 1999. 8. Robbins, S.P., Judge, T.A. Organizational behavior. 15th edition. Boston: Pearson, 2013.
Экономика впечатлений: менеджмент в индустрии гостеприимства и туризме	Менеджмент Маркетинг	1. Дафт Р. Менеджмент. – СПб: Питер, 2015. 2. Котлер Ф. Основы маркетинга. – М.: ИД «Вильямс», 2015. 3. Материалы, размещённые на страницах магистерской программы «Экономика впечатлений: менеджмент в индустрии гостеприимства и туризме» в социальных сетях: а) https://www.facebook.com/pages/Experience-Economy-Hospitality-and-Tourism-Management-HSE-Moscow/498129256910790?ref=bookmarks б) http://vk.com/club50339975

Однако для получения высших оценок за олимпиадное задание *рекомендуется не ограничиваться* изучением только профильных дисциплин.

Например, успешно справиться с олимпиадным заданием, в котором рассматриваются проблемы маркетинговых коммуникаций (дисциплина профиля магистерской программы «Маркетинговые коммуникации и реклама в современном бизнесе»), будет невозможно без знания основ маркетинга (дисциплина профиля магистерской программы «Маркетинг»), а с заданием, в котором рассматриваются вопросы стратегии и политики управления человеческими ресурсами (дисциплина профиля магистерской программы «Управление человеческими ресурсами»), – без знания основ стратегического управления (дисциплина профиля магистерской программы «Стратегии развития бизнеса: управление и консалтинг») и т.д.

Ответ (критический анализ научной статьи) должен быть хорошо структурированным, логически последовательным и аргументированным.

При выполнении творческого задания участники олимпиады должны продемонстрировать не только понимание текста статьи, широту знаний

соответствующих понятий, теорий, концепций, практических подходов, методов и технологий, но и глубину их понимания, умение грамотно оперировать ими, анализировать их взаимосвязь, а также логически связанно и аргументировано излагать свою точку зрения, делать выводы, давать критическую оценку.

Важными характеристиками «отличного» ответа на творческое задание должны являться умение излагать свои мысли в тексте в стилистике научных работ, а также владение методами научной аргументации. Приветствуются ссылки на монографии, профессиональные источники и литературу, их цитирование, а также практические примеры.

Для освоения специальной англоязычной терминологии по менеджменту см.:

Сычева Л.В. Словарь менеджера (Manager's vocabulary): пособие для изучающих «деловой английский». – М.: Издательство ГУ-ВШЭ, 2003.

Городецкая Е.Я., Евсюкова Е.Н., Курылева Л.А. Деловой английский язык для менеджеров: Учебное пособие. – М.: ПРОСПЕКТ, 2015.

Колесникова Н.Н., Данилова Г.В., Девяткина Л.Н. Английский язык для менеджеров = English for Managers. – М.: Академия, 2014.

Список литературы для подготовки к экзамену по английскому языку для поступающих на образовательные программы магистратуры по направлению «Менеджмент» НИУ ВШЭ (https://ma.hse.ru/vstupi_2017).

Также рекомендуется посмотреть научные статьи в англоязычных печатных и электронных изданиях, соответствующих профилю выбранной участником олимпиады магистерской программы. Базы данных зарубежной периодики см. на http://library.hse.ru/e-resources/e-resources.htm#journals.

Для понимания современных подходов и методов исследования в менеджменте см.: *Браймен А., Белл Э. Методы социальных исследований. Группы, организации и бизнес. – Харьков: Издательство «Гуманитарный центр», 2012.*

Во время выполнения олимпиадного задания участникам разрешается пользоваться *общим* (не специализированным) англо-русским словарем (но *только печатным изданием*, а не электронным).

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