

Volume 6, Number 1

Print ISSN: 2574-044X

Online ISSN: 2574-0458

GLOBAL JOURNAL OF MANAGEMENT AND MARKETING

**Editor (Management):
Kathryn Woods
Austin Peay State University**

**Editor (Marketing):
Ruiliang Yan
Texas A&M University, Commerce**

**Associate Editor:
Murat Arik
Middle Tennessee State University**

The *Global Journal of Management and Marketing* is owned and published by the Institute for Global Business Research. Editorial content is under the control of the Institute for Global Business Research, which is dedicated to the advancement of learning and scholarly research in all areas of business.

Authors execute a publication permission agreement and assume all liabilities. Institute for Global Business Research is not responsible for the content of the individual manuscripts. Any omissions or errors are the sole responsibility of the authors. The Editorial Board is responsible for the selection of manuscripts for publication from among those submitted for consideration. The Publishers accept final manuscripts in digital form and make adjustments solely for the purposes of pagination and organization.

The *Global Journal of Management and Marketing* is owned and published by the Institute for Global Business Research, 1 University Park Drive, Nashville, TN 37204-3951 USA. Those interested in communicating with the Journal, should contact the Executive Director of the Institute for Global Business Research at info@igbr.org.

Copyright 2022 by Institute for Global Research, Nashville, TN, USA

EDITORIAL REVIEW BOARD

(Management)

Adrian James
Park University

Amye Melton
Austin Peay State University

Brent Kinghorn
Texas A&M, Kingsville

Denise V. Siegfeldt
Florida Institute of Technology

Eduard Rivera
Columbia University

Elizabeth Rankin
Austin Peay State University

Hafiz Ahmad
Higher Colleges of Technology

John T. Finley
Columbus State University

Joseph Thornton
Bellarmine University

Kathryn Woods
Austin Peay State University

Kristie Abston
Middle Tennessee State University

Lin Zhao
Purdue University Northwest

Mariah Yates
Western Kentucky University

Melinda Kushniroff
Western Governors University

Mike Shurden
Lander University

Millicent Nelson
Middle Tennessee State

Murat Arik
Middle Tennessee State University

Nagendra Kumar Sharma
Graphic Era University, Dehradun, India

Olga Matveieva
Dnipropetrovsk Regional Institute of Public
Administration of the National Academy of
Public Administration, Ukraine

SK Nagarajan
Annamalai University

Steven Cates
Purdue University

Susan Kowalewski
D'Youville College

T.J. Gabriel
University of North Georgia

Terry Damron
Austin Peay State University

Terry A. Nelson
University of Alaska Anchorage

Wei He
Purdue University Northwest
John Cicala
Texas A&M University – Kingsville

(Marketing)

Chuanlan Liu
Louisiana State University

Cynthia Hanson
High Point University

Cynthia Rodriguez Cano
McNeese State University

Demetra Andrews
Kelley School of Business, Indianapolis

Gary J. Brunswick
Northern Michigan University

Glen Browdowski
California State University at San Marco

Ismet Anitsal
Missouri State University

Jeff Totten
McNeese State University

Jim DeConinck
Western Carolina University

John Cicala
Texas A&M University – Kingsville

Kathryn Woods
Austin Peay State University, TN

Martin Bressler
Southeastern Oklahoma State University

Martin S. Meyers
University of Wisconsin at Stevens Point

Mary K. Askim-Lovseth
University of North Dakota

Michael Pass
Sam Houston State University

Nur Suhaili Binti Ramli
University of York, United Kingdom

Paul Richardson
Niagara University

Paul Sauer
Canisius College

Peggy Choong
Niagara University

Saubhagya Bhalla
Panjab University Chandigarh

Susan Kowalewski
D'Youville College

Thomas Tanner
Bloomsburg University of Pennsylvania

Tim Aurand
Northern Illinois University

William C. Martin
Eastern Washington University

William W. Hill, II
Mississippi State University

Lewis Hershey
Eastern Michigan University

M. Meral Anitsal
Tennessee Tech University

Mark Parker
Niagara College, Canada

Marlene Kahla
Stephen F. Austin State University

TABLE OF CONTENTS

THE SEED PROJECT: PROMOTING EDUCATION THROUGH SPORT FOR DEVELOPMENT IN SENEGAL.....	1
Mary M. Long, Pace University	
Hsu O’Keefe, Pace University	
Stevy W. Ozimo, Youthsports Academy	
FIRESTORMS AND FORGIVENESS: ORGANIZATIONAL APOLOGIES IN THE AGE OF SOCIAL MEDIA	16
Kathryn Woods, Austin Peay State University	
THE MODERATING EFFECTS OF PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT ON LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS: A STUDY OF ARMY CADETS	32
T. J. Gabriel, University of North Georgia	
Wendy Walker, University of North Georgia	
Russell Teasley, University of North Georgia	
ANTECEDENTS OF MARKET ORIENTATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION: EMPIRICAL RESULTS FROM FOUR KEY INFORMANT PERSPECTIVES	43
Kevin L. Hammond, The University of Tennessee at Martin	
Robert L. Webster, Ouachita Baptist University	
Nathan L. Hammond, Mississippi State University	

THE SEED PROJECT: PROMOTING EDUCATION THROUGH SPORT FOR DEVELOPMENT IN SENEGAL

Mary M. Long, Pace University
Hsu O'Keefe, Pace University
Stevy W. Ozimo, Youthsports Academy

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research is to highlight how an education program in Senegal, Africa – the SEED Project (Sport, Education & Economic Development) -- advanced educational and economic outcomes for youth by utilizing a form of Sport for Development (SFD). The paper begins with a description of the history of SEED and its various programs which combine sports with education. We examine SEED through the lens of Sport for Development theory (Lyras & Welty Peachey, 2011). These concepts are linked to Senegal's economic development issues and needs, where education, in this case anchored with a sport, stands as a fundamental enabling factor intended to move the country's development from one stage to the next. Other emerging countries with similar challenges might look to the success of the SEED Project and sport-for-development as a piece of the path to economic growth. The paper concludes with SEED's future expansion plans and reflections on the program.

INTRODUCTION

Much has been written about sport for development (SFD), defined by Lyras and Welty Peachey (2011, p. 311) as “the use of sport to exert a positive influence on public health, the socialisation of children, youths and adults, the social inclusion of the disadvantaged, the economic development of regions and states, and on fostering intercultural exchange and conflict resolution”. A broader definition of SFD is provided in the *Journal of Sport for Development* – “The intentional use of sport, physical activity and play to attain specific development objectives in low- and middle-income countries and disadvantaged communities in high-income settings” (Richards et al. 2013, p. 1). In essence, SFD programs use sport as the “hook” to attract people interested in sport, in order to achieve a non-sport development goal.

Lyras and Welty Peachey (2011) advanced SFDT (sport for development theory) to examine how sport interventions can most effectively promote social change and development and to provide a blueprint for using sport as a vehicle to promote positive social change. SFDT is one of the first attempts to provide a theoretical foundation for the management of sport interventions that effectively promote social change, peace, and development (Lyras & Welty Peachey, 2011). The academic literature on sport for development has grown significantly and a comprehensive review of the literature on sport for development is provided

by Schulenkorf, Sherry, and Rowe (2016). In a review of over 473 academic journal articles since 2000, they found a trend towards articles focusing on social and educational outcomes, particularly related to youth sport with soccer as the most common activity. However, the authors noted a limited number of academic articles on SFD and livelihood or financial independence. They note that few of the researchers include local contributors from the countries that were analyzed. Moreover, they “encourage scholars to conduct more research on SFD programs that focus on job skills training, employability, rehabilitation, and the creation of social enterprises; in particular, we believe that the SFD sector would benefit from collaborative research between social scientists and economists regarding new approaches, innovative strategies, and creative tactics to improve the livelihoods of disadvantaged people around the world” (Schulenkorf, Sherry, & Rowe 2016, p. 34).

We use the case study method to examine the SEED Project (short for Sport, Education & Economic Development). Our paper addresses some of the less covered points noted above by Schulenkorf, Sherry, and Rowe (2016).

For the SEED Project, sport is merely the tool to foster life skills and education -- the ultimate goal is to improve socio-economic conditions for individual youth, local communities, and for Senegal and eventually other countries in Africa. With this in mind, we examine the SEED Project for both processes and outcomes with a view towards what is successful and what can be generalized for expansion to other locations.

RESEARCH METHOD

Although based on a single case study, this research method allows for an in-depth examination of the situation and provides insights for future research. It is best applied when the objective is to provide a firsthand understanding of people and events (Yin, 2006). The research described in this paper is an explanatory study. Explanatory case studies focus on the “how” and “why” of a situation (Yin, 1998). The authors relied on internal documents, interviews, and published web materials from the SEED to understand how an organization in an emerging market implemented a unique education program.

The paper begins with an overview of SEED and its programs. Next, we discuss why education delivered by a program like SEED is so important for Senegal based on its stage of economic development. We then provide an overview of sport-for-development theory and how SEED fits into this model and uses sport as the “hook” for education. We conclude with reflections on the SEED Project and future expansion plans.

OVERVIEW OF SEED

The SEED Project was established in 1998 by Amadou Gallo Fall, SEED’s Founder and Chairman. Funded by a basketball scholarship in the early 1990s, Fall obtained a degree in microbiology in the United States. Moreover, it was this basketball scholarship which provided him the opportunity to attain an education which would otherwise have been unreachable. Although Fall’s career plan and preparation were focused on the medical field, the idea of

spreading the same kind of educational opportunity to other young people in his home town of Senegal through basketball took hold.

Fall's objective was more than simply promoting basketball. In an interview with CNN, Fall stated that "As Africans, we have a responsibility to build our community," and that "Those days are over where other people came, saw tremendous potential and resources that exist here and you know, exploited to their benefit or advantage. It's about empowering our youth making them see that there is a pathway to success" (Chen & Barnett, 2013).

The SEED Project's concept is based on Fall's life experiences in Senegal, Africa and educational experiences in the United States as a student-athlete in basketball. The SEED Project enhances and enriches our conceptual analysis with empirical illustrations of SFD and how isolated change agents venture out as leaders of movements for more inclusive development due to the crucial need to provide better socio-economic conditions to future generations.

SEED Programs

SEED uses a unique blend of education and basketball as tools to help young people realize their potential. Through this, they seek to empower students to become the role models and mentors for future generations (SEED Project, January 24 2018). Additionally, the SEED Academy provides housing for students, another unique aspect of the program. The SEED Project consists of three main programs – SEED Rise, SEED Academy, and SEED Alumni -- which combine sports and education for participants ranging in ages from six through young adults. The descriptions of these programs below come from SEED's website (<http://www.seedproject.org/>) and unpublished presentation materials (SEED Project, January 24 2018).

- SEED RISE (ages 6-18): An after-school academic, athletic, and leadership program currently serving over 2,000 boys and girls. SEED Rise offers basketball clinics, academic tutoring, and life skills lessons for youth (SEED Rise, n.d.).
- SEED ACADEMY (ages 12-18): Provides full scholarships for 40 top student athletes (both boys and girls) to attend the SEED Academy's boarding school in Thies, Senegal. Students receive room and board, school tuition, academic support, basketball training, leadership development, and English language classes (SEED Academy, n.d.).
- SEED ALUMNI (ages 19+): Career service support is provided for the over 120 SEED graduates currently working or studying in over 16 countries. (SEED Project, January 24 2018).

Two other additional initiatives are:

- WOMEN'S EMPOWERMENT: In Senegal, girls are less likely to attend school, more likely to drop out to tend to household chores or prepare for marriage, and rarely encouraged to re-enroll (UNESCO as cited at <http://www.seedproject.org/pictureusballin>). The expectations for SEED Rise female students is the same as for male students – to graduate high school, continue their educations, and become future leaders and role models.

- SEED GIVES: There is a strong culture throughout the SEED organization of giving back. SEED Gives is a program-wide, community service initiative that enables students to gain leadership skills while running community service events (SEED Gives, n.d.).

EDUCATION, DEVELOPMENT AND SEED IN THE CONTEXT OF SENEGAL

The important role of education for development is a well-accepted concept. For example, Todaro states that “Education is fundamental to enhancing the quality of human life and ensuring social and economic progress” (Todaro, 2000, p. 226). In a similar vein, the United Nations’ Report on the World Social Situation (1997) noted: “Education is the key to creating, adapting and spreading knowledge... But the gains in access to education have been unevenly distributed, with the poor seldom getting their fair share” (Todaro, 2000, p. 326). The challenge is how to implement education for development. The Education Development Center (EDC) notes that Africa, in particular, will require innovative solutions to take advantage of investments in educational, economic, and physical infrastructure (<https://www.edc.org/region/africa>, n.d.).

Furthering the debates about education and the paradigm shift in pedagogy and perspective, Skinner, Blum and Bourn (2013) argue for “development education” versus “education and development”. They contend that development education, which promotes local and global citizenship, is often missing when it comes to international development and education. “Development education's critical pedagogical perspective empowers learners to further economic, political and social change, and therefore could make a valuable contribution to the global drive to secure quality education for all’ (Skinner, Blum & Bourn 2013, section 2.17).

SEED Project founder Fall has been working to accomplish economic development, building up from a micro level, by providing quality education tied to Senegalese/African values, needs and contexts. The sport component of the SEED Project is accompanied by education enabling SEED students to be molded with the mindsets, skills, and knowledge to attain a better life economically and socially. As described in a later section, the goal is to have an educational curriculum which prepares students for university level studies as well as, enables them to become socially responsible citizens and leaders for the sustainable benefit of the country and continent.

Education and Economic Considerations

The mission of SEED is to foster an environment which will lead to greater economic outcomes, both for the individual participants and the country as a whole. To better understand the challenge of achieving this, one needs to have some contextual understanding of Senegal and Africa.

Senegal, on the Western coast of Africa, is a part of the Sub-Saharan sub-region of Africa. The World Development Indicators database by the World Bank states that in 2018, Senegal’s population was 15.85 million people with a GDP of US \$24.13 billion. Putting this

into perspective, the GDP in 2000 was only US \$5.92 billion, indicative of positive growth over eight years. The accompanying annual economic growth rate from 3.2% in 2000 to 6.8% in 2018, provided a dynamic macro-environment resulting in a net foreign direct investment increase from US \$81 million in 2000 to US \$587 million in 2018 along with a decline in net official development assistance from US \$936.4 million in 2010 to US \$909.8 million in 2018. (World Development Indicators Database, Country Profile Senegal, n.d.). Demographic trends in Senegal point to both opportunities and challenges -- with more than 60% of the population under 25 years of age, economic growth is needed to create more opportunity for young people (The World Fact Book, 2019).

Africa as a whole, is a land of contrasts. According to Abramson and Moran (2018, p. 568), "Africa has been classified as the Third World in economic terms – it contributes only 1 percent of the global economic output. This poor continent is often viewed as a land of tragedy or promise because of its rich natural and human resources that have not been fully developed... The cause of the current woes goes with past European colonialism and inadequate education of the African people".

One way to consider the trajectory of economic growth for Senegal (and Africa) is through a traditional model such as Rostow 's Stages of Economic Growth Model (1959). However, Rostow's notion of economic growth paths which comprised five stages: the traditional society, the preconditions for take-off, the take-off, the drive to maturity, and the age of high mass consumption, pose questions as to how and where Senegal falls on this continuum. Recent questions such as -- must African economies follow these five stages to achieve sustainable economic growth?; are there alternative approaches for sustainable economic growth among African countries?; can technology transfer or technology acquisition enable an economy to skip early stages stipulated by Rostow and still achieve sustainable growth? -- have been topics of discussion by scholars and practitioners globally (Ojide, 2017). Such discussions merit attention, especially for Senegal, as proper and adequate education enables the skills and knowledge needed to foster advances in technological innovation and diffusion, which in turn adds to the power of accelerating the national competitive advantage. This may qualify the country to bypass the traditional steps and leap to a higher economic growth development stage (see, e.g., Porter, 1990; Ozturk, 2001; Prof. Mamadou Fall, History Department, Cheikh Anta Diop University, email communication to authors, August 28, 2019).

Other factors, such as stability of the government, consistent and adequate public policies, and quality of the educational system, among others, need to be present in order to move the economy forward (Porter, 1990). Already, Senegal has made progress by taking steps to improve their ease of doing business ranking – now 141 out of 190 countries for 2019, an increase from 2014 when it was 178 out of 189 countries (World Bank Group, 2019; World Bank, 2013). Senegal is poised to become a middle income economy by 2035 by instituting the Emerging Senegal Plan. This plan, initiated in 2013, includes reforms and modernization strategies including infrastructure (e.g., Dakar's state of the art international airport became operational in 2017), a global partnership to facilitate the transition to clean energy, emphasis on science, technology and the digital sector, and smart city planning. The ultimate objective is to showcase Senegal equipped to be the gateway to Africa. Another project of this ongoing

strategy includes the new city known as Diamniadio – being built near the airport “with special economic zones, a free-trade area, a tech city, research centers and a medical campus” (Munshi, 2018; Presidency of the Republic of Senegal, 2018). Should the Emerging Senegal Plan be successfully implemented, it will take Senegal to a higher level of economic and social development, bypassing Rostow’s continuum stages and be an example of Porter’s national competitiveness. Senegal then will serve as a sustainable economic model and be well positioned to “advocate for the African continent If Africa lagged behind in the industrial revolution, it intends to hold its place firmly in the digital age” (Presidency of the Republic of Senegal, 2018).

The next sections describe Sport for Development Theory and how SEED uses sport to implement their strategy for motivating Senegalese youth to achieve a better life through education -- and thus, eventually contributing to the leap for the economy.

SPORT FOR DEVELOPMENT THEORY (SFDT) AND THE SEED PROJECT

Sport for Development Theory (SFDT) posits that by blending sports with other activities (e.g., educational or cultural), personal development and social change can be facilitated. The SFDT framework and associated outcomes consist of five components: (a) impacts assessment, (b) organizational, (c) sport and physical activity, (d) educational, and (e) cultural enrichment (Lyras & Welty Peachey, 2011).

While the scope of SFDT is interdisciplinary and draws on theory from management, inter-group contact, and psychology among others, it is beyond the scope of this paper to review all of the theoretical foundations (see Lyras & Welty Peachey, 2011 for details). However, we use the SFDT model as a framework to aid in understanding how the SEED Project works in Senegal. Below we summarize each element of the SFDT framework and map how SEED supports social and educational objectives through sport. A summary of SEED activities and selected SFDT concepts is shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1 SUMMARY OF SEED PROJECT IMPLEMENTATION AND SPORT FOR DEVELOPMENT THEORY COMPONENTS				
Impacts Assessment	Organizational	Sport	Educational	Cultural Enrichment
Qualitative and quantitative evaluations of programs	Strong change agent – founder continues to champion SEED	Basketball for learning life skills	Strong educational curriculum – prepare for university	Strong ethos for “giving back”
Micro: Changes in student attitudes and beliefs	Partnerships with NBA, Nike, USAid, UNICEF, Peace Corps, and others	Basketball games enable students to meet others outside their local communities	Standardized Coach training in basketball and life skills	Numerous activities, presentations, etc. outside of regular school schedule
Meso: Community events	Flat, informal, collaborative organizational structure	Basketball is the “hook” for education, engages students	Student and parent buy-in and accountability	Culturally relevant
Macro: Graduation rates, post-graduation career outcomes	Fluid organization with members doing multiple jobs	Basketball for scholarship and/or career opportunities	Positioned for the future (Women’s Empowerment, STEM)	Travel for play and study

Table adapted from Lyras & Welty Peachey (2011)

The Impacts Assessment Component

The impacts assessment component proposes that sports intervention programs that aim to bring about social change and development should be evaluated at three levels – macro, meso, and micro levels of society. In addition to these three levels of analysis, SFDT also stipulates that lasting effects and transferability of the program be evaluated (Lyras & Welty Peachey, 2011).

SEED provides quantitative and qualitative assessment of its programs. On a local (micro) level, SEED participants are students (grades K-University) and out-of-school youth. For young people who are in school, the emphasis is on ensuring their year-to-year success. Since SEED Academy opened in 2002, 110 students have graduated and 92% have either enrolled in university or secured a job upon leaving the program. Eighty-four (76%) of SEED Academy graduates have continued on to universities in the U.S. (57), Senegal (24) and Europe (3). These outcomes compare very favorably to the only 7% of youth who attend university in the communities served by SEED (SEED Project, January 24 2018). Additionally, at the high school level, 94% of graduates passed the BAC, the national high school exit exam while only 35% of the country passes the test. Furthermore, 83% of graduates passed the BFEM, the

national middle school exit exam. Just 49% of the country passes the test (SEED Project Impact, n.d.).

SEED Rise provides a comprehensive monitoring and evaluation process with micro level measures such as the number of youth impacted, their change in behavior, skills acquired, number of coaches trained, attitudes toward gender equality, and higher education opportunities (SEED Project, January 24 2018). Following the Live, Learn, and Play curriculum (described in the subsection -- The Educational Component), quantitative measures indicate that SEED participants showed increased self perceived citizenship skills and more positive gender attitudes and beliefs after participating in the program. Qualitative assessments indicated that participants had increased confidence, tolerance, and respect for others. Parents and coaches also reported positive changes in youth behavior (SEED Project, February 15, 2017).

At the community (meso) level, SEED programs position young people to be leaders within their communities. Students host community give-back events (i.e. trash recycling awareness, basketball clinics, computer programming, etc.). SEED also partners with local schools throughout the year to offer SEED Rise after-school programming for students, and schedule friendly matches between school clubs (SEED Project Impact, n.d.).

At the country (macro) level, the ultimate goal of the SEED Project is to prepare young people to be their country's future leaders. As stated on the SEED website – “We believe that the countries we serve must be developed from within, and our programs give students the confidence they need to dream big, and the tools they need to make them come true” (SEED Project Impact, n.d.). Macro level impacts are difficult to measure directly, but preliminary trends are encouraging if one considers that 92% of SEED Academy students matriculate to university or secure a job (SEED Project Impact, n.d.).

The Organizational Component

According to Lyras and Welty Peachey (2011), the organizational component refers to how changes can be defined and facilitated through sport to achieve program objectives. They note that organizational change is best understood by looking at multiple indicators and point to the importance of change agents. Organizational partnership efficiency is also key to secure scarce resources (Lyras & Welty Peachey, 2011).

The importance of a strong change agent and champion can be seen in how the SEED Project evolved. It was Amadou Gallo Fall’s dream for other African youth to have the same opportunity that he had for education through sport. That dream and how it was implemented are reflected in SEED’s philosophy:

“We use education and basketball to develop the next generation of African leaders. ... Our programs are designed to inspire, empower and equip these young people with the skills they need to succeed in life. Through this, we will re-define the student-athlete model and develop socially conscious leaders that will continue to drive Africa forward”. (SEED Mission, n.d.).

This innovative business model transcended a traditional educational learning establishment to integrate a sport – basketball – as an added fundamental pillar. Fall’s idea was

that this training would equip youth with real life skills, necessary for playing important roles as individuals, in their communities, in Africa, as well as globally.

Fall's determination and hard work eventually drew attention from institutions such as the NBA (National Basketball Association) and Nike. Both the NBA and Nike have relationships with SEED, providing equipment and financial donations to support students on an annual basis. As described by SEED -- "Our relationship with the NBA is not restricted to a philanthropic one. We are the implementing agent for all of their operations in Senegal ... SEED's main sponsorship agreement is with Nike. We are partners with the NBA. We have event sponsorship from Wari [financial services], ContourGlobal [global power generating], UNFPA [United Nations Population Fund], Casamancaise [mineral water]" (Brian Benjamin, CFO, SEED, email communication to authors, July 12, 2019).

These relationships are important for SEED since the Senegalese government does not provide funding and the organization must seek private support. As of 2002, SEED is a non-profit organization (NGO) formally established when the SEED Academy was inaugurated in the city of Thies, Senegal. It also has 501c3 status as a non-profit in the United States. Because of its NGO status and mission, SEED also benefits from relationships with USAid, UNICEF, and the Peace Corps, among others.

The structure of SEED tends to be flat and somewhat informal in nature, lending itself to an environment where members work together collaboratively and cooperatively whenever necessary to achieve the set tasks. This fits with the workings of the organization which, since its inception, has been evolving along its trajectory towards achieving the principal goal of inclusive development and growth for all of Africa. Growth is exemplified by programs beyond the SEED Academy, including the implementation of the SEED Rise Program, followed by the Women's Empowerment initiative in 2013, and the planned SEED campus for Sandira, Senegal 2025. A flexible, fluid structure, whether by design or serendipitous, has helped SEED make decisions and implement programs at a faster pace than otherwise might have occurred.

The Sport Component

The third pillar of SFDT is the sport component. Lyras and Welty Peachey (2011) draw from literature on physical activity and moral development, as well as, sports in regions where conflict exists. "Research indicates that sport can contribute to moral development only when applied in a setting with an appropriate philosophy and/or an educational emphasis" (Lyras & Welty Peachey 2011, p. 316).

The objective of sport in the SEED program is twofold. First, basketball for SEED Rise and SEED Academy students is the means to teach skills that contribute to character formation (i.e., teamwork and citizenship skills) and enable them to stay focused academically. Second, the older SEED Academy students learn to play basketball at such a high level of competence, this is leveraged to enable them to earn college scholarships and/or professional play contracts. In fact, 58 students have played college basketball in the U.S. , 31 graduates have played professional basketball around the globe, and 6 have played in the NBA or NBDL (SEED Project, January 24 2018).

SEED Academy students attend training before class, then go to school, and perhaps have another training session after school. Overall though, sport (specifically basketball) is the foundation for learning life skills and discipline in order to make a better life for oneself, the community, and the country.

Basketball also benefits SEED students by giving them the opportunity to interact with those outside their local communities. Students compete in tournaments both nationally and in other countries. Students play in the National Senegalese Club League and in February 2019 travelled to Morocco for the first tournament for SEED Girls abroad, beating France in the final match.

Why was basketball the chosen sport in a country where soccer is dominant? This goes back to Fall's own experience with higher education at an American university, made possible by a basketball scholarship and the relationships he developed at that time. Interestingly, while soccer is the most popular and most played sport in Senegal (and Africa), basketball is the more popular sport for women. SEED's Women's Empowerment program, coupled with basketball, proved to be the pathway towards having girls join the SEED Academy.

The Educational Component

SFDT asserts that "...sport, when used within an educational framework, can become a powerful tool for achieving educational objectives..." (Lyras & Welty Peachey 2011, p. 317). Moreover, the problem solving/working together culture developed by participating in sports may then be transferred to solving real world problems. The role of instructors as mentors is also noted in SFDT.

The SEED Project is an excellent example of the concepts of SFD, blending sport and education to achieve higher goals. Basketball is the "hook" used to engage youth in SEED programs. The basketball curriculum teaches youth fundamental skills and team-based concepts. SEED's educational program is designed to support student performance in school, increase student retention rates, and assist students to matriculate to universities in Africa or abroad.

SEED trains local youth coaches in a basketball and life-skills curriculum. Currently, over 352 coaches implement the SEED Rise curriculum in schools and youth clubs. The SEED Rise program provides after-school basketball, academic tutoring and life skills program for grades K-12. Rise works with local communities and schools to develop youth basketball infrastructure that aligns with community needs (SEED Project, January 24 2018).

Coach training is accomplished by SEED using the *Live, Learn, and Play Coaching Manual* part of the Live, Learn and Play (LLP) initiative by the NBA and USAID (Duffy, Coulibaly & Sharer, 2016). This provides specific goals, instructions, worksheets, learning activities, and discussion points for coaches to accomplish their tasks and creates a shared organizational culture that can be replicated in other locations. Specific instructions are provided for a week by week curriculum covering such topics as basketball basics, physical development, good citizenship, and collective commitment

The LLP Coaching Manual also includes a LLP Youth Contract that participants must sign to acknowledge their commitment to the goals of the program. Additionally, students have

a citizenship and basketball goal worksheet where each week they make a commitment to completing one citizenship and one basketball goal. SEED also works closely with participant's parents so they are knowledgeable about the program model and help reinforce core values. The student's parent/caregiver must sign the sheet to indicate the goal was accomplished (Duffy, Coulibaly, and Sharer 2016). Thus, expectations are clearly stated and both students and parents/caregivers make a formal commitment to the SEED Rise program.

SEED Academy, serving grades 6-12, provides full scholarships for 40 top student athletes (20 boys and 20 girls) to attend the SEED Academy's boarding school in Thies, Senegal. Students receive room and board, school tuition, academic support, basketball training, leadership development, and English language classes. As these spots for top students are limited, recruiting follows a strict criteria based on the results of BFEM, the annual national test for middle school students, plus an assessment of athletic competence. While the program is based in Senegal, students are recruited from all over Africa regardless of social class or financial resources.

The academic program for SEED Academy students follows the French system and is the national curriculum for Senegal. The classes include mathematics, science, literature, philosophy, and history with an increasing emphasis on STEM subjects to meet the needs of a digital economy. Classes are given in French, but there is a strong emphasis on English. SEED has an ESL online program with a school in Chicago, to improve students' English language skills so they are prepared to attend school in the U.S., should they wish to do so. Students are also prepped for the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT), the standardized test for college admissions in the U.S. The goal is to make it easier for the next generation to attend college by preparing them early with all the tools they need to succeed. This training has paid off as SEED Academy graduates have been awarded an average of \$124K in scholarships per student (SEED Project, December 2017).

The Cultural Enrichment Component

The final component of SFDT, the cultural enrichment component, encompasses the blend of sport with cultural and educational activities and global citizenship education (Lyras & Welty Peachey, 2011). The idea is to promote social change by providing participants with multidisciplinary, cultural enrichment opportunities that add to understanding of local and/or global concerns (Lyras & Welty Peachey, 2011). "Cultural enrichment can include theatre, arts and music workshops and activities, as well as topics and initiatives that speak to human rights issues, the Olympic spirit, conflict management, environmental awareness, health and wellbeing, and technology, among others" (Lyras & Welty Peachey, 2011 p.318).

These elements of cultural enrichment are embedded throughout the SEED Rise and SEED Academy programs, and also through the many additional programs outside of the purely academic and sports arenas. Examples of these activities include:

- Hoop Forum: An annual basketball showcase for boys and girls ages 18 and under, the forum brings together non-profits, corporations, and individuals using sport as a tool for development across Africa. International guests, African basketball legends, SEED

student-athletes and local basketball coaches take part in elite basketball camps, community give-back events, concerts, cultural activities, networking opportunities, among other activities.

- SEED Culture: Started in 2015, this is an organization-wide effort to honor Senegal's diverse cultural roots. The culmination of each year's SEED Culture workshops is a performance by SEED Rise students at the Hoop Forum. Seed students show “why SEED is so much bigger than basketball” (<http://www.seedproject.org/blog/2017/5/12/hoop-forum-2017-recap>).
- Women’s Empowerment: This program includes a series of leadership workshops across the school year and summer for SEED young women, as well as opportunities for male students to participate and support their female peers. Furthermore, as part of an initiative to teach girls about technology, SEED women participated in a coding workshop with #iamtheCODE, an NGO focused on increasing girl’s access to technology (SEED Women’s Empowerment, n.d.).
- SEED Speaks: A series to teach students public speaking skills and etiquette, as well as participate in a debate club (<http://www.seedproject.org/blog>).
- Workshops: SEED alumni and professionals speak with students about topics such as careers, financial literacy, and individual development.

Taken together, all of the SEED Project programs support social change by allowing participants to make links between their sports activities and real life activities in their local communities. Running throughout the program is a strong ethos to give back to the community – whether that is SEED Scholars mentoring current students, students supporting their local communities through service events, or SEED alumni working in Africa to improve the economy.

As Fatou Pouye, a 20 year old from Senegal who earned a scholarship to attend South Georgia Tech stated:

“... SEED helped me with my studies and basketball training. I hope to one day go back to SEED and help other young women achieve their dreams as well...I feel prepared for future success because of the values I learned at SEED. I now have self-confidence, power and an open mind. With all of this, the only thing I can do is succeed.” (Pouye, 2017)

LESSONS LEARNED FROM SEED – REFLECTIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

A new generation of African entrepreneurs has embraced the concept of “Africapitalism,” introduced in 2011 by Tony Elumelu a Nigerian banker and entrepreneur (Idemudia, Amaeshi & Okupe, 2018). Africapitalism is a call to the private sector to play a role in the continent’s development by increasing economic and social wealth in the communities they serve. As consumers in these communities become better off, businesses will also become more profitable (“What Is Africapitalism?”, 2019). While SEED is not a for-profit enterprise, it is an example of the principles behind Africapitalism, using entrepreneurship and shared purpose to enable programs that lead to positive social and economic outcomes.

SEED’s trajectory, from one person’s mission of educating youth, supplemented with basketball as an activity to build life skills, continues to progress as the organization seeks to

expand. Most recently, a SEED Rise program was launched in Gabon at the end of 2019. SEED expansion plans include a SEED Campus in Sandiara, Senegal by 2025 to accommodate 250 students (boys and girls) from across Africa with world-class education and basketball training. The curriculum will have a heavy emphasis on STEM, agribusiness, and social entrepreneurship. Proximity to Sandiara Technical School provides added vocational training opportunities and SEED continues to seek additional partnerships for this new venture (Seed Project, June 12, 2019).

SEED's establishment in 1998 arose from an idea to provide a way for Senegal's youth to improve economically and become more productive citizens – its model serves as an exemplar of corporate social responsibility. One should keep in mind though that like any business model, the SEED Project has been designed and implemented in the context of a country and continent. It reflects an example from Senegalese and African perspectives and may need adaptation in order to be adopted in other parts of the world.

Challenges still remain for the SEED Project. Measurement of success at the economic level is difficult to quantify and one must rely on qualitative data and jobs created as a proxy for success.

As mentioned previously, SEED relies entirely on financial donations to support its programs. SEED must continuously evolve and enhance its programs in order to continue to provide high quality and appropriate education and sports training to attract donors, sponsorship, and partners.

“The key hindrance is of cost. Communities are not able to support such programming by themselves, so in order for it to be executed effectively, SEED takes on the responsibility for all expense” (Brian Benjamin, CFO, SEED, email message to authors, July 12, 2019).

The attractiveness and fit of the sponsor also impacts the likelihood of attracting participants to SEED programs. Of note, a study by Kim & Heere (2012) found that young people from developing countries like to wear global sports brands (e.g., Nike) because they are symbolic of being part of a global community (not because of an association with the West). Similarly, SEED t-shirts with sponsor Nike's Swoosh logo likely serves as an additional draw for young people. SEED students who go on to professional basketball may serve a similar symbolic role – they become global citizens and role models for young people in the program.

While the SEED Project used basketball as the hook, other activities could work depending upon the country and popularity of the sport among young people. For example, Loat (2021) notes that new sports arise that are appropriate to a region and even advocates the use of esports and gamification to attract digital natives. Furthermore, according to the UNICEF Sport for Development Programming Survey, soccer is the most popular activity in sport for development programs. But other SFD activities include athletics, boxing, chess, netball, mind games, Para sports, rugby, sailing, skateboarding, and surfing (Office of Research – Innocenti, 2019 p. 47).

Senegal's main challenge is accelerating economic growth in order to create more opportunity for young people, who are the majority of the population (U.S. Department of State, n.d.). The SEED Program is an important case study in improving lives when one considers the

current state of Senegal's economy and the potential of education to improve socio-economic conditions. Other emerging countries with similar challenges might look to the success of the SEED Project and sport-for-development as a piece of the path to economic growth.

REFERENCES

- Abramson, Neil R. & Moran, Robert T. (2018). *Managing Cultural Differences – Global Leadership for the 21st Century* (10th ed.). London: Routledge.
- Chen, Adeline & Barnett, Errol. (February 7, 2013). *Senegalese teens shoot for U.S. basketball glory*. CNN. Retrieved July 24, 2019 from <https://www.cnn.com/2013/02/04/sport/seeds-senegal-basketball/>.
- Duffy, Malia H., Walarigaton Coulibaly, Melissa Sharer of JSI Research and Training Institute, Inc., and NBA Properties. (2016). *Live, Learn, and Play Coaching Manual*. Arlington, VA: USAID and NBA Live, Learn, and Play Program.
- Education Development Center (EDC). (n.d.). Retrieved 7/23/19, from <https://www.edc.org/region/africa>
- Idemudia, Uwafiokun, Amaeshi, Kenneth, & Adun Okupe. (2018). Introduction. In Amaeshi, Kenneth, Adun Okupe, and Uwafiokun Idemudia. (Eds). *Africapitalism: Rethinking the Role of Business in Africa*. Cambridge University Press.
- Kim, C., & Heere, B. (2012). Consumers from Emerging Markets: Perceptions and Attitudes Toward Global Sporting Brands. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 21(1).
- Loat, R. (2021). Levelling up: Opportunities for sport for development to evolve through esports. *Journal of Sport for Development*, 9(1). Retrieved from <https://jsfd.org/>
- Lyras, A., & Peachey, J. W. (2011). Integrating sport-for-development theory and praxis. *Sport Management Review*, 14(4), 311-326.
- Munshi, Neil. (2018, April 19). Infrastructure at The Heart of Government's Grand Plan. *Investing in Senegal, Financial Times Special Report*. *Financial Times*. Retrieved from https://issuu.com/presidencedusenegal/docs/financial_times-investing_in_senega
- Office of Research – Innocenti. 'Getting into the Game: Understanding the evidence for child-focused sport for development, Summary Report', UNICEF Office of Research – Innocenti, Florence (2019).
- Ojide, Makuachukwu Gabriel. (October 10 2017). *Are Rostow's 5 Stages of growth still ideal for African's economies?*. Retrieved July 24, 2019 from https://www.researchgate.net/post/Are_Rostows_5_Stages_of_growth_still_ideal_for_Africans_economies.
- Ozturk, Ilhan. (2001). The Role of Education in Economic Development: A Theoretical Perspective. *Journal of Rural Development and Administration*, 33(1): 39-47. Available at SSRN: <https://ssrn.com/abstract=1137541> or <http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.1137541>
- Pouye, F. (2017, June 29). Breaking Down Barriers: A Young Woman Chases Her Dreams [Blog post]. Retrieved from <http://www.seedproject.org/blog#>.
- Porter, Michael E. (1990). The Competitive Advantage of Nations. *Harvard Business Review*. 68(2): 73-93. <https://hbr.org/1990/03/the-competitive-advantage-of-nations>.
- Presidency of the Republic of Senegal. (2018, April 19.). Two Terms That Characterize the Presidency of Macky Sall Stability and Poise." Advertisement in *Investing in Senegal, Financial Times Special Report, Financial Times*. Retrieved from https://issuu.com/presidencedusenegal/docs/financial_times-investing_in_senega.
- Richards, J., Kaufman, Z., Schulenkorf, N., Wolff, E., Gannett, K., Siefken, K., & Rodriguez, G. (2013). Advancing the evidence base of sport for development: A new open-access, peer-reviewed journal. *Journal of sport for development*, 1(1):1-3.
- Rostow, W. W. (1960). *The stages of economic growth*. (2nd ed.). United States of America: Cambridge University Press.
- Schulenkorf, N., Sherry, E., & Rowe, K. (2016). Sport for development: An integrated literature review. *Journal of sport management*, 30(1), 22-39.
- SEED Academy. (n.d.). Retrieved 7/30/19, from <http://www.seedproject.org/seed-academy>.
- SEED Community Founder. (n.d.). Retrieved 5/10/2019, from <http://www.seedproject.org/new-page-10>.
- SEED Gives. (n.d.). Retrieved 7/30/19, from <http://www.seedproject.org/seed-gives>.
- SEED Mission. (n.d.). Retrieved 7/24/2019, from <http://www.seedproject.org/philosophy>.
- SEED Project (February 15, 2017) *Live, Learn & Play Endline Results*. Retrieved 7/24/2019 from https://issuu.com/seedsfoundation/docs/nba_presentation_final

- SEED Project. (January 24, 2018). *SEED Project Africa*. Presentation.
- SEED Project. (June 12, 2019). *SEED Project Profile*. Presentation.
- SEED Project. (December, 2017). *SEED Project Vision*. Presentation.
- SEED Project Impact. (n.d.). Retrieved 7/24/2019 from <http://www.seedproject.org/impact>.
- SEED Rise. (n.d.). Retrieved 7/30/19, from <http://www.seedproject.org/seed-rise>.
- SEED Women's Empowerment. (n.d.). Retrieved 7/24/19 from <http://www.seedproject.org/womens-empowerment>.
- Skinner, A., Blum, N., & Bourn, D. (2013). Development education and education in international development policy: raising quality through critical pedagogy and global skills. *International Development Policy| Revue internationale de politique de développement*, 4(4.3). URL : <http://journals.openedition.org/poldev/1654> ; DOI : 10.4000/poldev.1654
- The World Factbook* (2019). Washington, DC: Central Intelligence Agency. <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/resources/the-world-factbook/geos/sg.html>.
- Todaro, P. M. (2000). *Economic Development*, Addison Wesley Longman, Inc.
- United Nations. (2018). *World Economic Situation and Prospects 2018*. United Nations, New York. https://www.un.org/development/desa/dpad/wp-content/uploads/sites/45/publication/WESP2018_Full_Web-1.pdf.
- U.S. Department of State. (n.d.). U.S. Relations with Senegal. Retrieved September 3, 2019 from <https://www.state.gov/u-s-relations-with-senegal/>.
- “What Is Africapitalism?” (2019, June 24). The Tony Elumelu Foundation. Retrieved from <https://www.tonyelumelufoundation.org/news/what-is-africapitalism>.
- World Bank.(2013). *Doing Business 2014: Understanding Regulations for Small and Medium-Size Enterprises*. Washington, DC: World Bank Group. DOI: 10.1596/978-0-8213-9984-2. License: Creative Commons Attribution CC BY 3.0.
- World Bank Group . (2019). *Doing Business 2019 – Senegal*. <https://www.doingbusiness.org/content/dam/doingBusiness/country/s/senegal/SEN.pdf>
- World Development Indicators Database, Country Profile Senegal, n.d. Retrieved 8/28/19 from https://databank.worldbank.org/views/reports/reportwidget.aspx?Report_Name=CountryProfile&Id=b450fd57&tbar=y&dd=y&inf=n&zm=n&country=SEN.
- Yin, R. K. (1998). The abridged version of case study research. L. Bickman, DJ Rog, eds. *Handbook of applied social research methods*, 229-260.
- Yin, R. K. (2006). Case study methods. Green, JL, Camilli, G., Elmore, PB. *Handbook of Complementary Methods of Education Research*, 111-122.

FIRESTORMS AND FORGIVENESS: ORGANIZATIONAL APOLOGIES IN THE AGE OF SOCIAL MEDIA

Kathryn Woods, Austin Peay State University

ABSTRACT

Social media has created an avenue of communication that allows corporations to more fully develop their brands, increase direct interaction with customers, and communicate ideas quickly to stakeholders. Large organizations have navigated a learning curve in discovering the most effective strategies for maintaining a social media presence, as social media has caused changes in the way their customers expect to give and receive information. Online social communication has also enabled customers and other stakeholders to magnify corporate mistakes, both big and small, in a way that can reach the public in a few hours instead of a few days. The speed at which this information can travel and the magnitude of the audience that can be reached in a short time has sparked a need for companies to revise their crisis management plans in a way that will allow them to combat potential negative effects of taking ownership (or not taking ownership) for bad behavior. This paper presents a critical analysis of recent high-profile corporate apologies, as viewed through the lens of “The Apology Formula”, a framework created to guide the process of organizational apologies with the goal of minimizing damage for both the organization and its customers (Schweitzer et al., 2015). The conclusions of this analysis highlight the need for organizations to carefully consider who, where, when, what, and how to apologize in the age of social media.

INTRODUCTION

Consumer expectations for organizational social behaviors and communication have evolved over time. In recent decades, the introduction and eventual ubiquity of social media platforms has informed the perceived relationship between consumers and organizations. Social media provides a method for consumers to interact with organizations in a way that makes them feel more personally connected to and engaged with brands than ever before (Wang & Kim, 2017). While the social media presence of organizations can help spread good news and have a positive impact on authentic public relations, it can also function as a microscope to magnify bad behaviors, spreading negative publicity like wildfire with both user-generated content and responses from competitors intended to fan the flames and direct customer loyalty elsewhere (Grégoire et al., 2015). While all organizational external communication efforts are affected by the potential for “going viral”, organizational apologies are particularly affected by the potential for these so-called social media firestorms.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Though organizations have dealt with the need to issue public apologies for decades, they are now faced with making decisions for how to handle such matters at least partially based on the likelihood of a firestorm. Public relations practitioners and academicians alike have authored many works on best practices for both individuals and organizations to follow when the need to apologize arises. These works have been revised over the years as communication channels have evolved and been enhanced by technology, perhaps at an even more rapid pace since the advent of social media, though the focus of the frameworks vary in scope and points of guidance.

Schweitzer et al. (2015) crafted the “Apology Formula” which provides a framework for organizations to decide whether an apology is needed and provides direction on each of five key elements - who, what, where, when, and how – to offer an effective apology. Other frameworks and best practices tend to focus more on just one or two of these elements, and most tend to focus entirely on the content of the apology itself (the “what” element). Biesel and Messersmith (2012) recognized that much of the literature on how to determine whether an organization should apologize was varied and conflicting, and they acknowledged the nuance involved in assessing the severity of each situation. They designed a four-component apology framework (known informally as OOPS) that includes “a narrative account of the offense, voicing regret with an explicit apology-functioning speech act, promising forbearance, and offering reparations” (p. 430). All four of these components focus narrowly on the “what” element, or the content of the apology itself. Psychiatrist and expert on apologies, Aaron Lazare, also offered a framework for the “what” element of apologies, insisting that apologies are not complete unless they acknowledge the offense (and the organization’s role in the offense), show remorse, provide an explanation, and make an effort toward reparation (2004). Similarly, Lewicki et al. (2016) found that taking responsibility for the error was the most important component of a successful apology.

One study intended to provide guidance to public relations professionals emphasized the “what” element of an apology by focusing on active versus passive responsibility (Lee & Chung, 2012). These researchers found that consumers’ anger levels decreased significantly more when an organizational apology contained language directly taking responsibility for the offense than when apologies contained more passive language in which they simply offer concern about the situation. Similarly, Pace et al. (2010) found that directly accepting responsibility for the transgression within an apology helped to preserve organizational reputations and decrease anger amongst the offended parties. One public relations firm offers advice for organizations in crisis that advocates for quick dissemination of information (when) and taking responsibility when appropriate (what) as the most important elements (Weiner, 2006). The Institute for Public Relations emphasizes findings that show organizations recover more quickly from crises (both financially and in reputation) when they “communicate aggressively (frequently and through many channels) than when they communicate passively (release very little information)” (Coombs, 2014, p. 6). This advice broadly covers both the “when” and “where” elements. These

works all highlight the importance of crafting language that allows the organization to communicate an apology in a way that provides the best opportunity for eventual forgiveness.

However, some practices provide much more freedom for organizations to explore apology alternatives. Research from Coombs and Holladay (2008) concluded that in some situations, organizations benefit from relying on alternative crisis communication strategies instead of an apology, because apologies tend to make the organization vulnerable to costly lawsuits. The researchers reported, “Given the higher costs associated with apologies, crisis managers can confidently offer compensation and/or express sympathy in the lower to moderate responsibility crises rather than relying on apology as the default” (p. 256). These findings are consistent with the Situational Crisis Communication Theory (SCCT), which promotes a continuum of organizational responses that span from defensive responses (denying responsibility) to accommodative strategies (accepting responsibility), based on the level of offense to stakeholders (Coombs, 2007). SCCT advocates that organizations only admit guilt when they are undoubtedly at fault. This theory is applied in practice as one public relations firm offers the viewpoint that apologizing is not always the best strategy. Specifically, the firm recommends that organizations not apologize when it might be more appropriate to control the story with their version of the incident, especially when it can correct mis-information already reported by the media (Bullwinkle, 2017). This tactic can also set a precedent for showing unruly customers what types of behavior will not be tolerated and show employees that the organization is committed to their safety and well-being. These best practices suggest that organizations should put just as much effort into choosing whether to apologize as they do the language used in an apology.

Taking a different tack, Kampf (2009), studied public “non-apologies”, or instances in which leaders minimized their role in the incident, avoided words in which they took direct responsibility for wrongdoing, apologized for one (often peripheral) element of the offense instead of an outcome of the offense, or overtly denied responsibility for the incident. Kampf analyzed hundreds of apologies and organized them into categories of ways to express regret without taking direct responsibility. These insincere apologies were found to be generally effective and can even “allow public figures to appear as moral personas who conform to the moral discursive standard that is becoming customary in the age of apology” (p. 2269). It seems that direction on responsibility-taking is varied and somewhat inconsistent as researchers provide guidance for crafting the “what” element of apologies. This could be attributed to the nuance of individual offense, situations, and stakeholders. It is important to note that the effectiveness of organizational apologies are also mitigated by several seemingly unimportant factors, including characteristics of the spokesperson delivering the apology (the “who” element). Researchers have shown that outward features like attractiveness (Sandlin & Gracyalny, 2020) and gender (Cowen & Montgomery, 2019) can alter stakeholder reactions to apologies that otherwise follow a tested framework. Practitioners are cautioned not to forget that human behavior precludes guarantees for perfectly received apologies.

THE STUDY

In this article, the author critically examines examples of organizational apologies via the framework known as The Apology Formula, which was published in a modern issue of *Harvard Business Review* with the intention of helping organizations apologize efficiently and effectively (Schweitzer et al., 2015). This framework was selected because Schweitzer et al. created the formula based on research at the intersection of management (recognizing and supporting good business practices) and psychology (recognizing that people are hard-wired to delay apologizing because it is uncomfortable). A practical guide for leadership that touts a simplified “who, what, when, where, how” framework seems uncomplicated enough for leaders to work through quickly, and broad enough to apply to any industry or organizational context. These qualities of the framework make it particularly interesting to study in a retrospective way.

This article adds to the existing body of related literature by focusing on two primary research questions:

- (1) *How effective were three recent high-profile organizational apologies, as viewed through the lens of The Apology Formula?*
- (2) *What are the emerging opportunities and challenges that exist for organizations navigating the art of the public apology in the age of social media?*

The Apology Formula

Schweitzer et al. (2015) drew upon their own working knowledge and research when they formulated and published the “Apology Formula” in *Harvard Business Review*. The formula provides, “a diagnostic and practical guidance on the who, what, where, when, and how of an effective apology” (p. 2). The formula was created in consideration of several key elements that make organizational apologies different from individual apologies, including indecision about when an organization should feel responsible for the actions of one or a few individuals and concerns about admitting responsibility for mistakes in an increasingly litigious society. To first determine whether an apology is necessary, the authors contend that organizational leaders should determine whether there was a violation (whether real or perceived), determine whether the violation was central to the organization’s core business, consider how the public will react when they learn of the offense, and decide whether the company is willing and/or able to commit to a change. If it is determined that the organization does need to apologize, the Apology Formula provides a framework to help craft an apology that will help the organization overcome the negative situation rather than making it worse with a poorly-designed apology. The ideas that support each element of the framework for the Apology Formula are summarized below in Table 1.

Who	The apology should come from a senior leader within the organization and be issued to the person or people who were harmed.
What	The content of the apology should have three goals: candor (clearly acknowledging what happened, the harmful effects, and taking responsibility for the actions), remorse (use language that clearly expresses that you are sorry for what happened), and commitment to change (tell the audience what you plan to do – fire someone, revise policies, conduct investigations, etc.).
Where	Leaders can make a written statement, video statement, or on-site visit to issue an apology. While written statements allow for the author to maintain the most control, on-site visits or live press conferences can convey a more sincere sense of caring. Apologies given through any of these channels can spread very quickly and to a broad audience via social media.
When	Apologies should be offered as quickly as possible. In some cases, a “placeholder” apology might be appropriate as the organization continues to gather facts surrounding the incident.
How	The authors report that using informal language and personal communication can support a sense of authenticity when apologizing. Recorded spoken or video apologies can be a great opportunity to express a sincere “repentant tone”, but also open the door to mistakes that can invalidate the apology.

ANALYSIS OF CORPORATE APOLOGIES

In this paper, the theoretical framework provided in the Apology Formula is applied to real-world examples of organizational apologies from the recent past. The following section outlines three examples of modern organizational crises that were widely publicized and the subsequent apologies that were issued by each organization.

Starbucks

Founded in Seattle, Washington in 1971, Starbucks Corporation is an American coffee chain that sells coffee, tea, and food products in retail environments and operates more than 28,000 locations in 76 countries worldwide. Operating with the mission statement “to inspire and nurture the human spirit – one person, one cup, and one neighborhood at a time”, the corporation was been recognized as one of the world’s most ethical companies by the Ethisphere Institute for twelve consecutive years (Starbucks, 2019).

On Thursday, April 12, 2018 two African-American men were arrested at a Starbucks in downtown Philadelphia after they refused to leave when asked by an employee to do so. They had asked to use the restroom, but the employee declined their request since they had not made a purchase. Their refusal to leave prompted an employee to call the police. Shortly after the police responded, a Caucasian man arrived and argued that the two African-American men were not trespassing, but were there to meet him to discuss business activities. Another customer took a video of a short portion of the arrest, which was viewed more than eleven million times on Twitter alone in subsequent weeks (Stevens, 2018).

The company issued an apology via Twitter two days after the incident. The statement was issued as follows:

We apologize to the two individuals and our customers for what took place at our Philadelphia store on Thursday....and are disappointed this led to an arrest. We take these matters seriously and clearly have more work to do when it comes to how we handle incidents in our stores. We are reviewing our policies and will continue to engage with the community and the police department to try to ensure these types of situations never happen in any of our stores (Starbucks Corporation, 2018).

On the same day, the company provided a written press release from their Chief Executive Officer Kevin Johnson, and highlighted, “We regret that our practices and training led to the reprehensible outcome at our Philadelphia store. We’re taking immediate action to learn from this and be better” (Starbucks Corporation, 2018). Johnson also added that he would ensure that the proper steps were taken to prevent similar incidents from occurring in the future (Stevens, 2018).

The public highlighted the incident as an example of discrimination and racial profiling (Stevens, 2018). The company followed up by closing more than 8,000 of their locations six weeks after the incident to hold racial bias training. More than 175,000 employees were reported to have participated in the training (Gajanan, 2018). After the story and video of the incident went viral, the incident was trending on social media using the hashtag #BoycottStarbucks. The company settled with the two men who were arrested for an undisclosed amount of money and an offer of free college. The lawyer representing the young men also made a statement to announce that Starbucks CEO Kevin Johnson was so impressed with how they handled the aftermath of the situation, that he promised to personally mentor and maintain a relationship with them (Gajanan, 2018). The incident had no obvious effect on the company’s quarterly earnings, and CEO Johnson stated that it may even help them financially, since the racial-bias training they held in April “will pay long-term dividends to Starbucks” (Staley, 2018; Starbucks Investor Relations, 2019).

United Airlines

In pre-pandemic 2019, United Airlines was a major American airline offering approximately 4,800 flights a day to 353 airports across five continents. The company has publicized their purpose statement, “Every day, we help unite the world by connecting people to the moments that matter most” (United Airlines, 2019).

One Sunday April 9, 2017, a United Airlines flight from Chicago to Louisville was overbooked, and the airline needed to fly four crew members on the flight in order for them to be able to work on subsequent flights. Passengers were offered vouchers as incentives to volunteer to give up their seats to these flight attendants, but none came forward. After weighing factors such as connecting flight information and airport wait times, the airline selected four passengers to “involuntarily de-board” the flight. Three of these passengers complied with the request, but one, 69 year-old Dr. David Dao, refused. Following Department of Transportation protocol, the flight crew called local law enforcement to physically remove the passenger from the plane (Zdanowicz & Grinberg, 2018).

In response to Dr. Dao's refusal to de-board, the security officers from the Chicago Department of Aviation security dragged the man down the aisle of the plane by his arms and legs, bloodying his face in the process. Dr. Dao immediately ran back onto the plane after he was removed, reportedly with blood streaming down his face. The officers removed him once more, and the four flight crew members boarded the plane, only to be berated by the remaining passengers for the duration of the trip (Zdanowicz & Grinberg, 2018). Several passengers recorded Dr. Dao's removal on their mobile phones, and the footage went viral quickly, receiving over 24 million views on Twitter alone (Andrews, 2017).

United Airlines CEO Oscar Munoz released a statement the day after the incident in which he apologized for "having to re-accommodate these customers" and stated that the airline would reach out to the passenger to resolve the situation, though he did not comment on the treatment of Dr. Dao. He also issued a lengthy letter to his employees, in which he outlined the events that occurred, assured them that he supports them, and referred to Dr. Dao as "disruptive and belligerent". United faced immediate backlash, with viral social media posts calling for boycotts and accusing Munoz of victim-blaming. The following day (two days after the event), Munoz release another statement in which he expressed that the airline was taking full responsibility for the incident, admitted that the passenger was gravely mistreated, and ended by stating "I promise you we will do better". The following morning Munoz offered an additional apology on-camera on a national morning news show. The day after that, the airline released yet another statement to issue a public apology to Dr. Dao and committed to a review of policies to ensure similar incidents would not occur going forward (McCann, 2017).

After the story and video of the United Airlines incident went viral, the Chicago Department of Aviation fired two of the officers involved and suspended the third. The department released a statement admitting that the officers had given the passenger a concussion and a broken nose and knocked out two of his teeth during the incident, and at least one of the officers reported false information in the written report documenting the incident. They also labeled the security officers' behavior as "excessive force" and stated that the officers were fired for improper escalation of the incident. Dao reportedly received a settlement from the airline for an undisclosed amount of funds within a month of the incident (Andrews, 2017). Passengers on the flight were offered a full refund for the price of their airfare three days after the incident (McCann, 2017). In the aftermath of the negative publicity, United quickly announced that Munoz did not receive his planned promotion from Chief Executive Officer to Chairman (Meier, 2017). While United's stock price dipped more than six percentage points (an equivalent of \$1.4 billion) two days after the flight (Shen, 2017), the incident seemed to have had no obvious long-term financial impact. The company reported that second-quarter revenues in 2017 were up more than six percent over the same quarter in 2016, roughly flat in the third quarter, and back up more than four percent in the fourth quarter (United Airlines, 2018).

Uber

The ride-sharing giant Uber quickly became an international sensation after the smart phone application hit the market in 2009, then known as UberCab. Over the past decade, the on-demand transportation service has grown to include sidelines that deliver food (Uber Eats) and

connect trucking companies with drivers (Uber Freight), and has become available in more than 500 cities (Uber Company Info, 2019). The service has become increasingly popular with short-term travelers, those who wish to avoid driving and parking in congested urban areas, and those looking for a safe ride home.

In February 2017, a former employee of the company published a blog post that outlined instances of sexual harassment that occurred and were covered up by Uber's Human Resources department. She painted a clear picture for the public of "rampant misogyny at Uber and a culture hostile towards women". Then-CEO Travis Kalanick immediately released a statement vowing to have Human Resources conduct an "urgent investigation" and calling for any employees who are complicit to these actions to be fired. Subsequently, one senior executive was fired for failing to disclose an allegation of sexual harassment during his tenure at his former employer. The following month, Kalanick was caught on camera swearing and belittling his own Uber driver who complained to him about the company's treatment of their employees. Kalanick later apologized to his employees via email (Balachandran, 2017).

In June 2017, the company fired 20 employees after conducting a review of "claims of harassment, discrimination, bullying, and other employee concerns". Several senior executives were relieved of their duties based on alleged cover-ups of various crimes, overt misogynistic behaviors, and mishandling of complaints. After a brief leave of absence, Kalanick stepped down shortly after all of these issues gained national media attention, at the urging of at least five of Uber's top investors, though he remained on the board (Balachandran, 2017). Consumers threatened boycotts on social media at high rates, especially just prior to Kalanick's resignation as CEO. Dara Khosrowshahi, former CEO of Expedia, stepped in to take over for Kalanick in September 2017 with his mind on re-vamping the corporate culture as soon as possible (O'Brien, 2018).

As a means of communicating some of the initiatives that the company was taking to change the culture and improve service, Khosrowshahi released an "apology ad" nine months into his time at the helm of the company. The commercial directly addressed the issues of improving culture and service – both for customers and employees (O'Brein, 2018). The apology ad was released in roughly the same time frame as two other corporate giants – Facebook and Wells Fargo – apologized to their customer base via commercial as well. Uber's ad has been touted as much more effective than the other organizations, with the success largely attributed to the style of the commercial, during which new Khosrowshahi directly commits to upholding Uber's core value of "doing the right thing" and gives specific examples of how he plans to do that, such as hiring new leadership, enhancing background checks, and expanding customer service (Gourguechon, 2018). The financial impact of new leadership and the Khosrowshahi's appeal to stakeholders regarding the commitment to improving the company's culture are somewhat elusive due to the nature of the company's continuous spending, expansion into new lines, and sale of other lines that did not prove to be sustainable. Though Uber's growth slowed from 2017 to 2018, revenues still went up by an impressive 43 percent, and bookings were reported to have increased by 45 percent in 2018. The company's initial public offering occurred on May 9, 2019 (Feiner, 2019). Kalanick resigned from the board and sold all of the shares he owned in the company in December 2019. Khosrowshahi reported that Kalanick

was loyal to supporting Uber's mission and supportive of his leadership since he took over as CEO (Palmer, 2019).

DISCUSSION

Each of these scenarios shares similarities and holds differences with the others regarding their "fit" with the five elements of the Apology Formula. These points are summarized below.

Who

Per the Apology Formula, the apology should come from a senior leader within the organization and be issued to the person or people who were harmed. In all three incidents, the apology came from the CEO. However, the audience of the apology differed in each case. The Starbucks CEO apologized directly to the two individuals who were arrested as well as the customers. The United Airlines CEO started by issuing a statement of support for his employees and apologized for "having to re-accommodate" some customers. He initially characterized Dr. Dao as disruptive and belligerent. After receiving immediate backlash for his stance, he issued an apology the next day in which he stated that the victim was mistreated and the airline would take full responsibility for the incident. The new CEO for Uber provided his message directly to the customers and employees of the company.

What

The Apology Formula states that the content of the apology should have three goals: candor (clearly acknowledging what happened, the harmful effects, and taking responsibility for the actions), remorse (use language that clearly expresses that you are sorry for what happened), and commitment to change (tell the audience what you plan to do – fire someone, revise policies, conduct investigations, etc.). While all three cases mentioned here addressed these points thoroughly at some point in their stream of apologies, some achieved these three goals more quickly than others. Starbucks covered all of these points fairly quickly with their apology, while United Airlines waited until their stakeholders expressed their discontent with the first apology to issue one that addressed all of the relevant points. While Uber had to make serious changes, including a change of CEO, to begin righting their wrongs, their new CEO did cover all of these points in his apology advertisement.

Where

Per the Apology Formula, leaders should make a written statement, video statement, or on-site visit to issue an apology. While written statements allow for the author to maintain the most control, on-site visits or live press conferences can convey a more sincere sense of caring. Apologies given through any of these channels can spread very quickly and to a broad audience via social media. In these cases, outlets for apologies all started with an online statement, and some evolved from there. After Starbucks released several online statements, they followed up

by continuing to release statements regarding their progress on their commitment to change. United's CEO released several online statements that evolved in content and message, and eventually made an appearance on a national morning news show. Uber issued online statements for many of its transgressions, but the new CEO took a more creative, dramatic approach when he issued his televised apology advertisement.

When

The Apology Formula asserts that apologies should be offered as quickly as possible. In some cases, a "placeholder" apology might be appropriate as the organization continues to gather facts surrounding the incident. All three companies seemed to issue their apologies quickly, as the incidents occurred. The Starbucks CEO released a statement two days after the incident, while the United Airlines CEO released a statement the day after the incident. Uber's original CEO released several timely statements as the news of various scandals broke, while the current CEO release his apology advertisement nine months after he took the company over and had taken many steps to survey the situation, assess damages, and begin to make conscious efforts to make positive changes in the culture of the company.

How

The authors of the Apology Formula reported that using informal language and personal communication can support a sense of authenticity when apologizing. Recorded spoken or video apologies can be a great opportunity to express a sincere "repentant tone", but also open the door to mistakes that can invalidate the apology. The "how" of each apology is perhaps the most difficult to assess of any of the elements identified due to the complex factors that affect each incident. All three companies did make use of informal language in their apologies, and each of them (in some cases, eventually...) did make a specific "repentant" statement. While Starbucks released a written statement, both United Airlines and Uber released written statements and videos.

A summary of each company's actions as they relate to each element in the Apology Formula is found below in Table 2.

	Starbucks	United Airlines	Uber
Who	From: CEO To: Two individuals who were arrested and customers	From: CEO To: Evolved from blaming individual passenger and supporting employees to apologizing to victim and customers	From: CEO To: Customers and employees
What	Candor: Yes Remorse: Yes Commitment to Change: Settled with two individuals, closed stores for mandatory racial-bias training	Candor: Eventually, yes Remorse: Eventually, yes Commitment to Change: Airline settled with passenger, refunded passengers, committed to reviewing policies to prevent similar incidents	Candor: Yes Remorse: Yes Commitment to Change: Litigation, personnel shake-up, background checks, expanding customer service
Where	Series of online statements	Series of online statements; Appearance on national morning news show	Series of online statements; Televised apology advertisement
When	Two days after incident	One day after incident, and several days afterward	Various
How	Informal language, "We're taking immediate action to learn from this and be better"; written only	Informal language, "I promise you we will do better"; both written and video	Informal language, focused on upholding core value "doing the right thing"; both written and video

IMPLICATIONS

Considering the information provided, how effective were three recent high-profile organizational apologies, as viewed through the lens of The Apology Formula? Each of the companies appeared to adhere to the basic tenets of The Apology Formula, though while Starbucks seemed to power through the steps, United Airlines gave the impression of stumbling through them, and even starting them over in a second iteration at one point. Both of these companies apologized for an isolated incident in which their customers were mistreated, and both companies had their Chief Executive deliver an apology quickly. The main difference is that Starbucks was able to provide a consistent message of how the company would internalize the ordeal and turn it into an opportunity for improvement, while United Airlines started out blaming the passenger and had to change its message mid-stream after receiving backlash from the public. While Uber's case is a bit of an outlier since the company apologized for a series of offenses over time, all of these examples highlight the success of apologies that follow the formula. A particular strength of the formula identified via this analysis is an organization's ability to deftly start back at the beginning of the formula when a first attempt does not land well with stakeholders. As stated previously, the Apology Formula was selected for study in part due to the interdisciplinary nature of the research (in management and psychology) that supported the development of the framework. This comprehensive formula for organizational leaders that relies

on a simple, unpretentious “who, what, when, where, how” framework is broadly applicable to many industries. Public relations practitioners working with various types of organizations are likely to find these strengths to be beneficial in times of crisis.

While public apologies are quite commonplace in these times of near-instant communication, measuring their effects can be quite complex. Unrelated variables cannot be controlled, and no two organizations share exactly the same business model, stakeholder groups, product categories, seasonal factors, etc. One method of measuring the impact of a public relations crisis is noting dips in financial performance. Many large organizations may expect a temporary dip in sales or stock prices after an incident necessitates a public apology, with the hopes that the news will blow over quickly and business will not be affected irreparably. In the cases analyzed above, none of the companies seemed to have experienced a permanent decline in revenue, with only United Airlines suffering a dip that seemed noticeable to market-watchers. Starbucks’ CEO even made an announcement that their sales were not affected, noting that the company realized a slightly increased sales figure during the quarter in which the customers were arrested (Taylor, 2018). While Uber’s financials are more complex as they continue to shed and acquire lines of business, their bookings rose 45 percent in the year after the new CEO took the helm (Bosa & Zaveri, 2019).

Another method of measuring the impact of a public relations crisis involves measuring the general damage to an organization’s reputation – the impact of which can be assessed by a combination of metrics including stakeholder levels of anger, negative word-of-mouth chatter, and decline in traffic/sales (Coombs, 2007; Pace et al, 2010). Specifically, organizations must assess (and, if needed, temper) any social media firestorms that arise as a result of the transgression that warranted the apology, as they can fan the flame of perceived crisis and stakeholder outrage. Researchers stress that becoming well-prepared to handle a firestorm should be a priority long before it happens, and that organizations can often ward off the (potentially long-term) negative effects by attracting a diverse followership online from the start. They concluded that organizations need to “...create fan networks, identify trusted information brokers to spread news about their company, and develop contingency plans for organizing a collective social information response before they are needed in order to control the overall information picture” (Pfeffer et al., 2014). Researchers have also developed a social norm theory on online firestorms, positing that the “stunning waves of aggression typical for online firestorms can be explained by the characteristic features of social media that ideally contribute to the solution of the second-order public good dilemma of norm enforcement” (Rost et al., 2016). This theory supports the idea that consumers often feel the need to join a firestorm conversation due to a desire to agree with what they believe to be a positive social norm or to voice their concern over an action that violates a social norm. These researchers also highlighted that online anonymity does not increase online aggression during firestorms supporting social norms, because consumers often want their names associated with promoting positive social norms. Similarly, other researchers concluded that a desire for social recognition is the strongest factor in consumers’ likelihood of participating in an online firestorm. The perceived social support that they receive from like-minded individuals expressing similar opinions validates their feelings and further encourages them to join the conversation (Johnen et al., 2017). Organizations must

remain vigilant in the aftermath of a perceived transgression (especially when a firestorm occurs), assess reputational damage frequently, and work to repair damage quickly.

Considering the many aforementioned variables at play in regards to the delivery and effectiveness of organizational apologies, the effectiveness of a singular framework (in this case, the Apology Framework) can be difficult to compare to other frameworks. However, the structure of the framework lends itself to analysis of each individual element. Interested parties can retrospectively study examples of organizations that missed the mark on a single (or multiple) elements of the formula to assess the value of the action(s). For example, Equifax arguably botched their apology for a massive data breach of 143 million individuals in the ‘who’ and ‘when’ categories. CEO Richard Smith took six weeks to address the issue publicly and offer an apology, and later it was disclosed that three other executive-level employees sold their shares and retired in the meantime. Smith stepped down just a few weeks later as stock prices plummeted and consumer confidence evaporated in the wake of so much legal action (Kador, 2017). The at-home exercise equipment brand Peleton faced backlash after airing a holiday advertisement showing a man gifting the popular exercise bike to his wife, implying that she needed to lose weight. While consumers perceived the commercial as sexist and demeaning, a company spokesperson issued a statement, “While we’re disappointed in how some have misinterpreted this commercial, we are encouraged by — and grateful for — the outpouring of support we’ve received from those who understand what we were trying to communicate.” This statement missed the ‘what’ category of the Apology Formula, as it effectively blamed the offended parties by telling them that they simply did not understand the advertisement’s intention rather than offering remorse or a commitment to change. The company experienced as much as a 10% drop in stock price, but bounced back as the COVID-19 pandemic spurred many consumers to purchase the product as gyms started to close nationwide (Stump, 2019; Valinsky, 2020).

Other examples of negative consequences exacerbated by bungled apologies include instances of making mistakes in both the ‘when’ and ‘how’ elements of the formula. Wayfair made headlines as the home goods company reportedly made a sale of more than \$200,000 to government contractors ordering beds and other items to be used in the camp for migrant children being detained in Texas in 2019. The action resulted in organized employee walk-outs and hundreds of orders cancelled in protest of the situation. Weeks later, the co-founders of the company announced to employees that Wayfair was donating \$100,000 to the Red Cross in hopes of offsetting some of the damage, though some employees found this message to be “too little, too late” considering the timing and lack of alignment in supporting the Red Cross rather than a more direct relief effort for the detained refugees (Manley, 2020; Wu, 2019). Ellen DeGeneres, beloved comedian and host of *The Ellen DeGeneres Show*, who famously signed off from each show with her tagline “Be kind to one another” faced much criticism after being accused of creating and perpetuating a toxic work environment for much of her staff. Allegations of racism and cruelty posed by her current and former staff circulated via social media all summer, but the host chose to wait to address the comments to her viewers until the first episode of the show’s final season in September. In an ill-advised stand-up comedy-esque statement, DeGeneres joked around and sarcastically acted as if she were the victim to the situation, and

told viewers that while she was generally cheerful, it was difficult to be the “Be Kind lady” all the time. The show has experienced a significant loss of viewership (more than 43%) following the missed opportunity for showing remorse and committing to change (Manley, 2020; Koblin, 2021).

The implications mentioned here open the door to another question: What are the emerging opportunities and challenges that exist for organizations navigating the art of the public apology in the age of social media? Recall that in all three incidents, the story was quickly trending on social media, all with hashtags calling for boycotts on the companies. So, what became of these intentions to boycott – were they just short-lived outbursts that were quickly overshadowed by other news and shopping habits that were already solidified based on convenience and price? Perhaps consumer decisions and purchases were influenced positively by the brands’ commitment to change following their offensive behaviors. Starbucks followed through on their promises by closing stores for employee racial-bias training, United Airlines followed through with promises of policy review and revisions to prevent similar happenings in the future, and Uber followed through implementing specific actions they took to improve their services and culture. Looking at the lack of financial repercussions for each organization, it seems in all three cases that customers were either experiencing only temporary vehemence to the companies or that they considered their efforts toward remediation to be “enough” to earn their forgiveness, and therefore their business.

It seems that the rise of social media has only served to exacerbate the claim made by the authors of The Apology Formula, “for core violations, the ‘what’ has to show a tremendous commitment to change, the ‘who’ has to be senior leaders, the ‘when’ has to be fast, the ‘where’ has to be high profile, and the ‘how’ must be deeply sincere and demonstrate empathy,” (Schweitzer et al., 2015, p.12). When a company misses the mark on any of these steps outlined in the formula, perhaps the first step toward earning their stakeholders’ forgiveness is to determine what the public reaction is via social media and be ready to change directions and start the process over if they miss the mark on the first try. As many social media users utilize these platforms as a place to “be heard”, perhaps they are equally satisfied to support an organization that learns from its mistakes as they are to publicly shame one that has participated in bad behavior.

FUTURE RESEARCH

Future researchers might find value in further exploring some topics related to implications in this paper. This study could be replicated to analyze additional organizational apologies, and those reports could be compared and contrasted based on the industry or type of service that the organization provides. Incidents could also be grouped into those that the public perceives to be a mistreatment of customers versus a mistreatment of funds or other stakeholder groups. A critical analysis could also be provided for the same situations using a framework that differs from The Apology Formula. Researchers might also be interested in analyzing more cases in which an organization issued an apology that was not initially well-received by stakeholders and changed direction based on the public’s reaction via social media.

REFERENCES

- Andrews, T. M. (2017, October 17). United Airlines dragging incident that went viral produces firings, suspensions of officers. *The Washington Post*. Retrieved from https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/morning-mix/wp/2017/10/17/united-airlines-dragging-incident-that-went-viral-produces-firings-suspensions-of-officers/?utm_term=.2c392429453d
- Balachandran, M. (2017, June 21). A timeline of events that led to the downfall of Travis Kalanick at Uber. *Quartz India*, Retrieved from <https://qz.com/india/1010986/a-timeline-of-events-that-led-to-travis-kalanick-stepping-down-as-ceo-of-uber/>
- Bisel, R. S. & Messersmith, A. S. (2012). Organizational and supervisory apology effectiveness: Apology giving in work settings, *Business Communication Quarterly*, 75(4), 425 – 448.
- Bullwinkle, B. (2017, August 7). Sorry, not sorry: Why corporate apologizing isn't always the best strategy. *Clyde Group*. Retrieved from <https://clydegroupp.com/corporate-apology-strategy/>
- Coombs, W. T. (2007). Protecting organization reputations during a crisis: The development and application of situational crisis communication theory. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 10, 163 – 176. Retrieved from <https://link.springer.com/article/10.1057/palgrave.crr.1550049>
- Coombs, W. T. (2014). State of crisis communication: Evidence and the bleeding edge. *Research Journal of the Institute for Public Relations*, 1(1), 1 – 12.
- Coombs, W. T. & Holladay, S. J. (2008). Comparing apology to equivalent crisis response strategies: Clarifying apology's role and value in crisis communication. *Public Relations Review*, 34(3), 252 – 257.
- Cowen, A. P. & Montgomery, N. V. (2019). To be or not to be sorry? How CEO gender impacts the effectiveness of organizational apologies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 105(2), 196 – 208.
- Feiner, L. (2019, May 10). Uber ends its first day of trading down by 7%. *CNBC Disruptor*, Retrieved from <https://www.cnbc.com/2019/05/10/uber-ipo-stock-starts-trading-on-the-new-york-stock-exchange.html>
- Gajanan, M. (2018, May 3). The two black men arrested at Starbucks are focused on a 'positive' future. *TIME*, Retrieved from <http://time.com/5264380/starbucks-arrest-black-men-interview/>
- Gourguechon, P. (2018, August 13). Why Uber's apology ad worked and Facebook's and Wells Fargo's bombed. *Forbes Leadership Strategy*. Retrieved from <https://www.forbes.com/sites/prudygourguechon/2018/08/13/when-are-corporate-apology-ads-worth-the-investment-and-when-do-they-backfire/#4c6b8c887cea>
- Grégoire, Y., Salle, A., & Tripp, T. M. (2015). Managing social media crises with your customers: The good, the bad, and the ugly, *Business Horizons*, 58(2), 173 – 182.
- Johnen, M., Jungblut, M., & Ziegele, M. (2017). The digital outcry: What incites participation in an online firestorm? *New Media and Society*, 19(12), 1 – 21.
- Kador, J. (2017, September 19). Unforgiven: The failed apology of Equifax CEO Richard Smith. *Chief Executive*. Retrieved from <https://chiefexecutive.net/unforgiven-failed-apology-equifax-ceo-richard-smith/>
- Kampf, Z. (2009). Public (non-) apologies: The discourse of minimizing responsibility. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 41(11), 2257 – 2270.
- Lazare, A. (2004). *On Apology*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Lewicki, R. J., Polin, B. & Lount, R. B. (2016). An Exploration of the Structure of Effective Apologies. *Negotiation and Conflict Management Research*, 9(2), 177 - 196. doi: 10.1111/ncmr.12073
- Manley, L. (2020, September 29). The 6 worst brand apologies...and what should have been done. *CTP Boston*. Retrieved from <https://www.ctpboston.com/latest/blog/the-6-worst-brand-apologies-and-what-should-have-been-done/>
- McCann, E. (2017, April 14). United's apologies: A timeline. *New York Times: Business*, Retrieved from <https://www.nytimes.com/2017/04/14/business/united-airlines-passenger-doctor.html>
- Meier, B. (2017, April 21). Oscar Munoz won't get planned promotion to chairman of United. *New York Times: Business*. Retrieved from <https://www.nytimes.com/2017/04/21/business/united-airlines-ceo.html>
- O'Brien, S. A. (2018, August 29). Uber's CEO one year in: The one thing I wish I had fixed sooner. *CNN Business*. Retrieved from <https://money.cnn.com/2018/08/29/technology/uber-ceo-dara-khosrowshahi-one-year-anniversary/index.html>
- Pace, K. M., Fediuk, T. A & Botero, I. C. (2010). The acceptance of responsibility and expressions of regret in organizational apologies after a transgression. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 15(4), 410 – 427.

- Palmer, A. (2019, December 26). Travis Kalanick severs all ties with Uber, departing board and selling all his shares. *CNBC Tech*. Retrieved from <https://www.cnbc.com/2019/12/24/travis-kalanick-to-depart-uber-board-of-directors.html>
- Pfeffer, J., Zorbach, T., & Carley, K. M. (2014). Understanding online firestorms: Negative word-of-mouth dynamics in social media networks. *Journal of Marketing Communications*, 20(1-2), 117 – 128.
- Rost K., Stahel, L., & Frey, B. S. (2016). Digital social norm enforcement: Online firestorms in social media. *PLoS ONE*, 11(6), e0155923. Retrieved from <http://journals.plos.org/plosone/article?id=10.1371/journal.pone.0155923#abstract0>
- Sandlin, J. K. & Gracyalny, M. L. (2020). Fandom, forgiveness, and future support: YouTube apologies as crisis communication. *Journal of Communication Management*, 24(1), 1 – 18.
- Schweitzer, M. E., Brooks, A. W. & Galinsky, A. (2015). The organizational apology. *Harvard Business Review*, 93(9), 44 – 52.
- Shen, L. (2017, April 11). United Airlines stock drops \$1.4 billion after passenger-removal controversy. *Fortune: Finance*. Retrieved from <http://fortune.com/2017/04/11/united-airlines-stock-drop/>
- Staley, O. (2018, April 27). Starbucks didn't lose money after its race scandal – and may even profit from it. *Quartz*. Retrieved from <https://qz.com/1264240/starbucks-earnings-the-company-may-profit-from-the-philadelphia-arrest-scandal/>
- Starbucks. (2019). Company information. Retrieved from <https://www.starbucks.com/about-us/company-information>
- Starbucks Corporation. (2018, April 14). [Twitter post]. “We apologize to the two individuals and our customers for what took place at our Philadelphia store on Thursday“ Retrieved from <https://twitter.com/Starbucks/status/985200942030012416>
- Starbucks Investor Relations. (2019). Financial data. Retrieved from <https://investor.starbucks.com/financial-data/annual-reports/default.aspx>
- Stevens, M. (2018). Starbucks C.E.O. apologizes after arrest of two black men. *The New York Times*, Retrieved from <https://www.nytimes.com/2018/04/15/us/starbucks-philadelphia-black-men-arrest.html>
- Stump, S. (2019, December 3). Peleton responds to backlash over holiday commercial, says it was ‘misinterpreted’. *Today*. Retrieved from <https://www.today.com/news/peloton-faces-backlash-ridicule-over-new-holiday-commercial-t169080>
- Taylor, K. (2018, April 26). Starbucks CEO says that boycotts following the arrests of two black men haven't hurt sales. *Business Insider*. Retrieved from <https://www.businessinsider.com/starbucks-ceo-protests-after-arrests-havent-impacted-sales-2018-4>
- Uber Company Info. (2019). *Uber Newsroom*. Retrieved from <https://www.uber.com/newsroom/history/>
- United Airlines. (2019). Company information. Retrieved from https://hub.united.com/sp/purposes/?_ga=2.101388615.777586532.1550870257-399247658.1550870257
- United Airlines. (2018). United Airlines reports fourth-quarter and full-year 2017 performance. Retrieved from <https://hub.united.com/united-airlines-reports-fourth-quarter-2567373628.html>
- Valinsky, J. (2020, September 11). Peloton sales surge 172% as pandemic bolsters home fitness industry. *Markets Now*. Retrieved from <https://www.cnn.com/2020/09/11/business/peloton-stock-earnings/index.html>
- Wang, Z. & Kim, H. G. (2017). Can social media marketing improve customer relationship capabilities and firm performance? Dynamic capability perspective. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 39, 15 – 26.
- Weiner, D. (2006, March/April). Crisis communications: Managing corporate reputation in the court of public opinion. *Ivey Business Journal*, Retrieved from <https://iveybusinessjournal.com/publication/crisis-communications-managing-corporate-reputation-in-the-court-of-public-opinion/>
- Wu, J. (2019, June 26). Wayfair employees walk out, customer call for boycott in protest over bed sales to Texas border detention camp. *CNBC*. Retrieved from <https://www.cnbc.com/2019/06/26/wayfair-draws-backlash-calls-for-boycott-after-employee-protest.html>
- Zaveri, P. & Bosa, D. (2019, February 15). Uber's growth slowed dramatically in 2018. *CNBC Disruptor*. Retrieved from <https://www.cnbc.com/2019/02/15/uber-2018-financial-results.html>
- Zdanowicz, C. & Grinberg, E. (2018, April 10). Passenger dragged off overbooked United flight. *CNN Travel*. Retrieved from <https://www.cnn.com/2017/04/10/travel/passenger-removed-united-flight-trnd/index.html>

THE MODERATING EFFECTS OF PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT ON LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS: A STUDY OF ARMY CADETS

T. J. Gabriel, University of North Georgia
Wendy Walker, University of North Georgia
Russell Teasley, University of North Georgia

ABSTRACT

In this paper, we investigate the role that perceived organizational support might play in the—leadership behaviors of supervisors and managers. Our research was conducted with members of the military corps of cadets at a U.S. military college. Behavioral traits and perceptions of cadets were assessed when they entered the corps program, and compared with their leadership behaviors that were evaluated during a national leadership development camp. Specifically, we explore whether perceived organizational support moderates effects that the behavioral traits of hardiness, achievement striving, and grit have on leadership attributes.

INTRODUCTION

Perceived organizational support (POS) represents the degree to which employees believe their organization cares about their welfare and appreciates how their work output has aided their organization (the employer). Research into this notion was initiated by the work of Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa (1986) with the general idea that employees create organizational value by contributing work skills, personality, and life experiences that have formed them as individuals. In return, employees expect equitable resources and motivational support to constitute a fair exchange (Blau, 1964). The absence of fair exchange constitutes suboptimal performance. One objective of the job interview process is for employers to gauge the value of exchange between the strengths or weaknesses of potential employees and the associated fit with organizational goals and resources. Effective exchange depends not only upon the reality, but also upon the perception of reciprocity and mutual value added. Therefore, contributory performance of even high potential individuals may be constrained by real or apparent lack of support from their organizational units. Conversely, those individuals become more committed and achieve higher performance when they perceive more abundant organizational support or recognition.

We believe that this same notion applies to military settings. Those who join the military often do it out of a sense of duty, national allegiance, and honor. They offer years of their lives in service to their country for the general good of its citizens. The support and concern shown toward them by their military organization will likely impact their level of personal commitment and performance. Those in leadership roles in that military organization will be affected similarly

such that their positive or negative perceptions of organizational support would impact their performance as leaders in their military group.

The following sections discuss the continuation of a joint effort between the authors and the administration of a university Corps of Cadets program to investigate the potential effects of POS on cadet leadership attributes. Our prior research has assessed relationships between our survey data and rater-generated evaluation of cadets' leadership competencies. A recent manuscript (Teasley et al., 2021) reported impacts of the behavioral traits of hardiness, achievement striving and grit on cadet leadership performance as defined by the army's Leader Requirements Model LRM (U.S. Army, 2012). We found evidence that hardiness, achievement striving and the perseverance aspect of grit influenced some attributes of leadership and that cynicism demonstrated a significant moderating effect on the outcomes. In this article we report results of our investigation into the potential moderation of POS on relationships between the personal traits of hardiness, achievement striving, and grit and the aforementioned LRM leadership outcomes for our sample of US Army Cadets.

HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

Teasley et al. (2021) developed a theoretical framework from existing literature relating hardiness, achievement striving, and grit to LRM leadership outcomes in a military context. The present study draws upon this framework but refers the reader to our previous manuscript for details. In the following discussion, we clarify the nature and specifics of the LRM leadership indicators and speculate how POS might directly influence leadership or moderate the effects of the aforementioned behavioral trait on the LRM leadership indicators.

Military Leadership Model

The Leadership Requirements Model (LRM) guides the training and development of potential US Army leaders. The LRM contains a set of leadership attributes grouped according to a leader's display of 1) Character, 2) Presence, 3) Intellectual Capacity, and 4) Core Leader Competencies (U.S. Army, 2012). Based upon principles in the LRM, the US Army develops its cadets (those contractually committed to become officers upon college graduation) at its national Leadership Development and Assessment Course (LDAC). This two week course is a strenuous physical and mental intervention for cadets where they are pushed to perform, plan and make decisions, and to lead others under stressful environments. During this time, existing officers attempt to develop and assess the military character and the core leadership competencies of the emerging cadet class. Near the conclusion of this dedicated training period, the Army formally assesses each cadet's military leadership capabilities.

The LDAC assessment considers three aspects of leadership competencies - Leads, Develops, and Achieves. The "Leads" competency assesses the indicators *extending influence*, *leading by example*, and *communicating* as it attempts to measure a cadet's character, abilities, presence, and intellect in guiding others toward mission accomplishment. The "Develops" indicators of *creates a positive environment*, *prepares self*, and *develops others* measures a

cadet's ability to cultivate teamwork, to accept personal responsibility, and to exhibit care for others. The third competency, "Achieves" assesses a cadet's ability to plan and accomplish a mission measuring through a single indicator, *gets results*.

Perceived Organizational Support

Perceived organizational support is the extent to which employees feel valued by the organization for which they work, and thereby, serves as a signal of the extent to which the employer is willing and able to meet increased work efforts with increased rewards (Eisenberger, Huntington, & Hutchison, 1986; Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). In our military context, the cadet is the employee and the U.S. Army (Corps of Cadets) is the employer.

Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002), in their meta-analysis, found that POS influenced organizational commitment, job-related affect, job involvement, and desire to remain with the organization. It appears that individuals who perceive higher levels of support from their organizations are more likely to have attitudes that bond them with the organization. We speculate that higher levels of POS in leaders, because of their higher level of job involvement and desire to do their job function as a leader, will reveal itself in leadership traits such as leading by example or preparing self. Therefore, we hypothesize the following:

H1: POS will be positively related to the leadership performance.

Hardiness, Achievement Striving and Grit

Hardiness refers to a person's levels of commitment, control, and challenge. (Bartone, 2006). In the military setting, hardiness helps an individual respond to the intensity and difficulties that present themselves in and around combat situations.

Achievement striving, according to Mount & Barrick (1995), is the willingness and drive to achieve results. It has been connected with job performance, task performance, job dedication and interpersonal facilitation by Dudley (2006). From a military context, the outcomes from defense and combative actions are dependent on the completion of tasks by military personnel at all levels. Leaders play a critical role in the success of a mission, hence they need to strive to achieve goals and complete the planned tasks.

Grit is having the perseverance and passion to achieve long-term goals. Duckworth et al. (2007) contrive grit as being made up of two facets. One of these is consistency of interests for long term goals. The other side of grit is perseverance of effort. In the military setting, operations must continually adapt to the changes in a dynamic situation. To accomplish tasks successfully, leaders, especially, will need both to persevere in the face of setbacks and to maintain focus through the unexpected events that occur in military operations.

POS has been shown to serve as a moderator of important relationships. Simosi (2012) found that POS moderated relationships between supervisor support and coworker support as well as training transfer and affective commitment in new hires. They observed that POS strengthened the positive relationships between those variables. Jain, Giga, and Cooper (2013) found that POS moderated the negative relationship between organizational stressors and

organizational citizenship behavior in their study of call center operators. Suazo and Stone-Romero (2011) found POS to be a moderator in relationships involving the outcomes of psychological contract breach. Counter to their hypothesis, they observed that higher POS increased the likelihood of the negative outcomes to psychological contract breach.

In our prior study, we did not find that hardiness was directly related to the LDAC leadership indicators unless it was moderated by cynicism. It may occur, similarly, that POS will moderate the relationship between hardiness and leadership performance. We conjecture that when POS is high, a person (the army officer) will allow their inherent hardiness to even further increase their level of commitment to their [military] leadership function which, then, will be reflected in their leadership effectiveness. When POS is low, on the other hand, the relationship between hardiness and leadership performance will be weaker or might not exist at all.

H2: POS will moderate the relationship between hardiness and leadership performance, such that the relationship will be stronger when POS is high and weaker when POS is low.

We previously found that achievement striving did have a direct effect on the *communicates* attribute of leadership. Additionally, we found a relationship between achievement striving and the leadership attribute *develops others*, when moderated by cynicism. Similarly, we fathom that POS may moderate the relationship between achievement striving and leadership effectiveness. When leaders believe that there is a reciprocal relationship with the organization, they will be more likely to direct their internal drive toward their organizational obligations resulting in better observed leadership performance. Consequently, we hypothesize the following:

H3: POS will moderate the relationship between achievement striving and leadership performance such that the relationship will be stronger when POS is high and weaker when POS is low.

Similar to achievement striving, in our prior study we discovered that grit-perseverance was directly related to the *communicates* attribute of leadership and was moderated in its relationship with *develops others* depending on the level of cynicism. Grit-consistency did not show any relationships to the LDAC leadership outcomes. We suspect that POS may also play a role in how grit affects leadership performance. A leader who believes the organization will recognize and reward their efforts will draw on their innate perseverance and ability to maintain a consistent effort to complete tasks will be revealed in their leadership effectiveness.

H4: POS will moderate the relationship between grit and leadership performance such that the relationship will be stronger when POS is high and weaker when POS is low.

METHODOLOGY

In this section we discuss the measures used to test the model, provide an overview of the data collection process, and present the methods used for the statistical analysis. Note that the behavior and attitude measures came from surveys conducted as part of another research project.

For brevity in this article we refer readers to Gabriel et al. (2016) and Jordan et al. (2015) for the details about the data collection process.

Measures

Hardiness, achievement striving, grit (consistency and perseverance) and perceived organization support (POS) are multi-item scales. The data for these was obtained in a prior study of cadets when attempting to understand the likelihood of a cadet to contract for professional military service (Gabriel et al., 2016; Jordan et al., 2015). The scales for these measures were adopted from established research literature. Table 1 provides the literature source for the scales and the reliabilities for these five variables.

Table 1
Scale Reliabilities

Scale	Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Source
Hardiness	7	0.924	Bartone (2001)
Achievement Striving	10	0.887	Mount & Barrick (1995)
Grit-Consistency	6	0.843	Duckwoth et al. (2007)
Grit-Perseverance	6	0.792	Duckwoth et al. (2007)
Perceive Organization Support	10	0.902	Eisenberger, Huntington, & Hutchison (1986)

The LDAC instrument provides a systematic set of indicators to evaluate leadership potential within ROTC and Corps of Cadet programs. Those single item ratings are assessed at one of three levels – *excellent*, *satisfactory*, and *unsatisfactory*. Trained evaluators are used to assess the leadership traits exhibited by cadet trainees at Leadership camp through these LDAC items. We adopt the LDAC indicators as our dependent variables.

During the initial review of the data for each variable, we found that only three cadets earned *unsatisfactory* ratings. These were all pertaining to only one of the leadership indicators. We considered these to be extremely unique among all the ratings recorded in the sample data, therefore we judged these to be outliers. Consequently, all remaining ratings were either satisfactory or excellent and the indicators were then dichotomous. Of the 26 leadership indicators nine contained ratings of satisfactory for every cadet. These nine indicators were dropped from the analysis because there no variation in outcomes to measure. The indicators that were dropped were *loyalty*, *duty*, *respect*, *selfless service*, *honor*, *integrity*, *personal courage*, *empathy*, and *warrior ethos*. Additionally, *extends influence*, and *creates a positive environment* were not scored for any observations in our sample and these indicators were not analyzed. Of the 26 LDAC leadership indicators, 15 indicators could be analyzed in this study.

Sample Data

The sample utilized responses to surveys for the trait and moderator variables (Jordan et al., 2015) that had been previously conducted. We summarize the survey process as follows. Each fall, all newly enrolled cadets from the military program at one university completed the survey. In the following spring the same survey data was collected from arbitrarily selected cadets at all academic ranks (freshman through senior).

A Freedom of Information Act (FOIA) request was submitted to the Department of Defense to obtain the LDAC data. The LDAC indicator ratings were matched to the survey responses for each cadet where matches existed. After cleansing of the merged data and the deletion of the indicator categories mentioned previously, there were 144 complete and usable responses. Table 2 reports the demographic summary for cadets making up research pool.

Table 2
Participant Demographics

Gender		Academic Year when Survey Completed	
Male	87.9%	Freshman	48.2%
Female	12.1%	Sophomore	10.6%
		Junior	21.3%
		Senior	19.9%

Multicollinearity of the sample was assessed by analyzing bivariate correlations and reviewing variance inflation factors (VIF). VIFs were produced in diagnostic regression runs that excluded the interaction terms, because, by their nature, the interactions share variance with the interacting variables. VIFs in these diagnostics were well below 2 for all models which we interpreted, based on Belsley et al. (1980), to mean that multicollinearity will not affect the regression results.

Hypothesis Testing

Logistical regression was used since the LDAC leadership effectiveness indicators were binary. Logistic regression estimates the probability that a predictor or predictors will associate with a certain bivariate result. The results should produce probability estimates that the behavioral trait variables (hardiness, achievement striving, and grit) and their interaction with POS, would predict excellence for a given LDAC leadership indicator.

To test the individual effects of each of our four behavioral characteristic variables, a series of multiple logistic regressions were performed on each LDAC leadership indicator. Subsequently, a separate model was run that included the behavioral trait, POS, and the interaction between the two to test for moderation.

RESULTS

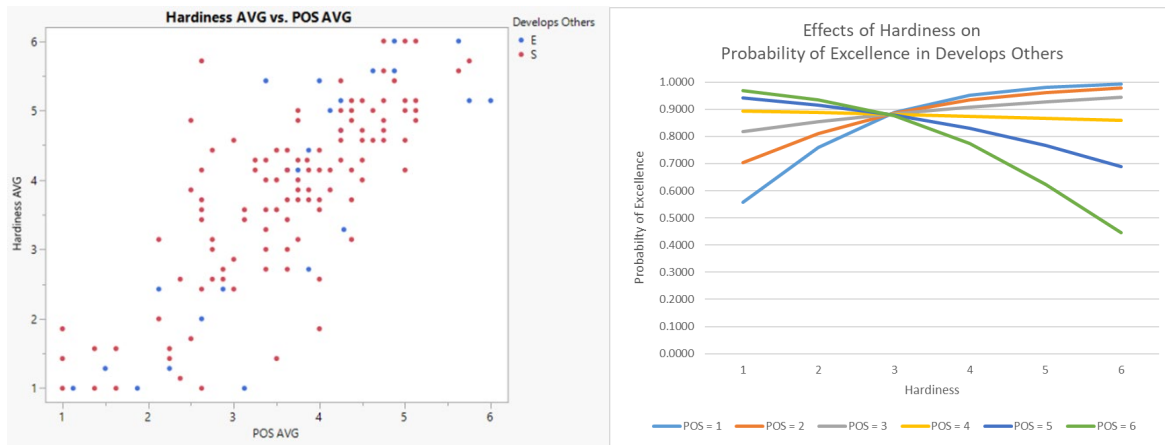
For only one of the LDAC indicators was there a moderation model with statistical significance. POS did not have a significant effect on any leadership indicator on its own. Hypothesis H1 was not supported. Only hypothesis H2 obtained partial support. The regression model testing the effect of hardiness as moderated by POS on the leadership indicator *Develops Others* had a p-value of 0.086 with a R^2 of 0.079. The regression results are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3
Regression Results

Leadership Trait = Develops Others						
	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
H	1.256	0.538	5.455	1	0.020	3.513
POS	0.964	0.593	2.645	1	0.104	2.621
H*POS	-0.330	0.131	6.310	1	0.012	0.719
Constant	-1.662	1.482	1.259	1	0.262	

Because the interaction term's coefficient is the opposite direction than the main effects coefficient, there appears to be a "crossover" effect due to the moderation. Figure 1 displays the scatter plot of responses and our analysis of the crossover effect of the moderation of POS on hardiness. In the crossover plot, the predicted logits were converted to probabilities and then plotted against increasing levels of achievement striving (Likert scale points 1 through 6). From the scatter plot we noted that when POS is high (scores ≥ 5), hardiness was never observed to be below 4. Likewise, when POS was low (≤ 2), there were no occurrences where hardiness was above 2. Because of this, we were skeptical of interpreting those regression estimates for values in those ranges for hardiness and POS variables. Regardless, we observed that when cadets had perceived a low level of support from the Corps as an organization (response of 3 or below), higher levels of hardiness increased the probability that cadets demonstrate excellence for the *develops others* measure. However, when cadets perceived more support, the effect of hardiness was reversed such that higher levels of hardiness yielded lower likelihood of showing excellence on *develops others*.

Figure 1
The Effect of Hardiness as Moderated by POS for Develops Others



DISCUSSION

Our data analysis demonstrates partial support for the hypothesized effects and the overarching question of how POS may influence military leadership outcomes. However, the findings are an interesting addition to the conversation about POS and leadership. Our prior analyses (Teasley et al., 2021) demonstrated direct effects of achievement striving and grit perseverance on various leadership outcomes, but no direct effects for hardiness or cynicism. However, the moderating interaction of hardiness and cynicism was significant in that analysis for both the *communicates* and *develops others* leadership indicators. Similarly, in the present analysis, both hardiness and POS failed to demonstrate independent effects on leadership, but their interaction showed significant moderating outcomes on the LRM leadership indicator *develops others*.

We expected the moderating effect that POS had on hardiness to operate monotonically across the range of POS to create a consistent, linear effect (Schoonhoven, 1981). Instead, the interaction term produced a crossover result that modulated the actual direction of the relationship between hardiness and leadership performance. For cadets who had low POS, greater levels of hardiness resulted in higher leadership performance. On the other hand, for cadets who had high perceptions of POS, greater levels of hardiness resulted in lower leadership performance. The crossover draws unique inferences about the nature of hardiness, its potential relationships with the POS moderator, as well as the resultant leadership outcome.

As a psychological trait, hardiness entails a level of stress reaction, coping, social interaction, and care for oneself (Maddi, 2002). In the case of military leaders this caring could extend in various ways to a leader's chain of subordinate command. The POS of military supervisors might accentuate their personal stress levels to induce corresponding resource actions that most effectively support or develop their own subordinates. We believe this would

apply correspondingly to supervisors and managers in non-military organizations. Managers, similar to these military officers, as “middlemen” in the support chain, would buffer their own perceptions by applying as-needed support to assure the productivity and organizational well-being of their subordinates (Wo et al., 2015). After evaluating the provision for resources and emotional support given by the upper hierarchy, middlemen may adjust their own allocation according to the abundance of their own supply and perception of organizational support.

This perspective is enlightened by prior research noting “trickle-down effects” of supervisor-subordinate job relationships (Woznyj et al., 2017). To the extent that supervisors lead and motivate others, they fulfill roles requiring them to coordinate both above and below them in their organizational chain of responsibility (Gentry and Shanock, 2008). Supervisors are responsible not only for their own performance but for that of their subordinates as well, regardless of available resource levels. Military leaders are a unique variety of supervisor that should be especially keen to their subordinate responsibilities given their operation in life-threatening combat scenarios.

Literature suggests that effective supervisors assure subordinate commitment to the strategies, innovation, and change efforts of their organizations (Gentry and Sosik, 2010). Subordinate motivation, to a degree, depends upon perceptions of the extrinsic and intrinsic support from its supervisory command (Kurtessis, et al., 2015). The trickle-down logic implies conduit-like, in-role supervisory tasks (Woznyj et al., 2017) that military officers would conduct to ensure subordinates believe that the greater organization both values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Therefore, in-role actions of cadet leaders should bridge their own perceptions of organizational support with balanced reactions to support or nurture subordinates in their own roles.

The idea that POS “activates” a leader’s hardiness in a bi-directional manner illuminates supervisory bridging roles as adjusting resource allocations to the perceived needs of subordinates. Hence, our evidence suggests that trickle-down choices may be contingent upon supervisors’ perception of upstream resource availability coupled with their understanding of subordinate support requirements. This contingent view depicts a supervisor or military leader dedicating more effort to develop others in situations of scarcity, and more constrained efforts to do so in abundant organizational environments.

Such depiction of military supervision reflects a contingent or situational theory of leadership (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982) where effective leaders strategically pivot their behaviors to match specific situations at hand. Indeed, our findings reveal situational leaders striving to enhance unit performance by matching subordinate needs with developmental resources on an as-needed basis. While this situational approach is not consistent with our hypotheses, it demonstrates that leaders may be more efficient and effective by tailoring their developmental decisions to the organizational fit. It further implies that in their trickle-down position in the organizational resource chain, supervisors should act in a contingency manner to moderate the flow levels of support for their subordinates.

While our findings seem counter-intuitive at first glance, deeper analysis reveals an interesting perspective of supervisory leadership as related to the trickle-down nature of POS. This perspective warrants additional research on the multilevel nature of resource allocation and

motivational aspects of intangible benefits throughout the chain of command. The “middle man” effect of supervisors deserves clarity of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) in the sense that supervisors repay POS not only through organizational commitment and in-role performance, but also by assuring subordinate productivity and motivation for organizational well-being (Wo et al., 2015). We particularly suggest interrogation of these matters in the military context where bureaucracies are pronounced and the stakes of performance are high. Practically, military institutions promote a unique style of leadership as compared to most organizational forms, and supervisory conduct is instrumental to battlefield success. Better understanding the moderating effects of supervisor attitudes, motivations, and dedication can be profound to achieving the challenging goals of military landscapes.

REFERENCES

- Bartone, Paul. (2001). Leader development programs and research at the U.S. Military Academy, West Point. Presented at the American Psychological Association Annual Convention, San Francisco, CA.
- Bartone, P. T. (2006). Resilience Under Military Operational Stress: Can Leaders Influence Hardiness? *Military Psychology*, 18(sup1), S131–S148. http://doi:10.1207/s15327876mp1803s_10.
- Belsley, D. A., Kuh, E., & Welsch, R. E. (1980). Regression diagnostics: Identifying influential data and sources of collinearity. Wiley. <https://doi.org/10.1002/0471725153>
- Blau, P. M. (2017). Exchange and Power in Social Life. <https://doi:10.4324/9780203792643>.
- Dudley, N. M., Orvis, K. A., Lebiecki, J. E., & Cortina, J. M. (2006). A meta-analytic investigation of conscientiousness in the prediction of job performance: Examining the intercorrelations and the incremental validity of narrow traits. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(1), 40-57. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.91.1.40>
- Duckworth, A. L., Peterson, C., Matthews, M. D., & Kelly, D. R. (2007). Grit: Perseverance and passion for long-term goals. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 92(6), 1087- 1101. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.92.6.1087>
- Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986), Perceived organizational support, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71 (3), 500-507. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.71.3.500>.
- Gabriel, T. J., Teasley, R., Walker, W. J., Schraeder, M., & Jordan, M. H. (2016). The "Corps" of the matter: An illustration of collaborative engagement for organizational development. *Organization Development Journal*; Chesterland, 34(3), 25-42. <https://doi.org/10.1108/cdi-05-2013-0071>.
- Gentry, W. A., & Shanock, L. R. (2008). Views of managerial derailment from above and below: The importance of a good relationship with upper management and putting people at ease. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 38, 2469–2494. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.2008.00400.x>.
- Gentry, W. A., & Sosik, J. J. (2010). Developmental relationships and managerial promotability in organizations: A multisource study. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 77, 266–278. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2010.04.010.
- Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1982). *Management of organizational behavior*. Prentice Hall.
- Jain, A., Giga, S., & Cooper, C. (2013), “Perceived organizational support as a moderator of the relationship between stress and organizational citizenship behaviors”, *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, Vol. 21 No. 3, pp. 313-334. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ijoa-mar-2012-0574>.
- Jordan, M. H., Gabriel, T. J., Teasley, R., Walker, W. J., & Schraeder, M. (2015). An integrative approach to identifying factors related to long-term career commitments. *Career Development International*; Bradford, 20(2), 163-178. <https://doi.org/10.1108/CDI-05-2013-0071>
- Kurtessis, J. N., Eisenberger, R., Ford, M. T., Buffardi, L. C., Stewart, K. A., & Adis, C. S. (2015). Perceived organizational support: A meta-analytic evaluation of organizational support theory. *Journal of Management*. doi:10.1177/0149206315575554

- Maddi, S.R. (2002). The story of hardiness: Twenty years of theorizing, research, and practice. *Consulting Psychology Journal* 54(3), 173-185. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1061-4087.54.3.173>.
- Mount, M. K., & Barrick, M. R. (1995). The Big Five personality dimensions: Implications for research and practice in human resources management. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, 13(3), 153-200. [https://doi.org/10.1108/s0742-7301\(2012\)0000031012](https://doi.org/10.1108/s0742-7301(2012)0000031012).
- Schoonhoven, L. (1981). Problems with contingency theory: testing assumptions hidden within the language of contingency “theory”. *Administrative Science Quarterly* 26(3), 349-377. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2392512>
- Simosi, M. (2012), “The moderating role of self-efficacy in the organizational culture-training transfer relationship”, *International Journal of Training and Development*, Vol. 16 No. 2, pp. 92-106. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2419.2011.00396.x>.
- Suazo, M., & Stone-Romero, E. (2011), “Implications of psychological contract breach: a perceived organizational support perspective”, *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, Vol. 26 No. 5, pp. 366-382. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02683941111138994>.
- Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived organizational support: a review of the literature. *Journal of applied psychology*, 87(4), 698. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.87.4.698>.
- U.S. Army. (2012). ADP 6-22 Army Leadership Army Doctrine Publication. Retrieved from https://usacac.army.mil/sites/default/files/misc/doctrine/CDG/cdg_resources/manuals/adp/adp6_22_new.pdf#page=11
- Teasley, R., Walker, W., Gabriel, T. J., Rifenburg, M. (2021). Leadership Effectiveness in Military Settings: The Moderating Effects of Cynicism. *Organization Development Journal*; Chesterland.
- Wo, D., Ambrose, M., & Schminke, M. (2015). What drives trickledown effects? A test of multiple mediation processes. *Academy of Management Journal*, 58(6), 1848–1868. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2013.0670>.
- Woznyj, H., Dunn, A., Shanock, L., Heggstad, E., Ordonez, Z. and B. Urich (2017). How far can support go? Supported supervisors’ performance and subordinate dedication. *Journal of Business Psychology* 32, 627-639. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-016-9472-7>.

ANTECEDENTS OF MARKET ORIENTATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION: EMPIRICAL RESULTS FROM FOUR KEY INFORMANT PERSPECTIVES

Kevin L. Hammond, The University of Tennessee at Martin
Robert L. Webster, Ouachita Baptist University
Nathan L. Hammond, Mississippi State University

ABSTRACT

This study examines the possible impact of selected antecedents (interdepartmental conflict, university administration emphasis, reward system) on individual components (customer orientation, competitor orientation, interfunctional coordination) of market orientation toward students within higher education. Prior research is extended and the variable relationships are examined from four different department chair perspectives (accounting chairs, marketing chairs, males, females).

Intelligence is gathered from survey research using existing scales reworded and validated for higher education. Research objectives and hypotheses are formed and hypotheses are tested using regression analyses to examine the variable relationships for each group of respondents.

Regression results support all hypotheses, with one or more of the selected antecedents shown to significantly impact each of the three market orientation components within each of the four groups that were examined. Regression results were different for each group of key informants.

Results have implications within higher education but also add to existing theory (Kohli and Jaworski 1990), and support concerns by Phillips (1981) and others regarding attentiveness in future research to key informant characteristics such as title and gender.

INTRODUCTION

Market orientation and its positive impact on organizational performance have been explored within the marketing literature, for a variety of business and nonbusiness settings, for decades (Felton, 1959; Kotler and Levy, 1969a; 1969b; Barksdale and Darden, 1971; Lusch and Laczniak, 1987; Hayes, 1989; Miller et al., 1990; Agarwal et al., 2003). The term market orientation refers to the extent that firms achieve the implementation of the marketing concept (McCarthy and Perreault, 1984). From these authors and others, especially Kohli and Jaworski (1990) and Narver and Slater (1990), the marketing concept is described as a philosophy that engenders coordinated organization-wide behaviors and activities aimed at gathering and disseminating information about the marketplace (customers and competitors), then acting on that information. The authors listed above, and others, provide theoretical and empirical support

that implementation of the marketing concept leads generally to higher levels of performance for organizations.

Part of a larger effort, this manuscript builds on previous research within the context of higher education that demonstrates a positive impact of market orientation toward university students on university performance. Note that, importantly, in their efforts toward guiding higher education practitioners toward strategies that lead to higher levels of quality and performance, Baldrige Performance Excellence Program (2019) specifically identifies students as the main customers of higher education (in addition to employers, parents, and others). This research provides an examination of the possible impact of selected antecedents of market orientation (interdepartmental conflict, management emphasis on market orientation, reward system orientation) suggested by Kohli and Jaworski (1990) on each of the three market orientation components (customer orientation, competitor orientation, interfunctional coordination) identified by Narver and Slater (1990). Extending theoretical and empirical research by Kohli and Jaworski (1990), Jaworski and Kohli (1993), and Hammond et al., (2006), the proposed causal relationships are examined within the context of students, within higher education.

Jaworski and Kohli (1993) provide empirical support for the proposed causal relationships in the case of businesses. Hammond et al., (2006) report significant correlations between management emphasis on student market orientation and the student market orientation components in the case of higher education. We seek to extend research into the selected antecedents of market orientation in higher education while also examining differences in perspective between groups of key informants.

Following suggestions from Phillips (1981) and Jaworski et al., (1993), the possible impact of selected key informant (respondent) characteristics on the results is considered within this study. The overall group of department chairs is split by title of the respondent, creating two segments (accounting department chairs and marketing department chairs). The overall group is then split by gender, creating an additional two segments (male department chairs and female department chairs). Acknowledging that each of the segments may exemplify a different perspective on the variables and relationships within the study, descriptive statistics and regression results are reported for each of the four groups, as defined by title and by gender. Phillips also suggests that organizational characteristics may influence results, and previous survey research within higher education business schools has indicated that responses may vary depending on accrediting body affiliation. Accordingly, this manuscript focuses on AACSB university business schools only.

Previous research results are thus revisited and extended to include an analysis of the four key informant perspectives described above regarding the causal relationships surrounding market orientation within higher education. While the primary focus of this research is on those differing perspectives, some of the variables and variable relationships included in this study provide new knowledge as well, not included in earlier research within higher education. We consult t-tests and compare regression results as we consider similarities and differences in judgement of variables and variable relationships between groups of informants.

This research specifically extends theory and findings developed and presented by Phillips (1981), Kohli and Jaworski (1990), and Jaworski et al., (1993). Survey questions are

employed that were initially developed and used by Narver and Slater (1990), Jaworski and Kohli (1993), and Slater and Narver (1994), reworded in the context of university business schools (Hammond et al., 2006). Academic department chairs of AACSB member schools serve as key informants (survey respondents). Department chairs are chosen as the key informants because of their unique position within the higher education hierarchy in most AACSB member business schools. The department chairs have administrative duties that require them to interact with other administrators such as deans and vice-presidents of academic affairs, but unlike these other administrators, most department chairs also teach student classes. Accordingly, due to this combination of roles, department chairs may develop insights toward behaviors and actions of the university that are unique and somewhat different from other faculty members and from other administrators.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Examining literature surrounding the marketing concept and market orientation, and conducting interviews with practitioners and academics, Kohli and Jaworski (1990) describe market orientation in terms of a set of activities and processes that create a “distinct form of sustainable competitive advantage” (p. 17). More specifically, they define market orientation as the extent that organizations incorporate “the organizationwide generation, dissemination, and responsiveness to market intelligence” (p. 3). Kohli and Jaworski (1990) developed a measure of market orientation based on three components (intelligence generation, intelligence dissemination, responsiveness to intelligence), provided an extensive model and propositions surrounding potential antecedents and consequences of market orientation, and followed up with subsequent articles (Jaworski and Kohli, 1993; Kohli et al., 1993) that incorporate their measures and test much of the theory. Jaworski and Kohli (1993) report empirical results that support the hypothesized positive impact of several antecedents (top management emphasis on market orientation, interdepartmental connectedness, reward system orientation toward the market) and the hypothesized negative impact of others (top management risk aversion, interdepartmental conflict, centralization of decision making) on at least one component (intelligence generation, intelligence dissemination, responsiveness) of market orientation. Interestingly, Kohli et al. (1993) note that informant characteristics may influence perception; differences in informants may be important in the measurement of market orientation. They take steps to identify and separate executives in their study, classifying the respondents as either marketing or non-marketing. Results reported in the study demonstrated differences in perception between marketing and non-marketing executives.

Narver and Slater (1990) refer to market orientation as “the organization culture . . . that most effectively and efficiently creates the necessary behaviors for the creation of superior value for buyers and, thus, continuous superior performance” (p. 21). Similarly to Kohli and Jaworski (1990), Narver and Slater built on existing literature and interviews to define market orientation in terms of three behavioral component parts (customer orientation, competitor orientation, interfunctional coordination). They developed scales for each component based on the extent that the organization exhibits certain behaviors and explain that the activities described by Kohli and

Jaworski (intelligence generation, intelligence dissemination, responsiveness) are also included in their scales. Narver and Slater propose those component scales and an overall market orientation scale for use in future research efforts. Several subsequent studies (Narver et al., 1992; Slater and Narver, 1994; Jaworski and Kohli, 1996; Narver et al., 1998; Agarwal et al., 2003) have referenced the Narver and Slater (1990) and Kohli and Jaworski (1990) studies and have employed the measures for further empirical investigation of theory surrounding the marketing concept and market orientation in a variety of contexts.

Importantly, as initially encouraged by Kotler and Levy (1969a; 1969b), researchers and practitioners have expanded the breadth of marketing beyond the limits of business applications. A natural part of that effort is that research and practice continues to test the boundaries of theory surrounding the marketing concept, described by Jaworski and Kohli (1993) as “a cornerstone of marketing thought” (p. 54), expanding the application well beyond business contexts to include a variety of non-profit settings. A firm understanding of the application and benefits of market orientation may be as important today as ever in a wide variety of contexts, given the increasing availability of market data surrounding customers and competitors. An appropriate emphasis within organizations on data analytics and the use of that data to provide greater value to customers and other stakeholders would presumably improve performance for the more market-oriented organizations.

Several authors (Hammond et al., 2006; Hemsley-Brown and Oplatka, 2010; Webster et al., 2010, 2014; Ma and Todorovic, 2011; Arifin, 2016) have extended market orientation research by examining the application within the context of higher education. Hammond et al. (2006) successfully reworded and extended the Narver and Slater (1990) scale to higher education, noting importantly that many of the propositions of the respected Baldrige National Quality Program “Baldrige Education Criteria for Performance Excellence” are encapsulated in the organizational behaviors and activities within the components of the scale. More recently, perhaps in response to the earlier articles, interest in the application of market orientation in higher education has expanded globally to include studies from Lithuania (Carlos and Rodrigues, 2012), India (Baber et al., 2015), Poland and Australia (Rynca and Ziaecian, 2015), South Africa (Mokoena and Manilall, 2017), and others.

As noted above, this research also continues to expand the study to potential differences in perception (Campbell, 1955; Phillips, 1981) based on informant characteristics such as title or gender. As noted above, Jaworski et al. (1993) highlighted differences in perception based on title. Gender studies have become more mainstream in the academic and practitioner literature as more women have entered the professional workforce in both business and higher education. Gray’s (1992) popular book titled *Men are from Mars and Women are from Venus* may arguably have helped to spark this increased interest in gender studies within business and higher education. Examples of past articles on gender differences include findings by Marz et al. (2003) that gender affects managers’ social orientation. Also, Webster et al. (2004) found differences in expressions of self-confidence in financial analysis, and Brahnham (2005) found gender differences in conflict resolution methods. Additional gender studies include ethical judgments (Marta et al., 2008; Lund, 2008), differences in dealing with competition (Cotton et al., 2015), and differences in male and female decision making (Caprino, 2016).

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

Two general research objectives are developed, and multiple hypotheses are formed for testing each objective. As introduced above and explained further in the methodology section, the research objectives follow from theory and empirical results published by Kohli and Jaworski (1990), Jaworski and Kohli (1993), and Hammond et al. (2006). The objectives also incorporate results from Phillips (1981) and Jaworski et al. (1993) regarding differences in informant judgements of organizational behavior based on informant characteristics.

Specifically, both objectives and all hypotheses include the examination of the possible impact of selected antecedents (interdepartmental conflict, management emphasis on market orientation, reward system orientation) on market orientation within the context of higher education, focusing on the student market within AACSB-accredited business schools. The Narver and Slater (1990) conceptualization of market orientation is employed with the three market orientation components of customer orientation, competitor orientation, and interfunctional coordination. As outlined in the methodology section, all scales are reworded to apply toward students within higher education (Hammond et al., 2006). Accordingly, each hypothesis formed and described below focuses on one of the three components of student market orientation as the dependent variable and the proposed antecedents as independent variables. The hypotheses are tested with regression analyses.

Objective 1: Splitting the total group of respondents into two groups based on title (accounting department chairs, marketing department chairs), examine the impact of selected antecedents on market orientation toward students within higher education for each of the two groups and then compare results for the two groups.

As noted above, following suggestions by Phillips (1981) and Jaworski et al. (1993), informants are split into two groups based on title (accounting department chairs or marketing department chairs) of the respondents. The university department chair respondents (marketing and accounting) are not a perfect match for the executives (marketing and non-marketing) surveyed in the Jaworski et al. (1993) study, but the title differences may create similarly different judgments of the organizational behaviors and activities. Though background and education vary considerably among department chairs that are responsible for the marketing discipline (usually along with other disciplines in the department), they may arguably be more likely (than accounting department chairs) to be aware of the market directed behaviors under investigation. Relationships between the variables, then, are anticipated to be somewhat different based on differences in title (as empirically demonstrated by Jaworski et al. (1993)).

Each of the hypotheses outlined within this objective includes all of the proposed antecedents (interdepartmental conflict, management emphasis on market orientation, reward system orientation), and focuses on one of the three components of student market orientation for respondents that are either accounting department chairs or marketing department chairs. Impact of each antecedent variable is hypothesized as either positive or negative based on previous

research by Kohli and Jaworski (1990), Jaworski and Kohli (1993), and Hammond et al. (2006). The resulting six hypotheses are presented below.

As determined by accounting department chair knowledge and judgement of organizational behaviors and actions within AACSB-accredited business schools,

(H1) The customer orientation component of student market orientation is impacted (a) negatively by interdepartmental conflict within the university business school, (b) positively by university administration emphasis on student market orientation, and (c) positively by reward system orientation toward students.

(H2) The competitor orientation component of student market orientation is impacted (a) negatively by interdepartmental conflict within the university business school, (b) positively by university administration emphasis on student market orientation, and (c) positively by reward system orientation toward students.

(H3) The interfunctional coordination component of student market orientation is impacted (a) negatively by interdepartmental conflict within the university business school, (b) positively by university administration emphasis on student market orientation, and (c) positively by reward system orientation toward students.

As determined by marketing department chair knowledge and judgement of organizational behaviors and actions within AACSB-accredited business schools,

(H4) The customer orientation component of student market orientation is impacted (a) negatively by interdepartmental conflict within the university business school, (b) positively by university administration emphasis on student market orientation, and (c) positively by reward system orientation toward students.

(H5) The competitor orientation component of student market orientation is impacted (a) negatively by interdepartmental conflict within the university business school, (b) positively by university administration emphasis on student market orientation, and (c) positively by reward system orientation toward students.

(H6) The interfunctional coordination component of student market orientation is impacted (a) negatively by interdepartmental conflict within the university business school, (b) positively by university administration emphasis on student market orientation, and (c) positively by reward system orientation toward students.

Objective 2: Splitting the total group of respondents into two groups based on gender (males and females), examine the impact of selected antecedents on market orientation toward students within higher education for each of the two groups and then compare results for the two groups.

As described above, gender is the second key informant characteristic to be examined in this study. As noted above, interest seems to be growing steadily in gender studies and several research efforts demonstrate the influence of gender on perceptions of professionals.

Findings have indicated that gender affects managers' social orientation (Marz et al., 2003), and gender differences exist between expressions of self-confidence in financial analysis (Webster et al., 2004) and methods of conflict resolution (Brahnam, 2005). Additional gender studies address ethical judgments (Marta et al., 2008; Lund, 2008) and differences in dealing with competition (Cotton et al., 2015).

As determined by male department chair knowledge and judgement of organizational behaviors and actions within AACSB-accredited business schools,

(H7) The customer orientation component of student market orientation is impacted (a) negatively by interdepartmental conflict within the university business school, (b) positively by university administration emphasis on student market orientation, and (c) positively by reward system orientation toward students.

(H8) The competitor orientation component of student market orientation is impacted (a) negatively by interdepartmental conflict within the university business school, (b) positively by university administration emphasis on student market orientation, and (c) positively by reward system orientation toward students.

(H9) The interfunctional coordination component of student market orientation is impacted (a) negatively by interdepartmental conflict within the university business school, (b) positively by university administration emphasis on student market orientation, and (c) positively by reward system orientation toward students.

As determined by female department chair knowledge and judgement of organizational behaviors and actions within AACSB-accredited business schools,

(H10) The customer orientation component of student market orientation is impacted (a) negatively by interdepartmental conflict within the university business school, (b) positively by university administration emphasis on student market orientation, and (c) positively by reward system orientation toward students.

(H11) The competitor orientation component of student market orientation is impacted (a) negatively by interdepartmental conflict within the university business school, (b) positively by university administration emphasis on student market orientation, and (c) positively by reward system orientation toward students.

(H12) The interfunctional coordination component of student market orientation is impacted (a) negatively by interdepartmental conflict within the university business school, (b) positively by university administration emphasis on student market orientation, and (c) positively by reward system orientation toward students.

METHODOLOGY

Data for the study were collected by way of a mailed survey. Surveys were mailed to 1538 department chairs of AACSB member schools located in the United States, with a follow-up mailing a few weeks later. As key informants (Campbell, 1955; Kumar et al., 1993), the department chairs were asked to complete the surveys and return them in business reply

envelopes that were provided. Of the total survey instruments mailed, 198 were returned and 195 (13%) were completed sufficiently and included in the analyses by title; 194 (13%) were included in the analyses by gender. All survey items were measured with a seven-point response scale, ranging from one (1) “not at all” to seven (7) “to an extreme extent.” The survey questions inquired regarding organizational behaviors and activities.

Narver and Slater’s (1990) market orientation (MKTOR) scale (described above) consists of several questions addressing specific behaviors and activities that measure the extent that the organization applies the marketing concept. Three subscales are used in this study to measure the market orientation components (customer orientation, competitor orientation, interfunctional coordination) using questions reworded for university business schools by Hammond et al. (2006). In spite of suggestions by Ma and Todorovic (2011), we choose this scale that envisions students as the primary customers of higher education (as also suggested by Baldrige Performance Excellence Program).

University administration emphasis on student market orientation is measured using the Jaworski and Kohli (1993) top management emphasis scale as reworded for higher education by Hammond et al. (2006). Similarly, the interdepartmental conflict scale items from Jaworski and Kohli (1993) are reworded and employed within this study. We were able to reword and use only four of the original six reward system orientation items from the Jaworski and Kohli (1993) of study. The items used (which describe four aspects of reward systems that are oriented externally, toward the market) describe the extent that the business school exhibits a faculty/staff focus on competition, use of student surveys for evaluating faculty, strength of student relationships for evaluating faculty, and use of student assessments to influence administrators’ pay. Two of the original reward system items were discarded as inapplicable to the higher education context.

All scales are subjected to reliability analysis and exploratory factor analysis prior to further analysis (Churchill, 1979; Peter, 1979). The four reward system orientation items demonstrate poor scale reliability (Cronbach’s Alpha .405 and item-to-total correlations from .117 to .466) and unsatisfactory factor loadings (two items with loadings below .40). All other proposed scales demonstrate strong Cronbach’s Alpha scores (Table 1) and satisfactory factor loadings ranging from .40 to .77.

Variables / Items	Item-to-Total Corr.	Alpha	CFA Regression Weights and Model Fit
Student Market Orientation Customer Orientation Component (Scale)		.779	
Student satisfaction objectives	.392		.450
Measure student satisfaction	.368		.400
Create student value	.611		.700
Student commitment	.676		.780
After-enrollment service	.528		.646
Understand student needs	.613		.688

TABLE 1			
Reliability Statistics and Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results			
Variables / Items	Item-to-Total Corr.	Alpha	CFA Regression Weights and Model Fit
Competitor Orientation Component (Scale)		.759	
Student recruiters share competitor information	.489		.546
Respond rapidly to competitors' actions	.642		.776
Administrators discuss competitors' strategies	.603		.707
Target opportunities for competitive advantage	.495		.654
Interfunctional Coordination Component (Scale)		.756	
Entire institution contributes to student value	.604		.704
Staff and faculty meet with prospective students	.478		.486
Functional integration in strategy	.550		.597
Information shared among functions	.452		.613
Share resources with other units	.528		.644
			df=84, N=194 CMIN/DF=1.845 (p .000) SRMR=.0572 TLI=.913, CFI=.931, IFI=.932 RMSEA=.066 (.050-.082)
Interdepartmental Conflict (Scale)		.817	
Most departments get along well (reverse scored)	.669		.823
When members of several depts. get together, tensions frequently run high	.431		.414
People generally dislike interacting with other depts.	.633		.696
Faculty/staff feel that goals of departments are in harmony (reverse scored)	.523		.589
Little or no interdepartmental conflict (reverse scored)	.562		.634
	.541		.504
Protecting departmental turf is a way of life	.552		.542
Department objectives are incompatible with other depts.			df=9, N=194 CMIN/DF=4.612 (p .000) SRMR=.0566 TLI=.838, CFI=.930, IFI=.932 RMSEA=.137 (.096-.180)
Univ. Admin. Emphasis on Student MO (Scale)		.806	
Sensitive to activities of competitors	.604		.711
Gear up now for future needs of students	.722		.867
Serving students is important	.555		.619
Adapting to market trends	.609		.664
			df=2, N=194 CMIN/DF=2.488 SRMR=.0271 TLI=.963, CFI=.988, IFI=.988 RMSEA=.088 (.000-.188)

Subsequent calculation and examination of correlation coefficients for the reward system orientation items with the three proposed dependent variables indicate statistically significant correlations (significance .05 or better) for all four items with one or more of the proposed dependent variables. Based on these results and theory from Kohli and Jaworski (1990) and Jaworski and Kohli (1993), we include the items in the study as individual measures of certain aspects of reward systems that may impact student market orientation within higher education.

We employ SPSS-AMOS (Version 25) for confirmatory factor analyses (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Bagozzi and Yi, 1988) of the three remaining scales (student market orientation, interdepartmental conflict, university administration emphasis on student market orientation). Results (Table 1) indicate satisfactory factor loadings and generally acceptable to excellent model fit for the scales (Wheaton et al., 1977; Bentler and Bonett, 1980; Marsh and Hocevar, 1985; Bentler, 1990; Browne and Mels, 1992; Browne and Cudeck, 1993). Standardized regression weights are provided for each item (Table 1), along with relative chi-square (CMIN/DF), the comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), and incremental fit index. We also report the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) with its 90% confidence interval. The student market orientation model was conducted specifying the three components, allowing the components to correlate. The correlation coefficients ranged from .798 to .844, supporting convergent validity for the one-dimensional three component market orientation construct as determined by Narver and Slater (1990) and Hammond et al. (2006).

We proceed to provide descriptive statistics and t-tests as described below and in Table 2, to better understand differences that may exist in responses per informant group. We then address the objectives/hypotheses by calculating and examining regression analyses for twelve models (one for each hypothesis).

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics and Differences in Variable Means by Informant Group

Descriptive statistics are calculated and provided for all variables (Table 2), for respondents overall and for each of the four segments of respondents (split by title and by gender). Note that the 195 total respondents consist of 101 accounting department chairs and 94 marketing department chairs. Splitting total respondents by gender, the large majority were male (149 male; 46 female). Recall that these response scales range from a low of “1” to a high of “7,” with “4” as the midpoint. Note from the table that the mean responses for two variables (the customer orientation component of student market orientation; reward system use of student surveys for evaluating faculty) are above the midpoint overall and for each segment. Mean responses for all other variables are consistently near or below the midpoint overall and for each segment.

TABLE 2
Descriptive Statistics

	Mean (N) <i>Std Dev</i>
OVERALL SAMPLE	
Student Market Orientation - Customer Orientation	4.58 (195) .96
Student Market Orientation - Competitor Orientation	3.43 (195) 1.17
Student Market Orientation – Interfunctional Coordination	3.84 (195) 1.12
Interdepartmental Conflict	2.90 (195) 1.16
Univ. Admin. Emphasis on Student Market Orientation	3.66 (195) 1.29
Reward System Orientation toward Students	
- Faculty and Staff Focus on Competition (Q47)	3.44 (195) 1.53
- Use of Student Surveys for Evaluating Faculty (Q53)	5.73 (195) 1.67
- Strength of Student Relationships Used in Evaluating Faculty (Q65)	3.91 (195) 1.58
- Student Assessments Influence Administrators' Pay (Q74)	2.09 (195) 1.61
ACCOUNTING DEPARTMENT CHAIRS	
Student Market Orientation - Customer Orientation	4.44 (101) .98
Student Market Orientation - Competitor Orientation	3.38 (101) 1.28
Student Market Orientation – Interfunctional Coordination	3.70 (101) 1.16
Interdepartmental Conflict	3.03 (101) 1.08
Univ. Admin. Emphasis on Student Market Orientation	3.66 (101) 1.39
Reward System Orientation toward Students	
- Faculty and Staff Focus on Competition (Q47)	3.40 (101) 1.59
- Use of Student Surveys for Evaluating Faculty (Q53)	5.68 (101) 1.64
- Strength of Student Relationships Used in Evaluating Faculty (Q65)	3.81 (101) 1.60
- Student Assessments Influence Administrators' Pay (Q74)	2.04 (101) 1.52
MARKETING DEPARTMENT CHAIRS	
Student Market Orientation - Customer Orientation	4.73 (94) .91
Student Market Orientation - Competitor Orientation	3.48 (94) 1.03
Student Market Orientation – Interfunctional Coordination	3.99 (94) 1.07
Interdepartmental Conflict	2.76 (94) 1.24
Univ. Admin. Emphasis on Student Market Orientation	3.67 (94) 1.18
Reward System Orientation toward Students	
- Faculty and Staff Focus on Competition (Q47)	3.49 (94) 1.46
- Use of Student Surveys for Evaluating Faculty (Q53)	5.78 (94) 1.70
- Strength of Student Relationships Used in Evaluating Faculty (Q65)	4.02 (94) 1.54
- Student Assessments Influence Administrators' Pay (Q74)	2.15 (94) 1.71
MALE DEPARTMENT CHAIRS	
Student Market Orientation - Customer Orientation	4.58 (149) .95
Student Market Orientation - Competitor Orientation	3.41 (149) 1.18
Student Market Orientation – Interfunctional Coordination	3.81 (149) 1.12
Interdepartmental Conflict	2.88 (149) 1.08
Univ. Admin. Emphasis on Student Market Orientation	3.68 (149) 1.31
Reward System Orientation toward Students	
- Faculty and Staff Focus on Competition (Q47)	3.43 (149) 1.53

TABLE 2 Descriptive Statistics	
	Mean (N) <i>Std Dev</i>
- Use of Student Surveys for Evaluating Faculty (Q53)	5.79 (149) 1.55
- Strength of Student Relationships Used in Evaluating Faculty (Q65)	3.81 (149) 1.52
- Student Assessments Influence Administrators' Pay (Q74)	2.23 (149) 1.72
FEMALE DEPARTMENT CHAIRS	
Student Market Orientation - Customer Orientation	4.61 (45) .98
Student Market Orientation - Competitor Orientation	3.48 (46) 1.13
Student Market Orientation – Interfunctional Coordination	3.92 (46) 1.14
Interdepartmental Conflict	2.97 (46) 1.41
Univ. Admin. Emphasis on Student Market Orientation	3.62 (46) 1.23
Reward System Orientation toward Students	
- Faculty and Staff Focus on Competition (Q47)	3.48 (46) 1.52
- Use of Student Surveys for Evaluating Faculty (Q53)	5.52 (46) 2.00
- Strength of Student Relationships Used in Evaluating Faculty (Q65)	4.26 (46) 1.72
- Student Assessments Influence Administrators' Pay (Q74)	1.63 (46) 1.08

T-tests are calculated to compare variable means between segments of respondents (accounting department chairs vs. marketing department chairs; males vs. females). The results do represent statistically significant differences (at the .05 level) for two of the variables. Judgements of the customer orientation component are significantly different ($t= 2.134$; sig. .034) when comparing responses from accounting and marketing department chairs, and are significantly different for one of the reward system orientation variables (student assessments affect administrators' pay; $t=2.838$; sig. .005) when comparing responses from male and female department chairs.

Objective 1: Splitting the total group of respondents into two groups based on title (accounting department chairs, marketing department chairs), examine the impact of selected antecedents on market orientation toward students within higher education for each of the two groups and then compare results for the two groups.

Regression analyses are calculated and reported (Table 3) that address each of the six hypotheses (H1 – H6) specified within this objective (one analysis for each of the three components of student market orientation for accounting department chairs and the same for marketing department chairs). Results of the regression analyses indicate that each of the proposed antecedent variables (interdepartmental conflict, university administration emphasis on market orientation, reward system orientation) impacts one or more components of student market orientation for both groups (accounting department chairs and marketing department chairs). Additionally, all six of the hypotheses included within this objective are at least partially supported by the results of the analyses.

Results for accounting department chairs indicate support for hypotheses 1(a), 1(b), 2(b), 3(a), and 3(b). Only hypothesis 2(a) is not supported. Hypotheses 1(c), 2(c), and 3(c) are

partially supported, with three reward system orientation variables shown to affect competitor orientation, only one of the four proposed reward system variables shown to impact student customer orientation, and a different reward system variable shown to impact interfunctional coordination.

Considering results for the marketing department chair group, hypotheses 5(b), 6(a), and 6(b) are supported and hypotheses 4(a), 4(b), and 5(a) are not supported. Hypotheses 4(c), 5(c), and 6(c) are partially supported, with one reward system orientation variable shown to affect all three market orientation components and an additional reward system variable additionally affecting the student customer orientation component. See Tables 3 and 4 for details.

With three proposed dependent variables and six proposed independent antecedent variables, 18 causal relationships were examined for each informant group. Ten of the relationships were supported by analyses of data from the accounting chairs (in full or partial support of eight of the nine hypotheses). Seven of the 18 relationships were supported by analyses from the marketing chairs (in support of only six of the hypotheses).

Comparisons of results for the two groups reveals that they are similar in some regards but very different in others (Tables 3 and 4). Strikingly different from accounting chair results, for example, neither interdepartmental conflict nor university administration emphasis are demonstrated to impact customer orientation in the marketing chair results. In fact, all three statistically significant independent variables in the accounting chair model for customer orientation are different from the two significant independent variables in the marketing chair model. (Recall also from the t-tests comparing judgements by these informant groups that the customer orientation variable is significantly different for the two groups.)

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables		
	Student MO - Customer Orientation	Student MO - Competitor Orientation	Student MO - Interfunctional Coordination
ACCOUNTING DEPARTMENT CHAIRS	<u>Hypothesis 1</u>	<u>Hypothesis 2</u>	<u>Hypothesis 3</u>
Interdepartmental Conflict	-.279 (.002)	-.082 (.330)	-.337 (.000)
Univ. Admin. Emphasis on Student MO	.414 (.000)	.338 (.000)	.383 (.000)
Reward System Orientation – Student Market			
- Faculty and Staff Focus on Competition	.186 (.041)	.340 (.000)	-.004 (.966)
- Student Surveys for Evaluating Faculty	-.155 (.120)	-.072 (.453)	-.072 (.460)
- Strength of Student Relationships Used in Evaluating Faculty	.173 (.060)	.178 (.047)	.306 (.001)
- Student Assessments Influence Administrators' Pay	.038 (.641)	.178 (.024)	.070 (.378)
F (sign.)	12.44 (.000)	14.31 (.000)	13.04 (.000)
Adjusted R ²	.407	.444	.419

TABLE 3			
Tests for Main Effects – Results of Regression Analyses			
Regression Coefficients (Sign.)			
Independent Variables	Dependent Variables		
	Student MO - Customer Orientation	Student MO - Competitor Orientation	Student MO - Interfunctional Coordination
MARKETING DEPARTMENT CHAIRS	<u>Hypothesis 4</u>	<u>Hypothesis 5</u>	<u>Hypothesis 6</u>
Interdepartmental Conflict	-.139 (.151)	-.080 (.399)	-.238 (.013)
Univ. Admin. Emphasis on Student MO	.156 (.128)	.416 (.000)	.364 (.000)
Reward System Orientation – Student Market			
- Faculty and Staff Focus on Competition	.027 (.779)	.142 (.136)	.091 (.334)
- Student Surveys for Evaluating Faculty	-.077 (.471)	.043 (.680)	.039 (.704)
- Strength of Student Relationships Used in Evaluating Faculty	.364 (.001)	-.042 (.703)	.035 (.748)
- Student Assessments Influence Administrators' Pay	.235 (.016)	.223 (.019)	.186 (.047)
F (sign.)	7.00 (.000)	7.74 (.000)	8.01 (.000)
Adjusted R ²	.281	.303	.312
MALE DEPARTMENT CHAIRS	<u>Hypothesis 7</u>	<u>Hypothesis 8</u>	<u>Hypothesis 9</u>
Interdepartmental Conflict	-3.454 (.001)	-.122 (.116)	-.318 (.000)
Univ. Admin. Emphasis on Student MO	3.517 (.001)	.319 (.000)	.361 (.000)
Reward System Orientation – Student Market			
- Faculty and Staff Focus on Competition	1.623 (.107)	.197 (.017)	.014 (.864)
- Student Surveys for Evaluating Faculty	-1.170 (.244)	-.050 (.543)	-.143 (.073)
- Strength of Student Relationships Used in Evaluating Faculty	3.373 (.001)	.117 (.144)	.246 (.002)
- Student Assessments Influence Administrators' Pay	2.368 (.019)	.207 (.004)	.094 (.182)
F (sign.)	15.99 (.000)	13.63 (.000)	15.40 (.000)
Adjusted R ²	.378	.339	.369
FEMALE DEPARTMENT CHAIRS	<u>Hypothesis 10</u>	<u>Hypothesis 11</u>	<u>Hypothesis 12</u>
Interdepartmental Conflict	-.178 (.859)	-.042 (.704)	-.211 (.077)
Univ. Admin. Emphasis on Student MO	2.991 (.005)	.528 (.000)	.408 (.001)
Reward System Orientation – Student Market			
- Faculty and Staff Focus on Competition	.173 (.864)	.416 (.000)	-.018 (.869)
- Student Surveys for Evaluating Faculty	-.225 (.824)	-.013 (.923)	.433 (.005)
- Strength of Student Relationships Used in Evaluating Faculty	.829 (.412)	-.018 (.892)	-.115 (.413)
- Student Assessments Influence Administrators' Pay	.575 (.568)	.215 (.041)	.220 (.046)
F (sign.)	2.40 (.046)	11.26 (.000)	9.39 (.000)
Adjusted R ²	.160	.578	.528

Several of the reward system variables demonstrate results (in terms of statistical significance) in the regression models for the two groups, though those results are at times different for the two informant groups. Regarding similarities, notably, use of student surveys for evaluating faculty demonstrates no impact on any component of student market orientation for either group. This is the only antecedent variable that behaves consistently the same (across all three dependent variables) for the two informant groups. See Table 4 for a comparison of the hypotheses results, in terms of support or nonsupport, for the two groups included in this objective.

Objective 2: Splitting the total group of respondents into two groups based on gender (males and females), examine the impact of selected antecedents on market orientation toward students within higher education for each of the two groups and then compare results for the two groups.

As with Objective 1, the hypotheses (H7 – H12) associated with Objective 2 are all at least partially supported by the results of the regression analyses (Tables 3 and 4). Similarities between the two groups are indicated by the results. Notably, university administration emphasis on student market orientation is demonstrated by regression analyses for both males and females to (statistically significantly) positively impact all three components of market orientation. Regression results also demonstrate the same (statistically significant) antecedents of the competitor orientation component for both groups (males and females). However, other than university administration emphasis on market orientation, regression results for the other two components (customer orientation and interfunctional coordination) are very different for the two gender groups.

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables		
	Student MO - Customer Orientation	Student MO - Competitor Orientation	Student MO - Interfunctional Coordination
ACCOUNTING DEPARTMENT CHAIRS	<u>Hypothesis 1</u>	<u>Hypothesis 2</u>	<u>Hypothesis 3</u>
(a) Interdepartmental Conflict	SUPPORT	NONSUPPORT	SUPPORT
(b) Univ. Admin. Emphasis on Student MO	SUPPORT	SUPPORT	SUPPORT
(c) Reward System Orientation – Student Market			
- Faculty and Staff Focus on Competition	SUPPORT	SUPPORT	NONSUPPORT
- Student Surveys for Evaluating Faculty	NONSUPPORT	NONSUPPORT	NONSUPPORT
- Strength of Student Relationships Used in Evaluating Faculty	NONSUPPORT	SUPPORT	SUPPORT
- Student Assessments Influence Administrators' Pay	NONSUPPORT	SUPPORT	NONSUPPORT

MARKETING DEPARTMENT CHAIRS	<u>Hypothesis 4</u>	<u>Hypothesis 5</u>	<u>Hypothesis 6</u>
(a) Interdepartmental Conflict	NONSUPPORT	NONSUPPORT	SUPPORT
(b) Univ. Admin. Emphasis on Student MO	NONSUPPORT	SUPPORT	SUPPORT
(c) Reward System Orientation – Student Market			
- Faculty and Staff Focus on Competition	NONSUPPORT	NONSUPPORT	NONSUPPORT
- Student Surveys for Evaluating Faculty	NONSUPPORT	NONSUPPORT	NONSUPPORT
- Strength of Student Relationships Used in Evaluating Faculty	SUPPORT	NONSUPPORT	NONSUPPORT
- Student Assessments Influence Administrators’ Pay	SUPPORT	SUPPORT	SUPPORT
MALE DEPARTMENT CHAIRS	<u>Hypothesis 7</u>	<u>Hypothesis 8</u>	<u>Hypothesis 9</u>
(a) Interdepartmental Conflict	SUPPORT	NONSUPPORT	SUPPORT
(b) Univ. Admin. Emphasis on Student MO	SUPPORT	SUPPORT	SUPPORT
(c) Reward System Orientation – Student Market			
- Faculty and Staff Focus on Competition	NONSUPPORT	SUPPORT	NONSUPPORT
- Student Surveys for Evaluating Faculty	NONSUPPORT	NONSUPPORT	NONSUPPORT
- Strength of Student Relationships Used in Evaluating Faculty	SUPPORT	NONSUPPORT	SUPPORT
- Student Assessments Influence Administrators’ Pay	SUPPORT	SUPPORT	NONSUPPORT
FEMALE DEPARTMENT CHAIRS	<u>Hypothesis 10</u>	<u>Hypothesis 11</u>	<u>Hypothesis 12</u>
(a) Interdepartmental Conflict	NONSUPPORT	NONSUPPORT	NONSUPPORT
(b) Univ. Admin. Emphasis on Student MO	SUPPORT	SUPPORT	SUPPORT
(c) Reward System Orientation – Student Market			
- Faculty and Staff Focus on Competition	NONSUPPORT	SUPPORT	NONSUPPORT
- Student Surveys for Evaluating Faculty	NONSUPPORT	NONSUPPORT	SUPPORT
- Strength of Student Relationships Used in Evaluating Faculty	NONSUPPORT	NONSUPPORT	NONSUPPORT
- Student Assessments Influence Administrators’ Pay	NONSUPPORT	SUPPORT	SUPPORT

TABLE 5		
Respondent Demographics		
TOTAL SAMPLE (196)	Mean (N)	Std. Deviation
Years of Experience at this University	15.31 (188)	8.77
Years of Experience as Department Chair	5.15 (190)	4.46
Highest Degree Completed: 1 Bachelor, 18 Master, 175 Doctorate	-	-
Academic Major: 58 Mktg, 76 Acctg, 18 Mgmt, 6 Econ, 5 Fin,	-	-
9 Law/Tax, 12 Other Business or MBA, 11 Nonbusiness	-	-
Gender: 149 Males, 47 Females	-	-

ACCOUNTING DEPT. CHAIRS (102)	Mean (N)	Std. Deviation
Years of Experience at this University	16.14 (99)	8.54
Years of Experience as Department Chair	5.56 (99)	4.75
Highest Degree Completed: 1 Bachelor, 17 Master, 83 Doctorate	-	-
Academic Major: 76 Acctg, 2 Mgmt, 4 Econ, 4 Fin, 6 Law/Tax, 6 Other Business or MBA, 3 Nonbusiness	-	-
Gender: 78 Males, 23 Females	-	-

MARKETING DEPT. CHAIRS (94)	Mean (N)	Std. Deviation
Years of Experience at this University	14.38 (89)	8.98
Years of Experience as Department Chair	4.70 (91)	4.10
Highest Degree Completed: 1 Master, 92 Doctorate	-	-
Academic Major: 58 Mktg, 16 Mgmt, 2 Econ, 1 Fin, 3 Law/Tax, 6 Other Business or MBA, 8 Nonbusiness	-	-
Gender: 71 Males, 24 Females	-	-

MALE DEPT. CHAIRS (149)	Mean (N)	Std. Deviation
Years of Experience at this University	15.94 (144)	9.27
Years of Experience as Department Chair	5.46 (143)	4.59
Highest Degree Completed: 1 Bachelor, 14 Master, 133 Doctorate	-	-
Academic Major: 43 Mktg, 58 Acctg, 14 Mgmt, 6 Econ, 4 Fin, 7 Law/Tax, 8 Other Business or MBA, 9 Nonbusiness	-	-

FEMALE DEPT. CHAIRS (46)	Mean (N)	Std. Deviation
Years of Experience at this University	13.08 (43)	6.54
Years of Experience as Department Chair	4.21 (46)	3.96
Highest Degree Completed: 4 Master, 42 Doctorate	-	-
Academic Major: 15 Mktg, 18 Acctg, 4 Mgmt, 2 Law/Tax, 1 Fin, 4 Other Business or MBA, 2 Nonbusiness	-	-

Accordingly, for male respondents (Tables 3 and 4), hypotheses 7(a), 7(b), 8(b), 9(a), and 9(b) are supported and hypothesis 8(a) is not supported. Hypotheses 7(c), 8(c), and 9(c) are partially supported, with multiple reward system orientation variables impacting the student market orientation components.

Regarding female respondents (Tables 3 and 4), regression analyses demonstrate support for hypotheses 10(b), 11(b), and 12(b), fail to demonstrate support for hypotheses 10(a), 11(a), and 12(a), and partially support 10(c), 11(c), and 12(c). Again, results for this group are considerably different than results for males. For example, one of the reward system orientation variables (student surveys used to evaluate faculty) failed to indicate statistical significance as

an antecedent to any component of market orientation for the male group (or for accounting chairs or for marketing chairs). That variable, however, is indicated by responses from females to be a statistically significant positive antecedent to interfunctional coordination.

In addition to title and gender, demographic data is provided for total respondents and for each segment (accounting department chairs, marketing department chairs, males, females), for informational purposes (Table 5). Specifically, data regarding mean years of experience and educational background are provided. The additional demographic data help to provide a better understanding of the respondent groups and differences that may exist between the groups. Slightly greater levels of experience in certain segments (accounting chairs and males) may help to explain some of the differences in the findings. Likewise, differences in terminal degrees of the department chairs (which incidentally include several business and nonbusiness disciplines outside of accounting and marketing) may also help to explain differences in the findings.

CONCLUSIONS

The research objectives are met; results of the tests of hypotheses and differences in the results per group are described above and provided in Tables 3 and 4. The selected antecedents of market orientation (interdepartmental conflict, management emphasis on market orientation, reward system orientation) suggested by Kohli and Jaworski (1990) are all found to impact each of the three market orientation components (customer orientation, competitor orientation, interfunctional coordination) identified by Narver and Slater (1990), as applied toward students within higher education. In some cases, the statistically significant causal effect is found only for certain segments of the informants (with segmentation based on title or gender). The differences in findings for different segments within this study support suggestions from Phillips (1981) and Jaworski et al. (1993) that informant characteristics may influence their responses and thus may impact the variable measures and other factors within studies that rely on key informants.

Results have implications for student recruitment and retention, competitor orientation, interfunctional coordination, conflict management, administrative planning/emphasis, and intelligence within the university. Specifically, three key results should influence or re-enforce existing actions regarding students markets: (1) Interdepartmental conflict reduces student market orientation, (2) University administration emphasis on student market orientation increases student market orientation, and (3) Market focused reward systems generally increase student market orientation. Universities should clearly be interested in anything that increases student market orientation, assuming they accept the premise and growing empirical evidence from academics and practitioners that higher levels of market orientation in turn lead to greater levels of performance. Accordingly, universities should strive to reduce interdepartmental conflict, emphasize student market orientation from all levels of the organization, and incorporate (as possible) considerations of the student market when designing reward systems for faculty, staff, and administration. A greater awareness of differences in perspective could also assist decision makers in responding to intelligence that may be gathered within their own university.

More broadly, results from this research add to existing research suggesting that market orientation studies in business may have applicability to higher education. Practitioners within higher education should increasingly accept findings from business and other sectors of the economy that may impact market orientation also within higher education.

Results of this study also confirm or disconfirm that the scales are reliable in the context of higher education. Note that even the reward system items (determined to be unreliable as a scale) appear to be useful in the higher education context, demonstrating statistical significance as measures of individual dimensions of reward system orientation within the regression models of this study. Though the items do not work together reliably as a scale, they are each indicated to capture a behavior or activity that is a relevant antecedent to at least one of the components of student market orientation, from at least one of the tested perspectives.

As described in Table 2, the total sample is weighted more heavily toward accounting chairs than marketing chairs and weighted much more heavily toward males than females. Any differences in judgment stemming from title differences or gender differences, then, could logically skew the overall results. If this study had demonstrated no differences between the groups, we could be more confident in the results for total respondents. However, since statistically significant differences do exist based on title and gender (Table 3), results support concerns of Phillips (1981) regarding informant bias and the analyses within each segment arguably become more important. Obviously, focusing solely on results for total respondents may be misleading in this case due to the underrepresentation of certain groups.

Several unanswered questions are raised by this study regarding the differences in regression results for the segments of respondents included in the study. For example, which group (if any) shows the best judgement? Who is correct?

Regarding experience, should we assume that the groups of respondents with higher mean levels of experience (accounting chairs and males) and presumably greater levels of institutional knowledge, are more accurate in their assessment of behaviors and activities throughout the university and within the department/school? Alternatively, should we suspect that the relatively less experienced groups of respondents are less likely to respond with “the way things have always been” or the way things were historically, and may be more likely to be aware of the way things are currently?

LIMITATIONS, OBSERVATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The findings of this study further demonstrate that theory and empirical research surrounding market orientation within businesses may be appropriately applied to university business schools. Readers may be able to generalize the results to others within higher education and possibly also to nonbusiness organizations outside of higher education. We urge caution, however, in applying the findings due to the limitations of the sampling frame (AACSB member schools only, located in the United States).

Results of this study indicate that respondent demographics lead to differences in judgments of organizational behaviors and activities specifically in the case of title and gender of the department chair respondent. Regarding title, a limitation is that we surveyed department

chairs only. Employees at other levels (vice presidents or vice chancellors for academics, deans, faculty) may have different perceptions. Accordingly, results of the study might be different if examined from other levels of the organization.

We do not segment respondents by experience or educational background in this analysis. We also do not include other demographic data (such as experience prior to the current university inside or outside of academia) that may be relevant. Understandably, as noted by Phillips (1981), there may well be other informant demographics not considered within this study that impact judgment of the respondents.

Though caution is encouraged, the results provide significant guidance for future research regarding gender differences, market orientation and its antecedents generally and especially within higher education, and research methods involving key informants. The results strongly support assertions by Phillips (1981) and Jaworski et al., (1993), for example, that key informant characteristics matter and should be considered in survey research.

Regarding differences in results for accounting chairs and marketing chairs, should we consider that marketing department chairs (especially those with terminal degrees in marketing) are likely to have a greater knowledge of and respect for the marketing concept and market orientation, and are thus more aware of the behaviors and activities thought to indicate higher levels of market orientation? Though we did not include the terms “marketing,” “marketing concept,” or “market orientation” in the survey, marketing chairs are likely more familiar with the concepts included in the study. However, when considering differences in results from these two groups of department chairs whose responsibilities are essentially the same, should we assume that either perspective is “right?”

Males and females apparently, per the results of this study and earlier research as noted above, see the world differently. Again, which group shows the better judgement regarding the institutional behaviors and activities investigated in this study? To the extent that perspectives differ significantly, who is “right?”

Perhaps each respondent segment is accurate, just coming from different viewpoints, and practitioners and researchers can gain practical and valuable insights from each of the four perspectives represented by the results described within this study (Tables 3 and 4). While identical findings for multiple segments of key informants certainly provide strong consistent support for specific causal relationships within the study, unique results within each segment may provide practitioners with additional useful information for the improvement of market orientation toward students. Importantly also for future research considerations, significant differences in information by segment may remain hidden (especially for groups of the population that are underrepresented in the overall sample) and not easily discernible if researchers focus solely on the overall sample, investigating and reporting results only in the aggregate.

The observations and limitations noted above also present opportunities for further research; the study could be repeated outside the United States or within non-AACSB business schools. It could also be conducted at other levels of the organization, within other disciplines, and within other types of organizations. Additionally, future studies could allow for and examine

the possible effect on informant judgement of highest academic degree, major field of study, years of experience, or length of service at the university.

Finally, sudden environmental shifts such as exhibited by the current COVID-19 pandemic may emphasize the need for higher levels of market orientation. Logically, universities focused intently on the needs of their students and other stakeholder-customers would likely be more likely to make the correct decisions when faced with uncertain situations. Future research could extend the current research to examine antecedents and consequences of market orientation within universities that are coping with emergencies and other disasters such as pandemics.

REFERENCES

- Agarwal, S., Erramilli, M.K., and Dev, C.S. (2003), "Market Orientation and Performance in Service Firms: Role of Innovation," *Journal of Services Marketing*, 17(1), pp. 68-82.
- Anderson, J.C. and Gerbing, D.W. (1988), "Structural Equation Modeling in Practice: A Review and Recommended Two-Step Approach," *Psychological Bulletin*, 103(3), 411-423.
- Arifin, Daniel N. (2016), "Understanding Market Orientation in Victorian Schools," Doctoral Thesis, Melbourne Graduate School of Education, orcid.org/0000-0003-3449-075x, Melbourne, Australia.
- Baber, R. and Upadhyay, Y. (2015), "Examining the Role of Competition Intensity as Moderator on Market Orientation and Performance Relationship in Private Universities," *South Asian Journal of Management*, 22(1), pp. 97-113.
- Bagozzi, R.P. and Yi, Y. (1988), "On the Evaluation of Structural Equation Models," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 16(Spring), 74-94.
- Baldrige Performance Excellence Program (2019), "Baldrige Criteria Commentary (Education)," National Institute of Standards and Technology, Gaithersburg, MD, available at: www.nist.gov/baldrige/baldrige-criteria-commentary-education (accessed 9 April, 2020).
- Barksdale, H.C. and Darden, B. (1971), "Marketers' Attitude Toward the Marketing Concept," *Journal of Marketing*, 35(October), 29-36.
- Bentler, P.M. (1990), "Comparative Fit Indexes in Structural Models," *Psychological Bulletin*, 107, 238-246.
- Bentler, P.M. and Bonett, D.G. (1980), "Significance Tests and Goodness of Fit in the Analysis of Covariance Structures," *Psychological Bulletin*, 88, 588-606.
- Brahnam, S.D., Margario, T.M., Hignite, M.A., Barrier, T.B., and Chin, J.M. (2005), "A Gender Based Categorization for Conflict Resolution," *Journal of Management Development*, 24(3), 197-208.
- Browne, M.W. and Cudeck, R. (1993), "Alternate Ways of Assessing Model Fit," in K.A. Bollen and K.S. Long (Eds.), *Testing Structural Equation Models*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage, 136-162.
- Browne, M.W. and Wells, G. (1992), *RAMONA User's Guide*, Columbus, OH: The Ohio State University Press.
- Campbell, D.T. (1955), "The Informant in Quantitative Research," *American Journal of Sociology*, 60, 339-342.
- Caprino, K., (2016), "How Decision-Making is Different between Men and Women and Why it Matters in Business," *Forbes.com*, May 12, 2016, 10:12 am.
- Carlos, V. and Rodrigues, R. (2012), "Internal Market Orientation in Higher Education Institutions – its Inter-Relations with Other Organisational Variables," *Viesoji Politika ir Administravimas*, 11(4).
- Cotton, C.S., Li, C., McIntyre, F., and Price, J.P. (2015), "Which Explanations for Gender Differences in Competition Are Consistent with a Single Theoretical Model?" *Journal of Behavioral and Experimental Economics* 59(Dec), 56-67.
- Churchill, G.A. (1979), "A Paradigm for Developing Better Measures of Marketing Constructs," *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 16 February, 64-73.
- Felton, A.P. (1959), "Making the Marketing Concept Work," *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 37, July-August, 55-65.
- Gray, J. (1992), *Men are from Mars, Women are from Venus*, Harper-Collins Publishers, NY, NY.

- Hammond, K.L., Webster, R.L., and Harmon, H.A. (2006), "Market Orientation, Top Management Emphasis, and Performance within University Schools of Business: Implications for Universities," *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, Vol. 14 Winter, 69-85.
- Hayes, T. J. 1989, "How Students Choose a College: A Qualitative Approach," *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education* 2(1), 19-27.
- Hemsley-Brown, J. and Oplatka, I. (2010), "Market Orientation in Universities: A Comparative Study of two National Higher Education Systems," *International Journal of Educational Management*, 24(3), 201-220.
- Jaworski, B.J. and Kohli, A.K. (1993), "Market Orientation: Review, Refinement, and Roadmap," 57 (July), 53-70.
- Jaworski, B.J. and Kohli, A.K. (1996), "Market Orientation: Antecedents and Consequences," *Journal of Market-Focused Management*, 1(2), 119-135.
- Kohli, A.K. and Jaworski, B.J. (1990), "Market Orientation: the Construct, Research Proposition, and Managerial Implications," *Journal of Marketing*, 54(April), 1-18.
- Kohli, A.K., Jaworski, B.J., and Kumar, A. (1993), "MARKOR: A Measure of Market Orientation," *Journal of Marketing Research*, XXX(November), 467-477.
- Kotler, P. and Levy, S.J. (1969a), "Broadening the Concept of Marketing," *Journal of Marketing*, 33 (January), 10-15.
- and ----- (1969b), "A New Form of Marketing Myopia: Rejoinder to Professor Luck," *Journal of Marketing*, 33(July), 55-57.
- Kumar, N., Stern, L.W., and Anderson, J.C. (1993), "Conducting Inter-organizational Research Using Key Informants," *Academy of Management Journal*, 36(6), 1633-1651.
- Lusch, R.F. and Laczniak, G.R. (1987), "The Evolving Marketing Concept, Competitive Intensity and Organizational Performance," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 15(Fall), 1-11.
- Lund, Daulatram (2008), "Gender Differences in Ethics Judgment of Marketing Professionals in the United States," *Journal of Business Ethics*, 77(4), 501-515.
- Ma, J. and Todorovic, Z. (2011), "Making Universities Relevant: Market Orientation as a Dynamic Capability within Institutions of Higher Learning," *Academy of Marketing Studies Journal*, 15(2), 1-15.
- Marsh, H.W. and Hocevar, D. (1985), "Applications of Confirmatory Factor Analysis to the Study of Self-concept: First- and Higher-Order Factor Models and Their Invariance Across Groups," *Psychological Bulletin*, 97, 562-582.
- Marta, Janet, Anusorn Singhapakdi, and Kenneth Kraft (2008), "Personal Characteristics Underlying Ethical Decisions in Marketing Situations: A Survey of Small Business Managers," *Journal of Small Business Management*, 46(4), 589-606.
- Marz, Joachim W., Thomas L. Powers, and Thomas Queisser (2003), "Corporate and Individual Influences on Managers' Social Orientation," *Journal of Business Ethics*, 46(1), 1-11.
- McCarthy, E.J. and Perreault, W.D., Jr. (1984), *Basic Marketing*, 8th ed. Homewood, IL: Richard D. Irwin, Inc.
- Miller, P., Lamb, Jr., C.P., Hoverstad, R., and Boehm, E.G. 1990, "An Approach for Identifying Benefit Segments Among Prospective College Students," *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education* 3(1), 49-65.
- Mokoena, B. and Manilall, R. (2017), "Effects of Market Orientation and Barriers to Market Orientation on University Performance: A Study of Universities of Technology in South Africa," *The International Business & Economics Research Journal (Online)*, 16(1), 17-30.
- Narver, J.C., Park, S.Y., and Slater, S.F. (1992), "Market Orientation, Information, and Marketing Strategies," 1992 American Marketing Association Summer Educators' Conference.
- Narver, J.C. and Slater, S.F. (1990), "The Effect of a Market Orientation on Business Profitability," *Journal of Marketing*, 54(October), 20-35.
- Narver, J.C., Slater, S.F., and Tietje, B. (1998), "Creating a Market Orientation," *Journal of Market-Focused Management*, 2(3), 241-255.
- Peter, J. P. (1979), "Reliability: a Review of Psychometric Basics and Recent Marketing Practices," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 16(February), 6-17.
- Phillips, L.W. (1981), "Assessing Measurement Error in Key Informant Reports: A Methodological Note on Organizational Analysis in Marketing," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(November), 395-415.

- Rynca, R. and Ziaecian, Y. (2015), "The Role of Perceived Market Orientation in Higher Education: Polish and Australian Experiences," *Zarządzanie Publiczne*, 32(4), 431-449.
- Slater, S.F. and Narver, J.C. (1994), "Does Competitive Environment Moderate the Market Orientation - Performance Relationship?" *Journal of Marketing*, 45(Summer), 9-16.
- Somers, M.J. (2009), "Using the Process of Disruption to Find New Markets and to Develop New Marketing Programs for Management Education," *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education*, 19(July), 166-178.
- Wasmer, D.J. and Bruner II, G.C. (1999), "The Antecedents of the Market Orientation in Higher Education," *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education*, 9(2), 93-105.
- Webster, R.L., Ellis, T.S., and Bryan, B.J. (2004), "Similarities and Differences between the Sexes in Financial Analysis and Self-Confidence," *Academy of Accounting and Financial Studies Journal* 8(1), 89-100.
- Webster, R.L., Hammond, K.L., and Rothwell, J.C. (2010), "Customer and Market Orientation within AACSB Member Business Schools: Comparative Views from Three Levels of Administrators," *American Journal of Business Education*, 3(7), 79-91.
- Webster, R.L., Hammond, K.L., and Rothwell, J.C. (2014), "Market Orientation Effects on Business School Performance: Views from Inside and Outside the Business School," *American Journal of Business Education*, 7(1), 9-20.
- Wheaton, B., Muthen, B., Alwin, D.F., and Summers, D.F. (1977), "Assessing Reliability and Stability in Panel Models," in D.R.Heise (Ed.), *Sociological Methodology*, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass, 84-136.