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Adopting the Brisoux-Larouche model of brand categorization to correlate brand social responsibility in national and in-house coffee shops

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**Adopting the Brisoux–Larouche model of brand categorization to
correlate brand social responsibility in national and in-house coffee shops**

by

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A dissertation submitted to the graduate faculty
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

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Major: Hospitality Management

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ABSTRACT

In-house food service brands operating on college campuses struggle to build brand image with limited consumer awareness. Corporate social responsibility (CSR) activities may enhance brand image for customers, employees, and stakeholders. In some cases, CSR associations have significant influence on consumers' response to new products. The purpose of this study was to determine if a non-branded socially responsible retail food offering would be accepted (evoked) by a campus consumer. To date there has been little research on this topic. College-age customer purchasing trends can provide important insight into future consumer trends. The quantitative methodology started with a coffee-cupping survey and an Internet-based survey on socially responsible coffee. With the knowledge gained from the cupping survey and Internet survey a structured equation modeling (SEM) confirmatory model was developed. This model and the five hypotheses were tested by the campus coffee survey, a personal intercept survey instrument ($N = 344$). In addition to the SEM, other quantitative methods were utilized including multiple regressions and ANOVA. By using accepted brand categorization methods, this study confirms that an in-house coffee brand offering a high-quality product and deploying a brand social responsible strategy can be coveted by the college campus customers with little or no previous experience of the brand. Additionally the research illuminated how these customers' needs for social responsibility products will reshape the foodservice and restaurant industry in the near future.

INTRODUCTION

Generation Y, also known as the Millennial Generation, is the generation born in the late 1970s through 1990. This group represents a major change in consumer behavior (Howe & Strauss, 2003). Phillips (2007) indicated the millennial generation is a robust group of 80+ million consumers. The coffee industry, specifically Starbucks and Dunkin' Donuts, is a major part of the millennial generation's parents' brand and social network. Starbucks was one of the first major brands to build brand awareness without the use of mass marketing, one cup at a time (Joachimsthaler & Aaker, 1997). The Millennial Generation was introduced to coffee brands through their parents (Howe & Strauss, 2003). These branded cups of coffee were seen in the hands of parents as they shuffled their offspring to their highly regimented list of activities. Now that the offspring are themselves active consumers, the coffee and café experience is a major part of their culture and daily routine (Thompson & Zeynep, 2004). During this same time period, coffee became very important in the development of socially responsible food products and foodservice in the United States. Coffee is the first major food product, through the efforts of religious groups, Oxfam, and the fair trade movement, to educate consumers on the merits of social responsibility (Bitzer, Francken, & Glasbergen, 2008).

There are two very opposing market dynamics in the college food service industry. To begin with, the integration of national branded food venues on college campuses is still very vibrant (Ko & Chiu, 2008; Parker, Schaefer, & Hermans, 2007). However, national branded food offerings may not be as important to Millennial customers who strive to be socially responsible (Norton, 2003), and the focus on brands' social responsibility image in the food service business is being demanded by university faculty, administrators, and

customers. The reduction in state and federal financial support for higher education and a slower economy is reducing alumni's and benefactors' financial support to universities, forcing universities to increase their reliance on income produced on campus by auxiliary services and enterprises like foodservice. These factors make the deployment of national brands on campus no longer a perfect fit to the campus food service industry because of the investment required and the reduced financial return to the university due to franchisee and marketing fees as well as the mixed record of national brands regarding social responsibility, the reduced brand/product lifecycle, the complex requirements food service managers must manage, and the loss of purchasing incentives. These factors mandate that the food service industry needs to determine how to successfully implement an in-house brand strategy. Such a strategy, if developed and implemented correctly, will build customer satisfaction, increase sales and the university's financial return, and support socially responsible methods of farming and food production, bettering the lives of people involved in the supply chain process and protecting the environment

The challenge is that university food service industry in-house brands have not been accepted as well as have national brands. The in-house brands suffer from low brand awareness; lack of marketing strategy; decreased engagement by employees and customers; and having a lower rating on quality, service, cleanliness, and value (QSCV; Kim, Moreo, & Yeh, 2006). Pettijohn, Pettijohn, and Luke (1997) found that low-quality service has negative effects on quick-service restaurants. There has been very little research focused on the in-house, socially responsible food brand topic to determine the outcome in market acceptance, especially brand awareness. The purpose of this research is to determine if a nonbranded, socially responsible retail food brand will be accepted (evoked) by the campus

customer. Not only will this research illuminate the path to helping satisfy the needs of multiple university stakeholders, but also, by using established marketing brand categorization methods, it is hoped that future brand awareness and acceptance traits in foodservice and restaurant consumer habits can be forecasted for when these college students graduate and become the key consumer group of the future.

Definitions of Terms

Brand social responsibility (BSR): efforts a business organization takes to be environmentally friendly; assisting with charitable/philanthropic activities; and interacting in an ethical manner with local, national, and world communities, customers, and employees (Brown & Dacin, 1997; Reich, 2002).

Corporate social responsibility (CSR): a form of corporate self-regulation in which the corporation voluntarily engages in activities to comply with legal regulations, ethical standards, safety standards, environmental standards that better the lives of its customers, employees, and local communities (Lozano, 1996; McWilliams, Siegal, & Wright, 2006; Robertson & Nicholson, 1996).

Fair trade: a social movement and market-based approach that helps farmers and producers in developing countries make a living wage that supports their families and community and promotes sustainability (Kolk, 2005; Valkila, 2009).

In-house brand: food service operation created by the local management or by a foodservice management company staff.

Latent variable: theoretical constructs that cannot be observed (Byrne, 2010).

Manifest variable: indicators of the underlying construct that are presumed to be present (Byrne, 2010).

National branded foodservice venue: national restaurant chains that establishes franchise or license agreements that allow food services to operate or allow brands to operate on campus.

OxFam: an international confederation of 15 organizations working in 98 countries worldwide to find lasting solutions to poverty and injustice working directly with poor communities to ensure that poor people can improve their lives. In farming communities that produce products for export, OxFam has developed trading strategies to insure farmers receive a fair price for their products. The most notable strategy deployed by OxFam is establishing fair trade cooperatives in communities producing coffee, bananas, tea, and handmade crafts (Bacon, 2005; Giovannucci & Ponte, 2005; Loureiro & Lotade, 2005).

Social responsibility: an ethical ideology that a business, firm, or individual has an obligation to act to benefit society at large. This responsibility can be passive, by avoiding engaging in socially harmful acts, or active, by performing activities that directly advance social goals like community involvement, engaging in sustainable practices, and promoting fair trade practices for all suppliers. The age-old conflict with social responsibility is that the firm's sole responsibility is to the stakeholder of the firm and to generate profit. Any acts that take away from the focus to generate profit are considered counter-productive to the firm (Freidman, 1970; McWilliams et al., 2006).

Structural equation modeling: a statistical methodology that takes a confirmatory (i.e., hypothesis-testing) approach to the analysis of a structural theory bearing on some phenomenon (Byrne, 2010; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1999; Jöreskog & Van Thillo, 1972; Meade & Bauer, 2007).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Social Responsibility

The concept of social responsibility (SR) is hard to define. Numerous definitions have been proposed with no clear consensus, making its theoretical development and measurement difficult (McWilliams et al., 2006). Pava and Krausz (1996) stated that, in addition to the financial responsibilities managers have for their firms, there is also social responsibility that should be met. For the purpose of this research, SR will be defined in two subsets: corporate social responsibility (CSR, the overall corporate strategy of social responsibility) and brand social responsibility (BSR, the strategy of social responsibility as it relates to a product or brand).

CSR is seen when a corporation goes above compliance and engages in activities that further a social good that is beyond both the interests of the corporation and the corporation's legal requirements. Lantos (2001) stated that the four duties of CSR are economic, legal, ethical, and altruistic, and Dahlsrud (2006) stated that the five dimensions of CSR are environmental, social, economic, stakeholder, and voluntariness.

BSR, on the other hand, includes such efforts as being environmentally friendly; assisting with charitable/philanthropic activities; and interacting in an ethical manner with local, national, and world communities, customers, and employees (Brown & Dacin, 1997; Reich, 2002). For clarity and continuity in the general discussion of topics consistent with both CSR and BSR, the umbrella term used in this document will be "SR." Topics more specific to CSR and BSR will be addressed using whichever referent is relevant to the topic under consideration.

The fundamental challenge to SR arises from the corporate conflict between “doing good” and “doing well”—helping society at large versus doing right by the corporation’s shareholders (Friedman, 1970). Levitt (1958) is credited with establishing the debate about social responsibility in his *Harvard Business Review* article, “The Dangers of Social Responsibility,” in which he cautions that “government’s job is not business, and business’s job is not government” (p. 47). Friedman (1970) went on to state that activities in SR are self-serving on the part of managers and thus reduce shareholder wealth. A major focus of scholarly research has been the question of whether the corporation or brand has traditionally shown a positive financial return by deploying SR strategies. As Pava and Krausz (1996) pointed out after examining 21 empirical CSR studies, “Nearly all empirical studies to date have concluded that firms perceived as having met social-responsibility criteria have either outperformed or performed as well as other firms which are not (necessarily) social responsible” (p. 326). Barnett (2005) stated that for 30 years scholars have attempted to make the business case that supports CSR, but that, after three decades, the case remains unproven.

To date there has been little empirical research showing that CSR can positively influence a corporation’s performance. Barnett (2005) reinforced his findings by providing replicable empirical financial results derived from investments in CSR activities across industries that will most likely not be achieved. According to a study by Burke and Logsdon (1996), CSR strategies are a strategic benefit not easily measured as a contribution toward the short-term bottom line. The study goes on to establish and articulate the five key pillars of a good CSR strategy: centrality, specificity, proactive management, voluntarism, and visibility.

In a paradoxical way, activities in CSR may not be ethical or in the best interests of the stakeholders of a business, and if there is a perceived or empirically proven financial return, it will be specific to certain industries. Based on a review of CSR, there are two important points to be discussed. First, by industry accounting standards, expenses in SR would be considered an intangible expense. Barnett (2005) stated that the struggle to make a business case for SR resembles the struggle to show the financial merit of investments in a variety of intangible assets, which might include research and development, advertising, employee development, goodwill, and public relations. Firms have developed accounting and financial methods to answer stakeholder's questions regarding "gut feel" or "management assumptions" as reinforcements to the investment in intangible assets. Therefore, investing in SR should be accounted for by the same method. Kang, Lee, and Huh (2010) researched the treatment of SR as an intangible asset in their regression model relating to the hospitality industry and showed a strong correlation between SR activities and the value of the firm measured by the price equity return and Tobin's q. Tobin's q is a measurement of the log of market value to book value ratio making both of these variables factors of long-term valuation. However, SR activities did not have significant impact on short term profitability. The second point is that the core belief in SR starts with ethical management. Brady and Hatch (1992) created an SR decision process that starts with ethics.

The SR decision process by management starts with the ethical question. Although the goal of the company is to maximize shareholder equity and generate a profit, the questions must be asked are: (a) is the activity ethical? and (b) How does the activity relate to or correlate with that company's core values relating to SR? When these questions are answered, management makes a decision as to whether the activity under consideration is

ethical and if SR can and should be part of the process involving and valuing internal and external forces—situational restraints—in the process. These situational restraints mirror Lantos's (2001) four concepts of CSR—economic, legal, ethical, and altruistic—and Dalhlsrud's (2006) five dimensions of CSR—environmental, social, economic, stakeholder and voluntariness. Management's ultimate decision is either to engage or not engage in SR activities. With a clear understanding of SR and its conflicts as they relate to shareholder value and ethics, one can start to identify how SR can influence management and marketing.

An extensive research of the SR topic revealed the following key influences and usages in management and marketing research: management research directed toward employee engagement and development, an environmental focus for cost saving and ethical values, mitigation of governmental intervention and management via public relations of the negativity among the media, marketing research directed toward competitive strategy, customer satisfaction via customer engagement, and positivity among the media. One concern of researchers and managers is that, in the global marketplace, the values and acceptance of these influences can greatly fluctuate in different markets of the world (Carroll, 1991, 1999). As Drucker (1974) stated in his article on marketing concepts, coining the phrase "high-quality, low-cost producer," firms should offer products that are equal to or better than their competitors' and priced lower than a superior competitor's product. Management's goal should be to be its industry's high-quality, low-cost producer. SR management activities fall into employee engagement; environmental focus and governmental intervention are critical parts of achieving this goal.

Employee costs are quickly becoming the number one internal cost under control of management. The cost of recruiting the right talent and reducing turnover is the major day-

to-day focus of companies competing globally. A productivity and employee engagement study conducted by Fleming, Coffman, and Harter (2005) showed that 29% of the employees were engaged in their work, 54% were neutral, and 17% were disengaged and damaging the firm. According to the study, workers who were positively engaged had higher levels of productivity and profitability, a better safety record, and higher attendance and retention levels. Fleming et al. estimated that the cost to businesses of neutral and disengaged employees in the United States was \$300 billion annually in lost productivity. Engaging in SR activities is perceived by researchers as a management strategy to increase employee loyalty and engagement and is recognized by researchers as a preferred method of reducing the intervention of labor unions in the workplace.

Social responsibility management environmental activities, such as reduction in the use of raw materials, energy, and utilities, can produce direct internal cost savings (Pizzolato & Zeringue, 1993). Reducing a business's carbon footprint by, for example, using sustainable materials is a societal goal that in most cases cannot be directly related to a reduction in internal costs and thus falls into governmental intervention and marketing strategies.

Management of SR activities has been shown to be an excellent means of managing or mitigating current and potential government interventions such as mandating employee class or diversity levels, workforce safety regulations, and environmental regulation (Campbell, 2007). Campbell went on to show that SR activities appear to be utilized by companies positioned at the middle level of competition. On the other hand, SR activities tend to fall off in very competitive marketplaces and in areas with little or no competition, such as monopolistic and oligopolistic business enterprises. The longer-term cost to the

corporation of reduction in SR activities at the high-competitive and low-competitive levels seems to be increased challenges in ethical management, lack of productivity, threat of legal action against the firm, and fear of government regulator intervention.

According to this research, the marketing focus of SR can be divided into three key areas: competitive positioning, customer satisfaction, and engagement and management via public relations of the positivity of media and messaging regarding the company. Porter (1980) defined competitive strategy as the pursuit of sustainable point-of-differentiation advantages. Competitive positioning, as pointed out by Porter (1985), involves finding and sustaining a point of differential advantage for the corporation or brand. Therefore, both CSR and BSR should be actively used in this strategy. The use of CSR and BSR as a way to influence customers and create a competitive point of differentiation is becoming common in the marketplace (Becker-Olsen, Cudmore, & Hill, 2006). The key variables in understanding the value of CSR and BSR as tools to stimulate positive consumer behavior are fit and motivation. Fit is defined in a marketing context as the link between the social responsible cause and the product line, brand image, position or target market. An example of fit would be the pink bow associated with breast cancer awareness with the Dannon yogurt position as a cause-related partner. Mullen (1997) defined cause-related marketing as the process of formulating and implementing marketing activities that are characterized by contributing a specific amount to a designated nonprofit effort that, in turn, causes customers to engage in a revenue-providing exchange. Fit is important because if the cause does not match the customer and product then the overall relation or link to the product cause will never develop (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006). Motivation is defined as the core reason the firm is engaging in CSR practices. If the motivation is focused solely on short-term profitability, the cause

relationship will fail (Mullen, 1997); if the motivation is rooted in a core belief of enhancing the social aspects of improving society and connecting the consumer to the company and its employees, the cause relationship will be very strong. Bronn and Vrioni (2001) noted that cross-cultural differences may change the acceptance level of marketing a point of differentiation.. Keeping the fit and motivation for a BSR in different global markets can be very difficult and can require different strategies in each country where the product is offered.

Customer satisfaction and engagement as an SR strategy involves engaging current customers and attracting future customers by identifying SR activities that are core to the belief of that target market. Fleming et al. (2005) used a Gallop organization-applied six sigma research process to assess customer satisfaction and pricing. Customers who were engaged with SR showed a 23% premium over the average customer average spending. Fleming et al.'s research showed that on average the engaged group represents only 15 to 20% of the total customer base. By taking the inverse of the engaged group a 23% increase in spending based on 87% of the total customers makes the opportunity for SR very apparent. The opportunity of engaging current customers by SR activities, and cause marketing specifically, is that social marketing connects like customers and forms a C2C (customer -to-customer) communication that quickly and with no cost sends an SR message to potential new customers (Mangold & Faulds, 2009; Marichris & Kelleher, 2009).

Public relations and a brand's external messaging have become opaque with the advent of the Internet and social media. As Ahluwalia (2002) stated, the challenge in brand messaging is negativity with regard to the fact that media travels fastest, reaches more consumers, and can be received more quickly than positive-messaged information. SR plays

an important offensive role by sending positive messaging to build resistance and counter any negatively based messaging. Joachimsthaler and Aaker (1997) examined brands that did not participate in mass media marketing and that instead chose alternative communication channels to create awareness and build customer loyalty. Their research was conducted before the advent of current social media but clearly showed that building brands and reinforcing corporate images could be accomplished through activities like SR and loyalty marketing.

CSR and BSR responsibilities have become part of the global marketplace, so it is management's responsibility to manage them to create value for the corporation. Key areas of focus are competitive strategy, engagement of customers, engagement of employees, influencing government regulation, and control of negative public relations in today's connected world. The question is not if organizations will become engaged in SR, but rather, what areas of SR are important to their marketplace and how effective the organizations manage and market these SR activities (Thomas & Simerly, 1994). The unanswered question is who in the organization implements the SR changes? Is it the CEO? Drumwright's (1995) research examined 35 buying processes in 10 organizations. The most significant finding in this embedded, multiple-case research was the discovery of the "policy entrepreneur." This individual is a defining force in the adoption of social responsibility causes in the organization. He or she will invest his or her resources, time, reputation, and energy in the cause of social responsibility, believing that this leadership will help not only mold the organization's future but also enhance his or her career or reputation. Although policy entrepreneurs are the catalysts, the key element for organizational change is the "internal organizational convert," who has the reputational job classification to create the

change toward an SR company. One interesting finding of Drumwright's is that executive-level commitment to CSR was not considered a critical factor in adopting an SR strategy. The combination of the policy entrepreneur and the organizational converts was the key element for success.

Theory Development in Social Responsibility

SR has been studied for almost 30 years. In this period there has been a variety of management theories about SR, starting with the agency theory reflecting the thought, as Friedman (1970) stated, that SR activities are a misuse of corporate resources and SR funds should be channeled to internal projects or dispersed to the shareholder. Then Freeman (1984) developed the stakeholder theory that management must balance profitability with the needs of employees, customers, vendors, and local communities. The stakeholder theory increases the complexity of management's challenges by creating multiple responsibilities for executives. The concept of ethical management was added to the stakeholder theory by Donald and Preston (1995) in their development of stewardship theory. As discussed earlier Brady and Hatch (1992) included ethics in their decision model as the first step in the process of SR-based management decisions. Finally, Jones (1995) applied institutional theory and classic economic theory to CSR, averring that CSR is consistent with the institutional theory in that it helps build customer trust and loyalty in firms with high repeat customers by demonstrating management that is ethical and considerate to stakeholder needs. Customers would then reciprocate, Jones postulated, by continuing or potentially increasing their relationships with those firms.

Institutional theory set the empirical research stage (discussed later) for the hedonic pricing model and for rewarding BSR image. As defined by Reich (2002), the relationships

between BSR image and constructs of product quality, service quality, and brand loyalty are moderated by the consumer's inclination to reward social responsibility. The institutional theory reflects the thinking that stakeholders would in some way compensate firms for their energies in CSR. Jennings and Zandbergen (1995) adapted the institutional theory to help form a more focused, ecologically sustainable view of the organization. McWilliams and Siegel (2001) developed the theory of the firm, in which the actions of a firm strategically fit into the resources based on a process developed by Wernerfelt (1984) called the resource-based view of the firm. The resource-based view helps management break down resources and capabilities of the corporation and analyze them for opportunities for sustained competitive advantage. These data are then placed in a simple model using a cost-benefit analysis to make determinations as to where resources should be spent. The results show the demand for CSR and validate the cost in capital and resources to satisfy this demand. The resource-based view is an excellent tool to assist in evaluating investments in brand imaging, customer loyalty programs, and community support, which can be analyzed quickly for their CSR value.

Waldman, Siegel, and Javidan's (2004) strategic leadership theory moved CSR from a reactionary theory to a strategic tool for corporate leadership. Research by Waldman et al. appears to build on their theory by inserting new stakeholder constructs such as environmental stewardship, brand image, customer loyalty, and community mentorship.

As is evident, theory development of SR began with agency theory seeking to justify the value of SR activities in increasing profitability of a company. Increased social pressures have molded SR into a business activity by addressing the needs of stakeholders versus those of only the stockholders. Researchers postulated various theories to show the

relationship between stakeholder satisfaction and financial return. With these developments as a prelude, management and researchers signaled that SR activities are becoming a strategic tool rather than a reactive device.

Corporate Social Responsibility as a Strategic Tool

As discussed above, CSR as a way to influence customers and create a point of differentiation has become a common survival technique in the marketplace (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006). The critical set is to make certain that the CSR strategy fits the consumer and the product. Fit is important because if the cause does not match the customer and product then the overall relation or link to the product cause will never develop (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006). Motivation is defined as the core reason the firm is engaging in CRS practices. If the motivation is focused solely on short-term profitability, the cause relationship will fail; if the motivation is rooted in a core belief of enhancing the social aspects of improving society and connecting the consumer to the company and its employees, the cause relationship will be very strong. The CSR research method was developed as a quantitative research tool that included a sample of 28 participants. These participants ranked social responsibility-based attributes of eight companies including Disney, Home Depot, Toys R Us and Ford Motor Company. The data were then developed into an analysis of variance (ANOVA) design using a 2x-by-2x method of analysis with high fit versus low fit and profit motivated versus social interest. The most important finding of this very small study is that consumers expect firms to be involved in CSR initiatives and may reward them for these initiatives.

According to a study by Burke and Logsdon (1996), CSR strategies as a strategic benefit are not easily measured as a contribution toward the short-term bottom line. Financial return is extremely important in reinforcing the value of investment in CSR

activities to management and stakeholders. The study goes on to establish and articulate the five key pillars of a good CSR strategy: centrality, specificity, proactive management, voluntarism, and visibility (Burke & Logsdon, 1996).

CSR is the voluntary, self-regulated initiative to tackle everything from human rights and labor standards to green strategies such as reduction of carbon dioxide and sustainable farming (Doane, 2005). The assumption is the CSR firm is rewarded for their social efforts in the market through customer satisfaction and market incentives. Doane (2005) went on to identify “ethical minnows” (the small-product suppliers that operate under a CSR umbrella) and “corporate mammoths” (the entities that will always operate in the corporate structure and which require that all activities increase shareholder wealth). Although the ethical minnows appear to be the best change agents of the future, the consumer market does little to reward their efforts as it perpetuates the advantages of the low-cost, high-volume producer.

The greening of America has created a complex organizational buying process in which the producers have to balance cost versus market potential. According to Drumwright (1995), one of the biggest challenges to producers is implementing socially responsible practices while recouping programmatic costs in the selling of their goods. Gupta and Pirsch (2008) established the notion that the consumer’s image or perception of a firm is made up of two distinct components: corporate ability and CSR. Their research involved a sampling of students from a private college in the Northeast. In the study they examined the effects of consumers’ perceptions of the companies’ CSR strategies and the companies’ intention to engage in dialogic communication such as feedback and social media. The study provided empirical data that both Apple and Starbucks were perceived as strong companies that

executed CSR practices and that keep their customers loyal and engaged. The results showed that a strong CSR actually increased the firms' overall corporate ability rating.

CSR emerged as a key issue in publicly traded hotels and restaurant companies (Lee & Heo, 2009). A CSR strategy focused on green practices is especially important in the hotel industry. Lee and Heo's (2009) study examined the effects of positivity and negativity toward a firm in the hotel, restaurant, and casino segments based on its CSR strategy. The methodology included the use of three data sources: the KLD STAT for CSR data, the American Customer Satisfaction Index for service satisfaction, and Compustat for financial data. From this data a fixed-effect path-regression analysis of data was developed. The findings showed a positive linear relationship between CSR hotels and restaurant customer satisfaction and profitability. The airline industry data did not support CSR activities; this was most likely because of the negative media factors dealing with airline employee layoffs and airline financial failures. The casino segment also did show a relationship between CSR activities and customer satisfaction; this could indicate that gambling by nature is not considered to be a socially responsible industry. However, with a portion of the proceeds from casinos supporting local public schools and the general funds of local and state governments, further communication to customers could potentially change this mind set.

The data show that negativity regarding a company not perceived as embracing CSR practices will severely affect that company's customer satisfaction level and profitability. A strong, positive CSR corporate strategy is needed to balance out any potential perceived negative events, whether factual or not.

Brand Social Responsibility

Brown and Dacin's (1997) seminal work on corporate ability and CSR found that positive CSR associations can enhance product evaluations whereas negative CSR associations can have a negative effect on product evaluations. The researchers went on to determine that positive CSR associations significantly influenced consumers' response to new products (Brown & Dacin, 1997). Reich (2002) indicated that BSR image has an overall impact on the customer's view of product quality, service quality, and brand loyalty. There is a moderating effect of the inclination to reward BSR image, meaning that the customer rewards the company by either paying a premium for goods and services or increasing patronage. Reich's work in BSR image introduced the hospitality industry to a new method of building brand awareness and market share. Fleming et al. (2005) applied the human sigma approach to investigate employee and customer engagement. Their research found that 29% of the employees were engaged in their work, 54% of the employees were neutral, and 17% were disengaged and damaging to the firm. On the customer side, a fully engaged customer delivered a 23% premium over the average customer in share of wallet, profitability, and revenue. The actively disengaged customer represented a 43% reduction in share of wallet, profitability, and revenue. The research indicated that the engaged customer contributed 23% more to building sales. Current research in BSR image and in customer engagement provides limited proof that BSR image is a valid strategy to increase revenues and profit.

Quantifying Financial Results in Firms that Engage in CSR and BSR

Event theory studies focused on answering the basic question: Do companies do well by doing good? To date this has been a very difficult question to answer. Researching past

scholarly works has shown the most prevalent quantitative research method is linear regression modeling. Agency cost theory has focused on determining if CSR is positively correlated to a measure of profitability. Typically, return on assets is the dependent variable. Theory development that widened the responsibilities of the firm to stakeholders increased the complexity of the regression models by adding multiple independent variables. The major challenge researchers faced was identifying which dependent variables should be used for profitability. McWilliams and Siegel (2000) stated that most regression studies using a measure of profitability as the dependent variable were flawed. They stated that CSR has to be treated as an intangible cost similar to R&D and advertising. Building on their method of analyzing SR as an intangible cost, McWilliams and Siegel theorized using cost-benefit analysis as a management tool to determine what level of resources should be allocated to CSR activities. Their empirical method was easily adaptable to the multiple shifts in stakeholder needs in CSR and BSR. Their model was carried forward by Kang et al. (2010) in their analysis of U.S.-based hotel chains and provided an excellent model and process of determining the value of different constructs of CSR and BSR in the hotel industry.

The institutional theory cycled back to the construct that if a firm were engaged in SR activities, it should be rewarded by stakeholders. This reward should show an increase in transactions or the customer paying a premium for the product. McWilliams et al. (2006, p. 11) proposed using the hedonic method of pricing:

$$\ln \text{PRICE} = \beta_0 + \sum_{k=1}^K \beta_k Z_k + \varepsilon_i$$

The hedonic method uses the coefficient B to determine if customers are willing to pay for a given attribute. In SR, this model establishes whether the stakeholder is willing to increase

the payment to the firm for goods or services. Reich (2002) used the hedonic method to develop his research on rewarding BSR image, showing that customers would pay a premium for food products from firms that were socially responsible. The hedonic method is an important regression-based method to establish the potential return for engaging in SR activities.

LISREL, by Jöreskog and Sörbom (2002), was the initial development of linear regression path analysis, now called structural equation modeling (SEM). SEM has been used as a research method in SR in a number of studies. One of the most noteworthy is the study by Castaldo, Perrini, Misani, and Tecati (2009), who developed a simple structural model testing the relationship between trust in private-label fair trade (FT) products and willingness to purchase SR products (see Figure 1). The authors established four latent variables: brand loyalty, willingness to pay a premium, trust in FT, and consumer CSR. CSR showed a weak (.19) correlation with building trust in in-house FT products. Trust in FT showed a moderate (.39) correlation with in-house FT products. In-house FT products

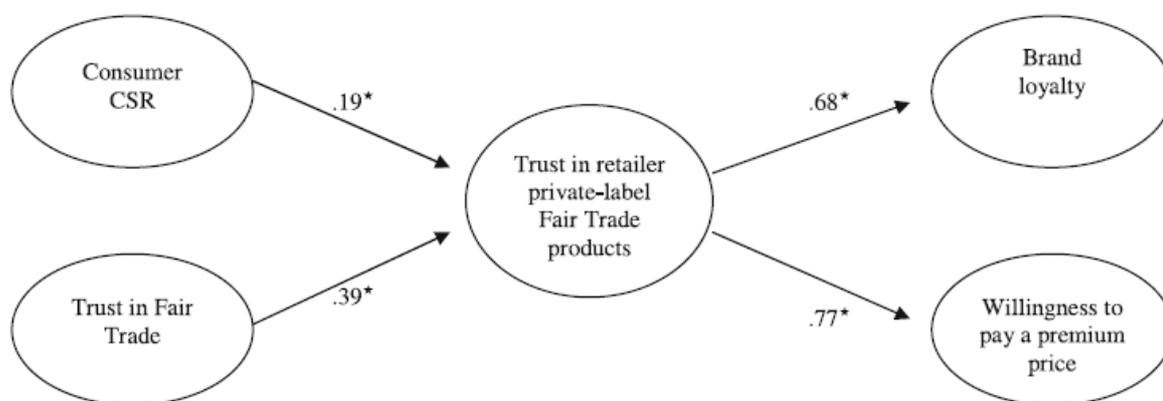


Figure 1. Structural equation model that includes the relationship between fair trade products and the willingness to purchase (adapted from Castaldo et al., 2009).

showed a .77 correlation with willingness to pay a premium price. This finding relates directly with hedonic price and ties back to the institutional theories of stakeholders' (customers') willingness to reinforce CSR activities.

Carter and Jennings's (2002) work regarding SR and the supply-chain relationship also utilized SEM. Their latent path model defined CSR as purchasing social responsibility and showed the relationship between buyers' trust, buyers' relationship commitment, cooperation among buyers, and supplier performance. Their methodology contained seven hypotheses and has important applications in SEM and SR. SEM appears to be an excellent method to research SR and may be preferred as the methodology used in the next wave of published research.

Sustainable Coffee

Coffee is grown in 60 countries worldwide by around 25 million farmers. Most farmers cultivate fewer than 10 hectares, or about 20 acres, of land (Bitzer et al.,2008). Small-scale family farms produce over 70% of the world's coffee in Latin America, Asia, and Africa. Arabica coffee beans, one of two main coffee varieties (the other being Robusta) are cultivated in Latin America, Ethiopia, and Kenya. Arabica is considered to be of higher quality than Robusta and is sold in specialty markets. Robusta beans, cultivated in Brazil, Vietnam, and Uganda, are sold at a slightly lower price. Major shifts in the quantity of green coffee beans produced have significantly reduced the wholesale price for beans that farmers receive. For example, Brazil has more than doubled the production of Arabica beans and now produces close to half the beans of this variety worldwide. As another example, Vietnam entered the coffee agriculture market less than 10 years ago and has helped depress wholesale prices with its extremely low labor costs. At the same time, a global consolidation

of coffee producers took place, such that by 1998 Philip Morris, Nestle, Sara Lee, Procter & Gamble, and Tchibo controlled 69% of the roasted and instant coffee market (Bacon, 2005).

With these and other changes in the global coffee market, the price of small farmer-produced, average-quality Arabica beans from Central and Latin America was the most negatively affected. Furthermore, the price of raw coffee beans had been governed by the International Coffee Agreement since 1960, but in 1989 this agreement collapsed and the balance of power shifted from the coffee development countries to the five large roasters that now control the worldwide coffee market. Another dramatic change in the market came as Vietnam and Nigeria established themselves as major new coffee producers, competing with the advantage of having the lowest labor costs of the coffee-producing developing countries, contributing to a further erosion of the developing countries' leverage against the five large roasters. These four factors contributed to a global overproduction and a drop in market price of lower grade coffee. Small farmers in Central American countries growing lower quality beans and lacking the efficiency of their new competitors were the most adversely affected by the collapse of wholesale prices.

Bitzer et al. (2008) offered a model for testing global commodity chain analysis and conventional theory. Their research method involved a qualitative research approach that compared developments in FT market strategy to buyer-driven governance of nongovernmental organizations. They analyzed 12 partnerships, including the Common Code for the Coffee Community, UTZ Certification (formerly UTZ Kapeh), and the Rainforest Alliance. From the analysis it was learned that coffee quality and sustainable (FT or organic) coffee are the only true differentiators in coffee bean production. Although these governance organizations' mission is to stabilize the price point of coffee beans, therefore

providing a living wage for peasant farmers and insuring that growing and production methods protect the environment, the mission only succeeds if the end customer embraces the mission and is willing to seek out and pay more for products representing those practices the mission promotes.

Coffee is one of the first agricultural products for which collective efforts to standardize processes that focus on socioeconomic and environmental concerns have been advanced. The primary strategy involved is to brand or certify coffee products as organic, FT, bird friendly, Rainforest Alliance, or UTZ (Giovannucci & Ponte, 2005). Organic coffees are certified based on production management and agricultural practices that promote natural soil activity and prohibit the use of agrochemicals. FT is an alternative approach to trade in which the small producer's livelihood and well-being are improved by increased market access by means of collective market approaches. FT effectively sets a fixed minimum wholesale price and establishes continuity in producer-to-market relationships. Bird friendly and Rainforest Alliance are designations that indicate shade-grown coffee, a growing approach that promotes the preservation of native trees that provide a protective canopy for coffee plants and protective cover and food for birds. UTZ Kapeh (known now as UTZ), originally a private certification for the Ahold Coffee Company, is now an independent foundation with a certifiable code of conduct for growing sustainable coffee.

Fair Trade

Fair trade emerged in the 1960s as an alternative market system. Its intent was to create a market for products from marginalized producers and workers and to guarantee these stakeholders a base price point that provides a basic standard of living. The initial structure of FT coffee did not take into consideration differences in product grades or quality control

(Renard, 2003). Through the efforts of nongovernmental organizations, a FT strategy was developed consisting of a certification-of-trade process, which holds that expanded trade will have social and environmental benefits for the farmer, producer, and consumer. Organic farming techniques, in which the agricultural process does not include chemicals and follows set regulations of farming practices, have filtered into the FT cooperatives over the years in the form of organic certifications.

Giovanucci and Ponte (2005) focused their research on how FT changed coffee farming in North Nicaragua and projected future trends regarding FT, organic, and specialty coffees in the region. Their qualitative research involved focus groups of Nicaraguan farmers, who completed a quantitative survey. The findings showed that 61% of the farmers grow 50% or more of their household food. Coffee, considered a cash crop, helped build schools, purchase land, and provide hope for the future. The higher the quality of coffee, the quicker it was sold and the higher price per pound it commanded. FT cooperatives serve to consolidate the holdings of small farmers and create access to coffee tasters who can grade the quality of their beans.

Valkila (2009) researched a total of 120 farmers in Nicaragua. Fifty-five were FT and organic, 16 were organic only, 39 were FT and not organic, and 10 were uncertified. The methodology used was a qualitative semistructured interview process. FT requires a grower to operate on a small scale and be a member of the local coffee-growing cooperative. Organic certification requires a grower to participate in a 3-year process prior to being certified. A number of the growers in the study who were FT were in the process of becoming organic certified. The key finding of the research showed that the average uncertified and FT yield was between 236 and 2,629 kg/ha versus the organic yield of 131 to

1,196 kg/ha. This result is significant for two reasons. First, it exposed the core point that some farmers in all the categories did not use technical assistance to enhance their yield. Second, it showed the most efficient method of increasing yield is to fertilize. However, fertilizer, both organic and chemical, is expensive and requires a financial investment. With access to capital difficult and with the grower in some cases using what capital was available to pay off debt or cover living costs, reduced yield for growers in a falling green coffee bean market can lead to increased debt and potential loss of property. In the research, there were strong perceptions on the part of growers that organic yields were almost barely half that of conventional yields. The data validates these perceptions. To increase yield, organic farming requires fertilizing methods that increased the labor costs of growing beans compared to the cost of using chemical-based fertilizers. Also, during the harvest of conventional beans, pickers picked a significantly higher number of beans in a given time period. This difference further increased the disparity of labor costs between conventional and organic production. With just a slight increase in the wholesale-per-pound price of organic beans, the overall perception of the growers was that organic beans were not the best method of increasing income to the farmer, in effect making the combination of FT and organic beans in the Nicaraguan growing region a poverty trap, in which the grower receives a set price for his organic beans, even as his increased labor costs in organic fertilizing and reduced picking do not financially balance the ledger.

FT has helped stabilize the coffee-growing region of Nicaragua (Wilson, 2010). Social development premiums paid by wholesale buyers have contributed to community-level programs for child education and health care, among others. However, FT has also increased the debt of the grower. In an unstructured qualitative interview research method

used to better understand the issue of debt, 120 personal interviews were performed in 12 months of field work between September 2006 and August 2007. The research findings point out that FT is not facilitating sustainable development in the coffee-growing regions of Nicaragua. FT cannot overcome declining production yields and increased labor and productivity costs associated with a higher standard of living. In short, FT has increased the living standard of the region but in so doing has driven up labor costs and reduced worker productivity, thereby lowering growers' returns and increasing their need for capital and level of debt.

Becchetti and Costantino (2008), building on Bacon's (2005) research, investigated the effects of FT in Kenya's coffee-growing region. Their research had a more balanced approach and showed both sides of the issue. The researchers pointed out that opponents of FT see FT as a distortion of market pricing that provides mistaken incentives to farmers that may increase their dependence on coffee beans that are being over-produced in a changing global market. The researchers developed a two-way ANOVA approach to show that access to certified markets has a positive effect on the selling price of green coffee beans. The study's sample population involved different levels of growers in the Ng'uuru Gakirwe Water Project who are part of the Meru Herbs producer organization. The results show that Kenyan farmers with FT affiliation linked their FT experiences to increases in overall economic and social well-being. On the other hand, the study pointed out that in improving the human capital side, mainly child labor and worker wages, FT affiliation did not prove effective. Another interesting finding was that FT-affiliated growers were more satisfied than were non-FT growers, even if income earned was not higher, because the FT affiliation

provided technical assistance, reduced trade risk, and assistance in increasing yield of food (i.e, non-coffee) crops.

Kolk (2005) reviewed the strategy of Oxfam' (a nongovernmental organization) to force four major multinational coffee manufacturers to adopt a code of conduct for dealing with small coffee producers and for improving global labor and working conditions. The first step of Oxfam's "Make Trade Fair" strategy was to establish a list of indicators to rank the current performance of the four multinational coffee manufacturers. This 100-point scale represented those manufacturers' current level of CSR. Although the tactic of ranking the multinational coffee manufacturers was successful, and Nestle, Proctor & Gamble, Sara Lee, and Philip Morris did adopt stronger codes of conduct for the coffee industry, Oxfam's actions did little to solve the real problem of low coffee-bean prices caused by overproduction of low-quality coffee beans. Given that worldwide coffee consumption is not expected to increase in the near future, this market condition will exist until some of the low-quality producers exit the market.

Servicescapes

Servicescapes are complex combinations of environmental dimensions, holistic environments, and the ways in which these surroundings' combinations are perceived and interpreted by employees and customers (Bitner, 1992). Appearing to parallel Baker's (1985) research on the three effects of environment ambient, social factors, and design factors, Bitner's (1992)work on the environmental dimension dealt with space/function, signs, symbols, and artifacts. The holistic environment involves bundling the environmental dimension into a total image perceived by the employee or customer. Employees and customers have separate and distinct internal responses to a venue's servicescapes. These

responses fall into three categories: cognitive, emotional, and physiological. Both employees and customers interpret these responses. The employee's behavior is to approach or avoid. Approach behavior can be affiliation, exploration, staying longer, commitment or carrying out the plan or vision of the organization. Approach behavior for the customer can be attraction, staying/exploration, spending money, or returning and carrying out the plan. These interactions involve the bonding of beliefs concerning the brand or product, and a long-term relationship can be developed. The employee avoidance behavior stems from the employee not being engaged in the goals of the organization. The employee in avoidance behavior effectively repels the customer from the establishment.

Kubacki, Skinner, Parfitt, and Moss (2007) researched the differences in servicescape between British and Polish nightclubs. Building on Bitner's (1992) work, their research first looked at the servicescape's environmental dimensions, especially place and music, then holistic dimensions, and finally, perceptions of customers. The research used a mixed method of research with four qualitative focus groups and a quantitative survey following the qualitative research. The results showed similar responses from the customers, with security being the top attribute. Seating, location of the dance floor, service offerings, and low alcohol prices were the most consistently highly ranked attributes in both countries. The research showed that, although the clubs were in different geographic markets, the same attributes were important. The study further showed that the exterior of a building draws patrons into an establishment and the appearance of a "smartly dressed" bouncer reduces the anxiety of being secure, especially to the female customer. Proper, effective seating arrangements in both countries' pubs were necessary to facilitate discussion and interaction among groups and individuals. This was especially important given the fact that most

patrons frequented the clubs with same-sex friends. The selection of music appeared to be related directly to the customer's attitudes and length of time spent in the establishment. The pricing and promotion of alcoholic beverages was seen as the next important attribute and only of value if the key elements of the servicescape dealing with place, function, and security were first established. The study by Kubacki et al. (2007), in particular findings relating to the physical arrangement of space and how the space's design helps facilitate social interaction, provides some understanding of the social aspect that in-house coffee shops play in a college campus environment.

Woo and Moon (2009) looked at the theme-based restaurant segment and examined the environmental elements as defined by Bitner (1992). The investigators provided an excellent typography of servicescape application and research in the hospitality industry. The first hypothesis of the research was that environmental elements would have a significant effect on the customer's perceptions of service quality and feeling of pleasure. The second hypothesis was that perceived service quality and pleasure feeling would have a positive influence on revisiting the establishment. The last hypothesis was that the theme of the restaurant and situational factors would stimulate revisiting the restaurant.

The research method included developing a quantitative survey that was administered through the Banff, Alberta, Tourism Information Centre. A total of 500 surveys were handed out and 220 were returned (a 44% response rate). The constructs were measured using a multi-item scale design. The measurement of the study was well developed using Baker's (1986) scale of overall environmental elements including overall lighting, temperature, aroma, and background music. The layout scale was developed from Bitner (1990) and dealt with the spatial relationship between walkways, service areas, tables, and seating. Seating

comfort and perceived service quality were adapted from Wakefield and Blodgett (1996). Pleasure-feeling was measured using the four items suggested by Ryu and Jang (2007). The final attribute, revisit intent, was measured using the scaled developed by Oliver and Swan (1989) and Zeithami, Berry, & Parasuraman (1996). The last stage of the research involved segmenting the theme-based restaurants into two tiers: strong entertainment value and weak entertainment value, strong being identified as major theme restaurants such as Planet Hollywood, Hard Rock Café and Rainforest Café and weak being identified as restaurants having regional, time-related, or symbolic themes.

The main conclusion and implication for industry and research was that there was no significant, direct relationship between environmental elements of servicescape and intent to revisit. The chi-squared difference test proved that even if a servicescape was dramatically designed, if other attributes of perceived service quality and pleasure-feeling were not improved, intent to revisit the restaurant did not increase. The major element mined in this research was that the servicescape and holistic matching of perceived service quality with product offering and employee involvement match to the theme of the restaurant. When the customer perceives that all elements listed are in harmony and provide a seamless experience, his or her pleasure-feeling scores were positive, evoking a revisit to the establishment in the future.

Social Media

Marichris and Kelleher (2009) studied the effect of social media by structuring their research on the findings of Finkelstein's (1992) theory of four types of decision-making power: structural power, ownership power, expert power, and prestige power. Structural power is formal power in the organization based on position and compensation. Ownership

power is shareholding or equity in the firm. Expert power is based on the contacts and relationships that develop over time or are amassed through educational experiences. Prestige power is based on association through powerful friends or a privileged background. Finklestein's findings showed the strongest relationship between prestige power and social media. Social media help drive the association to powerful friends or people from privileged backgrounds, such as school and alumni associations. Social media also appear to add to the reinforcement of expert power tools because of access to information and access to experts.

Xiang and Gretzel (2010) studied the use of social media in the research and booking of travel online. The study revolved around using keywords to do online research. The research method involved the analysis of 10,383 research results looking at 10 keyword associations. Of the sample, 11% ($N = 1,150$) of the searches were associated with social media. Of these social media searches, 40% were in virtual communities. These communities, such as igougo.com and lonelyplanet.com, are primarily a place to share users' vacation experiences. The next highest number of searches was focused on Zagat.com and tripadvisor.com, with a 27% share of social media usage. Zagat.com and tripadvisor.com offer the consumer a place to post reviews or obtain travel advice. The study's remaining search results were associated with general searches on websites such as Facebook and YouTube. The research illuminated the fact that social media are used, first, as a tool to build associations and, second, as a means to express one's experiences or perceptions. Social media will increasingly be used as places where the customer communicates to peers in a consumer-to-consumer or client-to-client (C2C) method (Xiang & Gretzel, 2010). In C2C, past and future experiences are shared with little or no involvement of the hospitality or tourism industry.

Because these experiences are consumer to consumer, little access to these customers in a traditional business-to-consumer (B2C) transaction takes place or is available. What, therefore, becomes of paramount importance is ensuring that the hospitality team is focused on providing a quality experience with little or no service-delivery failures.

The emergence of Internet-based social media has made it possible for one individual to communicate the existence of a product or service to hundreds or even thousands of other individuals, changing the way the culture looks at B2C and B2B (business-to-business) communication (Mangold & Faulds, 2009). The second aspect of social media—expressing one's experiences or perceptions—revolves around C2C communication. C2C communication can have far-reaching effects on brand, product, and customer perception seeing as the provider of the product or service does not have any influence over what is being communicated. Xiang and Gretzel's (2010) research suggested that social media will change the promotional mix as defined in the five P's of marketing (product, price, place, promotion, and people). As stated, the key challenge with social media is that one consumer can shape the perception of a product or brand by posting material using this electronic communication platform.

The key challenge is how to shape C2C communication to help communicate a firm's mission and ultimately achieve its performance goals. The first step is to provide the customer with a network platform to connect customers with other customers with similar likes and aspirations. The second step involves the use of blogging and other social media tools to engage customers. No matter what the method is, whether social media or direct communication, engaging the customer is the overriding goal. To that end, communication should be designed with a sense of exclusivity or entitlement much like a frequent-flyer or

loyal-marketing approach. Another key step toward shaping C2C communication is to develop talking points based on a customer's desired self-image. Customers need to perceive that the products offered fit their image in some way. Social media communication centers on a clear and concise connection, engaging customers with a company's product or brand by stimulating a strong self-image, cause-marketing partnerships, and the power of stores or blogs that represent a product or brand. From a BSR image standpoint, the cause-partner connection using the medium of social media to establish emotional ties with a customer offers a significant opportunity to industry practitioners.

Willingness to Pay for Fair Trade and Organic Products

Research by Loureiro and Lotade (2005) provided a rare, empirical, quantitative research method regarding consumers' willingness to pay for FT and organic products. The sample population was five markets, four located in Colorado and one in Wyoming. Survey instruments probed the willingness to pay regarding the purchase of FT, shade-grown, and organic coffee. The crucial valuation question was: "In order to buy fair trade, shade grown, or organic coffee, would you pay a premium over regular coffee prices?" The scale was set up such that it was acceptable to not pay a premium.

The research findings support the idea that consumers will pay more for FT products if the increased cost can be justified by a sense of altruism toward others. Willingness to pay more to protect the environment or wildlife was also supported. In both cases paying 20 to 40 cents per pound more for FT and shade grown coffee was acceptable to the predominately upper-income, female sample. Organic coffee rated significantly lower, ranking highest with consumers who showed a focus on health. The overall finding of this research was that

ethical and environmentally sound messages that FT and shade-grown coffee endorse may be powerful marketing strategies, more so than the message associated with organic coffee.

Brand Categorization

Howard (1963) conceptualized the awareness and unawareness sets of brands from the universe of brands available in the marketplace. This research was the cornerstone of the development of brand categorization. As described earlier, Howard noted that consumers choose from brand sets that they have some level of awareness of and suggested that there are three buying alternatives that can be part of the consumer's decision process.

Howard and Sheth (1969) developed the theory of buyer behavior (TBB). The TBB identifies the elements in the decision process as well as observations of changes in purchasing patterns over time and how the combination of decision elements affects the consumer's search methods and information gathering. The decision process is directly related to the cost and frequency of purchase of the product. Food service is a classic example of a process with either a short purchase cycle or a high-frequency product. The frequency-of-purchase decisions allow the consumer to store relevant information and establish a pattern or habit for this decision process. This stored information is segmented into the six aspects of the repetitive decision-making process: time pressure, financial status, personal trait, social and organizational setting, social class, and ethnic culture. Changes in purchasing patterns occur when consumers receive new information about products, experience product failure or lack of service, or undergo a change in their personal buying habits. Information gathering is further broken down into the consumer's commercial and social environment awareness. Commercial awareness develops into brand awareness, later

called “branding” (Ogilvy, 1985). Social environment awareness would later be called “brand social responsibility” or BSR (Reich, 2002).

The TBB model assumes that the rectangular box isolates the various internal endogenous variables and processes that explain the consumer’s behavior. The outputs’ exogenous variables explain the consumers’ interaction between their stimulation to purchase and their internal state. The model also expounds on seven exogenous variables located outside the rectangle of the box. They are: importance of purchase, personality variables, social class, culture, organization, time pressure, and financial status. The exogenous variables are a further refinement of Howard’s (1963) initial work with the six stages of repetitive decision making. The factors within the rectangular box are considered hypothetical constructs and are termed endogenous variables. Endogenous variables at the time of this model development were not well defined, and little study of them had been developed. The endogenous variables are: key learning constructs of motives, specific and not specific brand potential of the evoked set, decision mediators, predisposition toward brands, personal inhibitors, and satisfaction with the purchase of the brand. The variables are the constant thread in future brand categorization work. The first important finding from Howard’s work is that several variables had been historically considered endogenous variables, specifically, personality, social class, and culture. These findings are an important linkage for the integration of BSR with brand categorization.

Narayana and Markin (1975) developed an alternative conceptualization model that is a complete conceptualization of the positions of a brand within the consumer’s perception. The total set is the sum of all the brands within the category at any given time. The consumer in most cases will not be aware of all the brands within the category. This lack of

awareness leads to a split in the group between the brands of which the consumer has prior knowledge, specifically, the awareness set, and the brands of which the consumer has no knowledge, that is the unawareness set. The key point of this model is that brands in the unawareness set will not stimulate a consumer purchase. The marketer's responsibility is first to ensure that the consumer is aware of the brand.

One may build on Howard and Sheth's (1969) work that

there are three important notions involved in the definition of alternatives as brands.

First, the several brands which become alternatives to the buyer need not belong to the same product class. Second the brands which are alternatives of buyer's choice

decision are generally small in number, collectively called his "evoked set." Third,

any two consumers may have a quite different alternative in their evoked set. (p. 468)

Evoked stimulates the consumer to make a purchase but is not a constant state, whereas the inept subset (-) signals rejection by the consumer, with the only possible business strategy being reformulation of the brand and a new start in the model. The inert subset (0) is neutral, with the consumer neither making a purchase nor rejecting the brand. Depending on external competition, the introduction of new brands, and consumer experience (product and service quality), a brand could sink into the inert or, worse, into the inept subset. The alternative conceptualization model clearly points out to marketers that an evoked set brand requires constant management and resources to maintain its position.

Through a carefully developed empirical study, the authors were able to prove the validity of their model. The methodology used in proving the validity of the model also revealed that consumers have a predetermined amount of focus on brands for specific

products. The limited number of brands on which they focus will be from either the evoked or inept sets, leaving the rest of the brands in the inert set.

According to Brisoux and Larouche (1980), consumers are aware of two sets of brands: an awareness set and an unawareness set. The unawareness set contains brands of which the consumer is not aware or has no prior knowledge. The awareness set contains brands of which the consumer has some awareness or knowledge. If there is no awareness the brand will stay in the unawareness set until the consumer gains more knowledge of the brand. If there is awareness of the brand the consumer will move the brand to the “process set.” In the process set the consumer internally evaluates the brand. If there is very little knowledge the brand may sink to the foggy set. If the knowledge is positive the consumer may determine to move the brand to the evoked set and make a decision to purchase or utilize the brand’s product or service. If the previous knowledge is negative the consumer may place the brand in the reject set and not purchase from the brand. If there is not enough information or knowledge to move the brand to the evoked set the consumer may place it in the hold set. The hold set tends to suspend the brand and no action by the consumer will be made until new knowledge of the brand is received. Once the consumer has evoked the brand there is no guarantee that the brand will stay evoked. This clearly is based on the performance of the brand. If the consumer’s experience is positive, repeat purchases may be made; if the experience is not positive the brand can sink to the hold set or, worse, the reject set. Brands sinking to the hold set may reposition themselves as evoked. Brands that sink to the reject set have a very difficult time moving back to the evoked set.

Larouche, Kim, and Zhou (1996), building on previous research, examined the interrelationship of brand familiarity, brand confidence, brand attitudes, and purchase intent.

Their methodology involved research with four cold medicines. The survey instrument was a consumer survey consisting of brand-attribute questions using a nine-point Likert-type scale. The data were analyzed using SEM. The study proved that consumer confidence in a brand is a key determinant in purchase intent. It also showed that increased brand awareness correlates with higher consumer confidence, guiding the consumer to the evoked set. Depending on the product, providing consumers with more product-related information, advertising and sampling, a coupon, or direct experience can raise the consumer's confidence level.

Petrof and Daghfous (1996) conducted consumer research regarding branded and nonbranded grocery store foods. Their research method consisted of selecting grocery items through a phone survey. The survey process recorded whether or not the customer selected a branded product. Petro and Deghfous found that, of a potential market basket of 28 items, 7 of those evoked were the leading brand in their category. Soft drinks, laundry detergent, beer and wine, cereal, vegetable juice, and dishwashing detergent were shown to be products that were selected by brand name.

Larouche and Toffoli (1999) tested the Brisoux–Larouche method (B–L method; 1980) and the Bliemel (1984) price-quality (BPQ) evaluation model in the context of a choice of fast-food restaurants. The B–L method was extensively researched to better understand the hold set. The study found that consumers could have a positive attitude toward a brand and still place the brand in the hold set. The factors contributing to this decision could be a lack of price/value, flavor, food preference, or something else that triggered the consumer to place this brand in the hold set. In addition, the consumer may have placed the brand in the hold set based on negative comments heard about the brand or

an unfavorable personal experience that was not severe enough to move the brand to the reject set. Finally, the consumer may be truly neutral toward the brand. Brand neutrality is a situation in which the brand is neither evoked nor rejected. Neutrality normally occurs when products or services are acceptable but don't motivate the consumer or when there is insufficient information available regarding the brand. In all three sets of circumstances, the brand can easily slip back into the foggy set or move into the reject set. The critical lesson revealed in the Larouche and Toffoli study is that brands in the hold set will not rise to the evoked set unless new offers or positive and motivating communication regarding the brand reaches the consumer. The BPQ model portrays the hold set as being the same size as the evoked set. The reject set is displayed in two areas on the utility-of-price linear line. On the low end, the reject set is based on low quality and low price. On the high end, the rejection is based on high price inconsistent with the quality or service received.

The revised BPQ model showed the consumers receiving more information, having multiple experiences with certain brands, or perceiving an increase in the number of brands with the same price/quality, the evoked set as being reduced, and the hold set splitting to develop a lower hold set and an upper hold set. The lower hold set is populated with brands with low price, low quality, and low brand awareness. The upper hold set is populated with brands with higher brand awareness and higher cost than the utility of the product warrants. As the brands become more generic, the price–quality–function frontier tends to track more closely with the utility-of-price “linear” line. The frontier curve reflects the highly perceived brands that exhibit a higher level of quality in comparison to their price. This curve, above the linear utility line, is the preferred brand position.

Bliemel (1984) developed a sampling methodology that listed major fast-food restaurants and requested that customers rate brands using a series of questions with responses on a nine-point Likert-type scale. These questionnaires were then analyzed and graphically plotted. The results validated the evoked-set frontier conceptualized in the BPL model. It is important to note that low-end, intermediate, and leading brands were all rated by consumers as evoked. The highly populated intermediate brands positioned in evoked and hold sets will experience potential slippage of brand sets if coupled with noneffective communication strategies or a low level of product quality or execution levels.

The study revealed that the Brisoux–Larouche (1980) brand categorization process and the Bliemel (1984) price–quality model worked well in researching the purchase of fast food by using the two models and plotting the brands by low-end brands, intermediate aggregate price–quality map of brands classified as evoked, hold, and reject by all members. An important brand diagnostic tool was created and, most revealing, the price–quality frontier could be further developed to identify opportunities with brands deploying a brand social responsible image strategy, leading to empirically proving the hypothesis that the curved frontier line reflects consumers’ price elasticity to reward BSR image as noted by Reich (2002).

Larouche and Parsa (2000) researched 16 quick service restaurants. Their methodology involved surveying 18- to 25-year-olds, commonly identified as high-frequency users of quick-service restaurants. The survey tool consisted of a five-part survey that included specially formulated questions to prove the existence of the four awareness sets of the B–L model. The four sets included the evoked, foggy, hold, and reject sets. The survey tool was developed with responses on a nine-point Likert-type scale. The results empirically

validated the existence of the four awareness sets. The mean set size or number of brands in each set was 6.60 for evoked, 3.34 for hold, 2.86 for foggy, and 4.13 for reject. The data set was further refined to observe the net utility value of the three additional levels of brand: leading, intermediate, and low. This process allowed for the research of leading brands compared to low-awareness brands in each of the four awareness sets.

The authors' findings significantly affected branding in hospitality. The larger national restaurant brands and market-share leaders with substantial financial and greater marketing resources can stimulate awareness at the expense of the local restaurant or brands with less penetration or market presence. The brands with greater marketing resources and numbers of units effectively represent a double jeopardy for the smaller regional chains or local restaurants. The smaller restaurant operators don't have the resources to build their awareness or the number of units to create awareness.

In order to move to the evoked set, the smaller chains and local restaurants must build awareness; without multiple units and market penetration they cannot out-spend the large national brands and risk sinking into the hold or foggy set. "Local brands can compete with the national brands and market-share leaders if they . . . adapt niche-marketing and other appropriate marketing strategies" (Larouche & Parsa, 2000, p. 17). The development of niche-marketing strategies could be updated to include the communication and consumer acceptance of a BSR strategy.

Larouche, Kim, and Matsui (2003) conducted an empirical study of consumers' use of five heuristics (conjunctive, disjunctive, lexicographic, linear additive, and geometric compensatory). Working with these construct they developed a research method that utilized a decomposition approach to determine consumers' methods of choice of quick-service

restaurants and beer. The two product groups were tested for data sets of previous research on beer and quick-service restaurants. The research showed that the conjunctive decision-making process was commonly used by consumer groups selecting beer and quick-service restaurants. The conjunctive decision-making process involves the consumer determining a cut-off point for each salient or consumer-based value perception. If a brand does not make the cut-off point it is quickly dropped into the hold or reject set. When the consumer has multiple brands that pass the conjunctive decision set, then he or she will incorporate the lexicographic rule—the next most important salient will be identified and the cut-off point will be established. This process continues until the consumer makes the final purchase decision. Larouche et al.'s (2003) findings reinforce the fact that consumers will quickly reduce their brand options to a select few, as perceived by Howard (1963). The conjunctive and lexicographic rules pattern exactly as the B–L model was developed for the three levels of brand awareness: aware–not aware, process–foggy, and evoked–hold or reject.

Larouche, Takahashi, Kalmas, and Teng (2005) researched the applicability of linking the B–L model to the extended competitive vulnerability (ECV) model. Their objective was to further understand consumer brand preferences and develop a tool to directly compare competitive brands based on a series of four attributes. The research was conducted on Japanese college students' perceptions of fast food. The ECV model probes consumer perceptions regarding competing brands by gauging the attributes of cognition, attitude, confidence, and intention. The model allows the researcher to look at two brands in a side-by-side manner and determine the strengths and weakness of both brands. The authors developed the hypotheses directly correlating the ECV to the BL model by taking the four

levels of brand awareness and establishing theoretical values for the four attributes in the ECV model.

The survey instrument was developed from a series of questions relating to 12 quick-service restaurants operating in Japan. The students were asked to complete a 12-page survey with responses on a 7-point Likert-type scale. The results were then analyzed using a three-step process. ANOVA was first performed to examine the ECV attributes—cognition, attitude, confidence, intention—across the four sets of B-L model awareness. Next, a structural equation model was developed in order to test the relationship among the constructs. Finally, a graphic model comparing the two competitive brands was developed.

This model clearly communicated in statistical numbers the consumer ratings of cognition, attitude, confidence, and intention. As such, the model provided industry brand managers with an excellent tool to visually map out their competition. The findings showed that consumers' cognitive assessments of a brand affect their attitudes and confidence toward the brand and, most critically, their purchase intent. These results and the ECV model provide an excellent bolt-on competitive tool to the B–L model and offer additional levels of understanding of how consumers process and make decisions as they travel through the brand-awareness steps identified in the B–L model.

Yoon, Thompson, and Parsa (2009) researched the B–L model in a study of 16 quick-service restaurants utilizing a methodology developed with a Bayesian statistical approach. The research tool generated was a 17-page, close-ended questionnaire measuring frequency of visits, attitudes, intentions, and perceptions of 16 national, regional and local brands located in the northeastern United States. The five restaurants with the lowest brand awareness were dropped from the analysis. The methodology was consistent with the

conjunctive decision method first identified by Howard (1963). The survey instrument was developed as a nine-point semantic differential scale and was used for each of the 11 brands. The instrument measured service speed, variety of menu, taste, friendliness, price, food quality, and location. The findings showed quick-service restaurant users' evoked sets were based on the brands' ability to offer meal options that were served fast, had good taste, provided value for the price, offered a perceived level of quality, and provided a convenient location. The menu variety and the friendliness of the employees were not noted as important to the consumers when selecting brands for their own personal evoked set. Simply stated, the findings showed that when consumers are looking for higher levels of service and wider variety of menu options, they engage in a higher level of restaurant options, such as leisure-service restaurants. Brands are placed in a consumer's hold set due to uncertainty about the brand or prior experience with the brands' reputation, speed, taste, quality of food, and location. Poor food quality is the most commonly cited reason for a consumer to place a brand into the rejection set. Close behind food quality is the taste of food, speed of service, and convenience of location. Price contributed significantly to consumer cognition only; therefore, deep discounts and price wars will do very little to help move a brand's place from the reject set to the evoked set. Operational teams in quick-service restaurants need to concentrate on providing quality food, served fast from a limited menu, and at a convenient location.

The B-L model has spanned 30 years of development in consumer brand research and development. The brilliance of Howard (1963) in hypothesizing consumers' ability to choose only a few brand sets led to the step method of brand categorization developed by Brisoux and Larouche (1980). The B-L model is a simple construct that is adaptable enough

to allow bolt-on applications such as price–quality, product performance, consumer heuristics, and competition comparison. The primary developers of this model have been quite astute in continually reinventing the model with applications of new theories in brand–product management and food service.

The integration of a model utilizing BSR image as a method of achieving a distinct advantage in conjunctive decision-making and rapidly moving to the evoked set is timely and applicable in today’s market. Reich’s (2002) work involving intent to reward the brand social responsible image fits directly into the Bliemel (1984) price-quality model as the explanation of why consumers will pay additional money for brands that fit in the frontier curve above the value–utility linear line. The review of this research has been exciting and stimulating; moreover, the basics of food service operations are empirically proven in the research reviewed. In quick-service restaurants the brand must be executed with quick service, good taste, great quality, and in a convenient location to stay in the evoked set. The BSR strategy may be seen as a strategy to get into the evoked set with limited mass-media funds, but staying in the evoked set requires a solid focus on the basics of quick-service restaurants. Further research into other food service segments, such as the coffee/bakery restaurant or the leisure service restaurant, will show changes in consumer brand attributes and preference. The model and processes outlined in this research will be applicable to building a base for future research in BSR.

Trust and Brand Loyalty

The importance of brand loyalty has been recognized in marketing literature for at least three decades (Howard & Sheth, 1969, p. 232). Brand loyalty has marketing advantages that lead to increased sales from current customers, new customers, competitive advantages,

and lower marketing costs. Oliver (1999) defined brand loyalty as “a deeply held commitment to rebuy or repatronize a preferred product/service consistently in the future, thereby causing repetitive same-brand or same brand-set purchasing, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behavior” (p. 34)

Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001) developed their brand loyalty and brand performance model and proved it empirically using a path analysis (LISREL 8.14) with data from 146 consumer products. As shown in Figure 2, the model of brand loyalty and brand preference starts with the product’s being utilitarian or hedonic and then shows the relationship between brand trust and affect. Based on the performance of the product, purchase and attitudinal loyalty can be

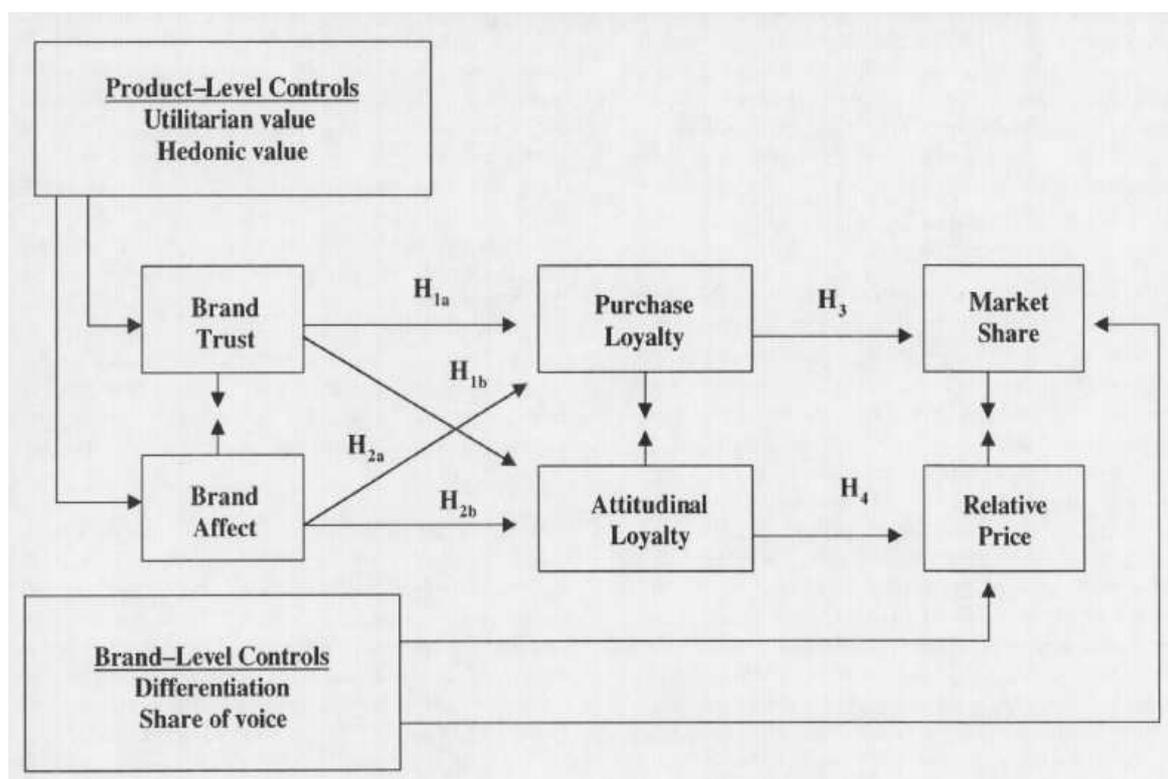


Figure 2. Model of brand loyalty and brand performance (adapted from Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001).

developed. If purchase loyalty is formed, this bond develops repeat transactions, increasing the firm's market share. If an attitudinal loyalty is forged then the product moves from utilitarian or hedonic and the relative price could be at a premium. Two external factors, differentiation and share of voice, influence market share and relative price. The model hypothesizes that brands high in customer trust and affect are linked through both attitudinal and purchase loyalty. The basis for developing brand loyalty is trust, the latter defined by Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, and Camerer (1998) as "a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based on positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another" (p. 395).

Viewing the Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001) model (Figure 2), one sees how the different product levels utilitarian value, for a product that is a commodity, and hedonic value, for a product that has a significant relationship to the consumer, funnel through the model, first developing brand trust and brand affect. Doney and Cannon (1997) pointed out that trust is a building process based on the ability of the product to meet the customer's obligations. Brand affect is defined as the positive emotional response a product or service created in the consumers' mind.

Doney and Cannon (1997) identified brand affect as a benevolence the brand has to the customer to act in the customer's best interest by providing goods and services that are reliable, safe, and truthfully represented. Once the product is recognized by the customer, the ability to build either purchase or attitudinal loyalty can occur. Realize the ability to build purchase loyalty increases market share, whereas attitudinal loyalty increases the relative price of the product or service. Two external factors, differentiation and share of voice, tend to balance the effect of market share and relative price. Differentiation sets the product or

service apart from the rest of the offerings in the marketplace, enforcing relative pricing and helping to keep market share from eroding to competitors. Share of voice keeps the product or service at the “top of mind” with the customer and minimizes switching to competitors, which reduces market share, and enhances the price/value relationship to shore up the relative price. Research by Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001) clarified the proposed process of how brand trust and brand affect are developed. This researcher believes there is a direct connection with brand pretrust and affect and the B–L model for brand social responsibility research.

Singh and Sirdeshmukh’s (2000) research combined two distinct approaches to loyalty: agency theory and trust research. Agency theory is an economic approach that states that the agent or service provider has a surplus of goods or will provide service to the consumer. This agency exchange is based on the consumer’s trust in the agent to provide the product or service and the agent having a benevolent attitude toward the consumer. The trust component involves pretrust/distrust before the product or service has been provided and satisfaction from the purchase posttrust developed from the experience.

The model proposed by Singh and Sirdeshmukh (2000) is shown in Figure 3. Agency mechanisms appear at the beginning of the model; signal investments refer to branding elements such as signage, and price premiums relate to pricing based on the trust level of the agency; pre-encounter trust/distrust is based on the operational competency and benevolence of the agent; satisfaction is based on the service or product provided; post-encounter trust/distrust balances the competency and benevolence perceived versus that received. If the customer’s experience is positive and the product purchase is repeatable, loyalty can be developed. Singh and Sirdeshmukh’s (2000) model, although not empirically proven, has

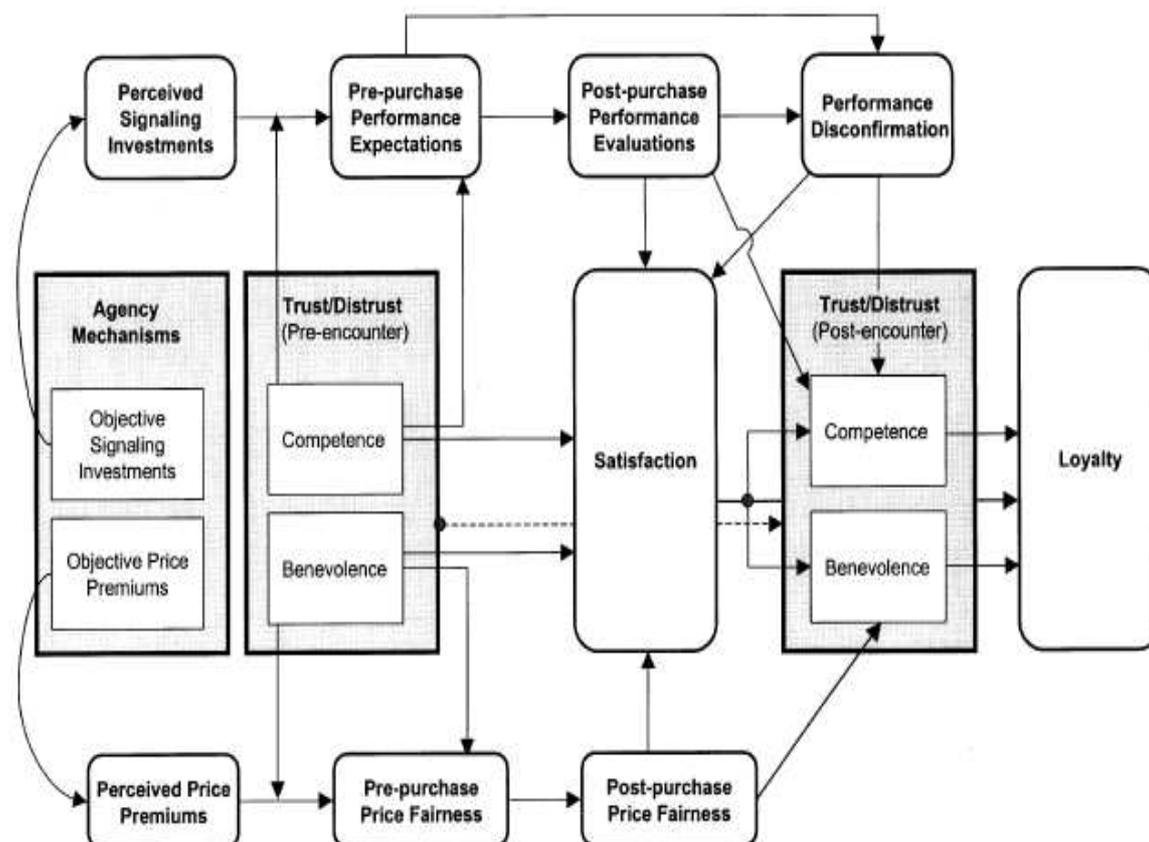


Figure 3. Framework for the interrelationship among trust, agency mechanisms, and their influence on satisfaction and loyalty (adapted from Singh & Sirdeshmukh, 2000).

some interesting aspects. First, the agency relationship provides the assumption that the agent will act in the best interest of the customer. The customer will reciprocate this trust by purchasing products and services and becoming loyal. The first responsibility for the agent is to provide an objective, signal investment, commonly known as a branding element such as a sign, building design, or servicescape (discussed later in this review; Bitner, 1992). The second responsibility of the agent is to perform a competitive price comparison to determine if the price presented is of equal quality and value in the market place. Based on these prerequisites, the customer will then review the competency and benevolence of the

agent. If competence and benevolence align with the expectation of the customer, the transaction will take place and the goods or service will be exchanged for compensation to the agent. Based on the customer's experience, he or she will gauge the satisfaction of the transaction and match the pretrust with the posttrust. If these experiences match and satisfaction is achieved, the customer and agent could develop loyalty. However, this loyalty does not necessarily mean the customer will repeat the purchase or provide positive word of mouth regarding his or her experience with the agent.

Although as noted previously, Singh and Sirdeshmukh's (2000) research is not empirically proven, the complexity of the model would prove it to be very difficult to achieve this due to the number of variables and action steps in the model. There are several key elements of the two researchers' work that emulate our B-L model process. First, the sustainable coffee shop is in fact an "agent" trying to provide and protect the customer and his supplies in a benevolent manner. Second, because of these activities a certain level of both pre-encounter competency and benevolence exists. Third, the post-encounter phase provides the same decision process as the evoke, hold, and sink sets in the B-L model.

Sirdeshmukh, Singh, and Sabol's (2002) work developing a framework to understand the behaviors and practices service workers need to provide goods or a service and build consumer trust, convert trust to value and ultimately manifest loyalty. Their framework also identified the pitfalls or moments of truth where trust is lost, value is eroded, and the loss of positive relationships erodes loyalty. Their research was conducted in two service segments: the retail clothes segment and the airline industry. The methodology involved a mixed approach starting with qualitative research including focus groups and a series of quantitative research approaches utilizing a confirmatory SEM technique.

As shown in Figure 4, the Sirdeshmukh et al. (2002) model starts with the separating dimensions of trustworthiness into three components: operational competency, operational benevolence, and problem-solving orientation. Management practices and policies (MPPs) are clearly more important to the process than are front-line employees (FLEs) due to management's loyalty overall impact on front-line employees. In effect, the customer is rating management and front-line employees on their trustworthiness through three areas of the process. The MPPs and FLEs both can be considered the service provider throughout the rating process. Operational competency is the process by which management or front-line employees technically provide the product or service. In the food service industry these activities would be standard operating procedures. Basic standard operating procedures would include greeting the customer and presenting a neat and organized work or service area. The operational benevolent competency defines how trustworthy the customer perceives the front-line employee and management. "Trustworthiness has been defined "to include FLE behavior and MPPs that indicate a motivation to safeguard customer interest" (Sirdeshmukh et al., 2002, p. 17). Benevolent action builds goodwill between the service provider and the customer, thus developing trustworthiness. Problem-solving competency involves the FLE or MPP making adjustments to the operational competencies to better fit the needs of the customer. These adjustments, as they relate to the food service industry, can be seen as simple requests, such as providing menu items that do not contain ingredients to which the customer has said he or she is allergic. These problem-solving actions are often an extra cost or effort to the service provider and may or may not involve additional compensation by the customer. The performance of the MPP and FLE to build trust flows into the section defining the value the service provider provides to the customer. If the value

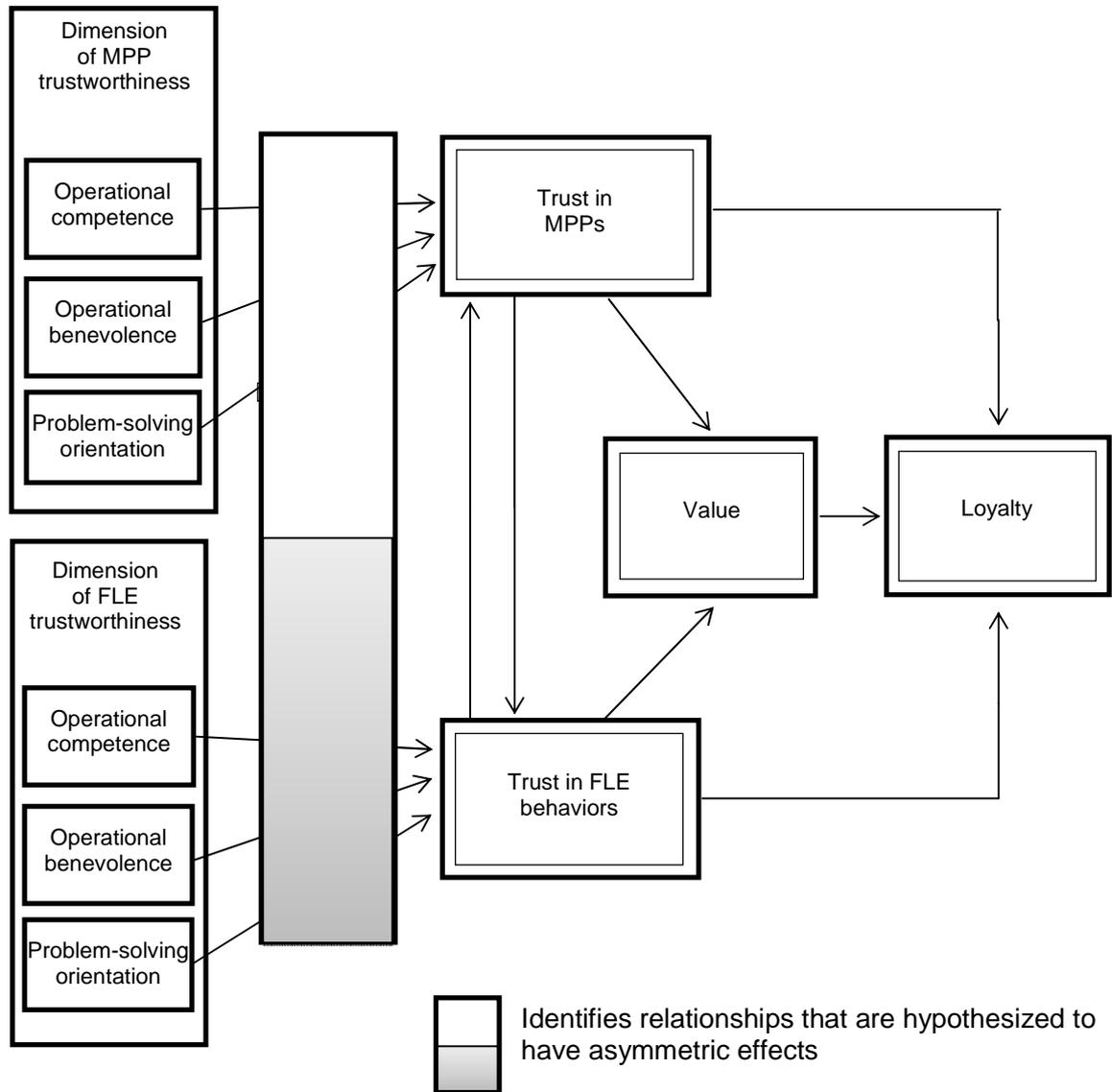


Figure 4. The empirical model tested for estimation of the interrelationships among trustworthiness, trust, value, and loyalty (adapted from Sirdeshmukh et al., 2002).

is utilitarian, as defined by Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001), there will be many options and switching will most likely occur. If a hedonic relationship develops, meaning the customer becomes attached to the service provider through all of the three competencies noted, then the service provider could develop brand loyalty with the customer. Brand loyalty in the hospitality industry is an ongoing relationship in which each interaction with the customer can increase or deplete the trust in the relationship. The results of Sirdeshmukh et al.'s (2002) research empirically validated the model and framework. More importantly, the work developed a fine-grained understanding of the trust-building and trust-depletion process that correlates with to evoke, sink and reject stages of the B–L model.

Dick and Basu's (1994) research on customer loyalty led to an understanding of the conceptual framework for understanding loyalty. As shown in Figure 5, the framework provides an understanding of the three key antecedents: cognitive, affective, and conative. The loyalty relationship starts based on a product or service provider satisfying the customer's individual needs,. If the customer's experience is positive and is balanced between social norms and situational influences, repeat patronage can exist, depending on the product. Loyalty is developed and acts as a shield to reduce competitors' ability, capacity, and power to persuade the customer to switch or the consumer to look for alternative options.

Assuming the relationship has developed posttrust and value, this research helps understand the three components of loyalty: cognitive, affective, and conative antecedents. Dick and Basu (1994) defined cognitive antecedents as accessibility, confidence, centrality, and clarity, with accessibility being the customer's ability to retrieve information from memory; confidence, the level of certainty associated with the attitude or evaluation of the information; centrality, the attitude toward the brand based on the value system of the

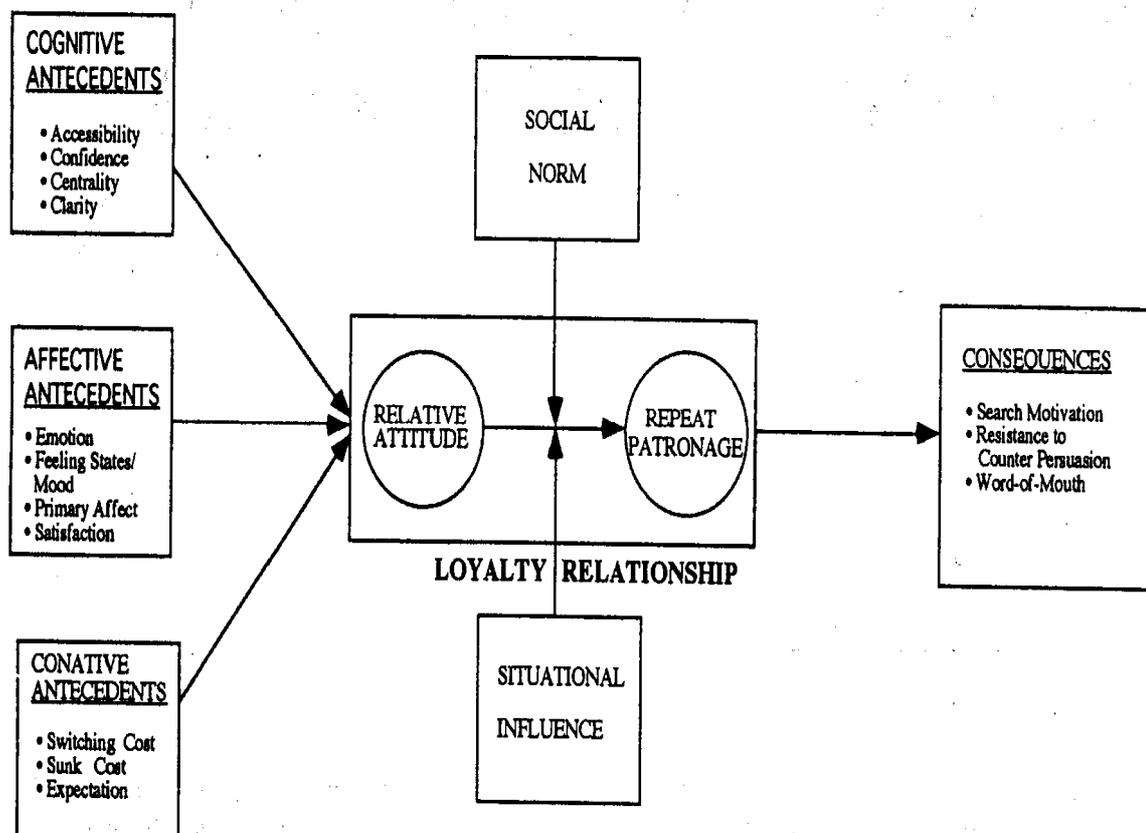


Figure 5. A framework for customer loyalty (adapted from Dick & Basu, 1994).

customer; and clarity, the ability of the brand to have a clear and central message. They defined affective antecedents as emotion or intense state of arousal; mood, the less intense state of emotion that is temporary and less disruptive; primary affect, the physiological need of the customer, such as food and water to survive; and satisfaction, matching the expectations to the perceived performance. Conative antecedents are switching cost, sunk cost, and expectations. Switching costs are one-time costs facing the buyer switching from one supplier to another. Sunk costs are the investments the buyer or seller have made in the process that will not be recouped. Expectations reflect the current and expected fit between the marketplace and the needs of the consumer. The combination of cognitive, affective, and

conative antecedents develops the customer's relative attitude toward the service or product provided. The customer balances the two external factor's social norms. These are to comply with social acceptance and situational factors in extraneous events that change the attitude-behavior relationship. When the product or service is not a one-time purchase, repeat-purchase behavior can exist if a loyalty relationship exists. The beneficial consequences of loyalty to the seller are the customer's internal defenses to protect his or her loyalty to the brand and may include any or all of the following: search motivation, a function of the customer's perceived benefits and cost of the search activity; resistance to counter-persuasion from competitors or substitution products, as loyalty tends to increase the customer's selectivity to messages, bias cognitive responses, or word-of-mouth messages.

Dick and Basu (1994) proposed that brand loyalty should be greater where products or services create a positive emotional mood or brand affect. BSR products such as coffee can provide a positive, warm feeling with the buyers/customers knowing that they have done their part to make a better world. Based on Dick and Basu's research, one could perceive this could also increase brand loyalty in social responsible coffee shops.

Howard's (1963) seminal work on brand categorization indicated that "consumers consider only a few alternatives instead of the total set when they simplify and manage their brand choice" (p. 164). He divided the total set into an awareness set and an unawareness set. He also noted that consumers choose from brand sets of which they have some level of awareness and suggested that there are three important buying alternatives that can be part of the consumer's decision process. These alternatives do not have to be in the same class. For example, in one alternative, a lunch meal purchase could be a hamburger or a slice of pizza. In a second alternative, the consumer's choices could generally be a small number of options,

called an “evoked set,” representing only a fraction of the number of brands available. In a third alternative, a consumer could have a distinct perception of what brands should be included in the evoked set.

Brisoux and Larouche (1980) developed the Brisoux–Larouche (B–L) model of brand categorization (Figure 6). This model takes the awareness set identified by Narayana and Markin (1975) and divides it into two sets: a processed set and an unprocessed set. The unprocessed set is labeled “foggy,” that is, brands consumers know exist but about which they lack enough information to recall or categorize them within other brand groups.

Although consumers vaguely recognize these brands, the intent to purchase is not developed.

Some specific reasons why a foggy set could exist include the fact that consumers have not seen any advertisement about the brands or do not remember seeing any, or if they do, the advertisements were not informative enough to allow them to judge the brands; the fact that they have not tried some of these brands, or if they had personal experience with them, it was inconclusive; they do not remember whether anybody has mentioned them, consumed them, or ordered them. (Brisoux & Larouche, 1980, pp. 112-114)

To reach the processed set, a brand must satisfy the customer’s initial knowledge of the brand. The processed set is the consumer’s decision point and follows the thread identified by Howard (1963) and Narayana and Markin (1975). The B–L model delineates the processed set into three subsets: evoked or consideration, hold, and reject. Consumers process all their attitudes, confidence levels, and purchase intents toward brands reaching the processed level. The hold set correlates directly to the inert model, and a non-decision to accept or reject the brand has taken place. The reject set is consistent with the inept set. The

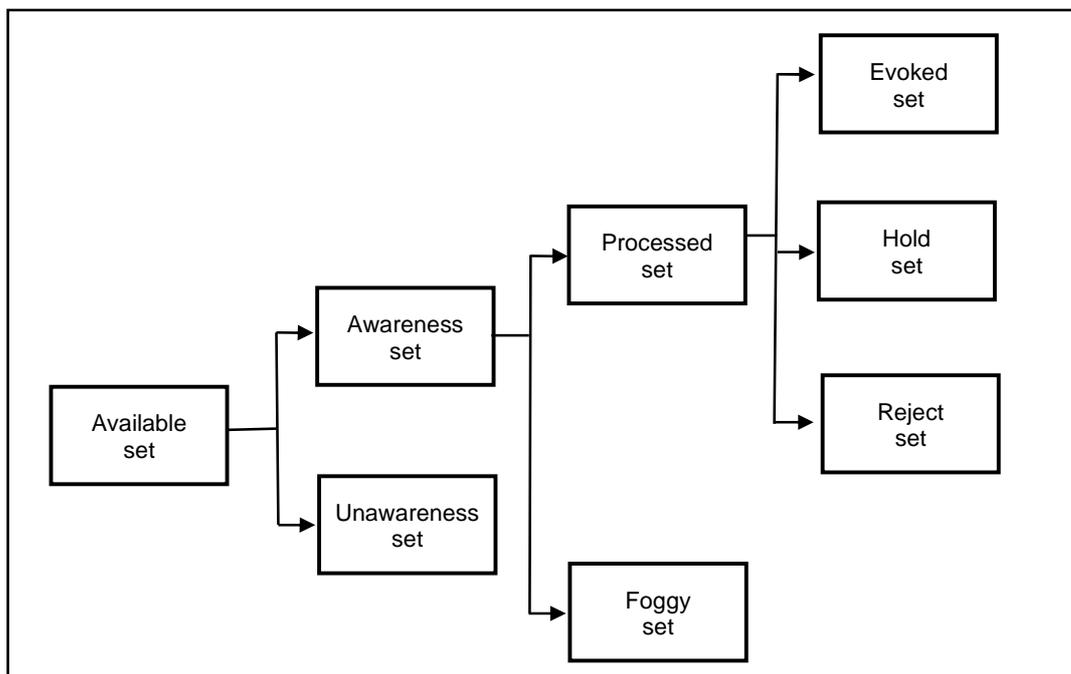


Figure 6. Brisoux–Larouche model of brand categorization (adapted from Brisoux & Larouche, 1980, pp. 112-114).

B–L model provides the brand manager a clear, linear steppingstone to move an unknown brand to the point of consumer acceptance and purchase.

The B–L model has spanned 30 years of development in consumer brand research and development. The brilliance of Howard (1963) in hypothesizing consumers’ ability to choose only a few brand sets led to the step method of brand categorization developed by Brisoux and Larouche (1980). The B–L model is a simple construct that is adaptable enough to allow for bolt-on applications such as price–quality, product performance, consumer heuristics, and competition comparison. The primary developers of this model have been quite astute in continually reinventing the model with applications of new theories in brand-product management and food service. The integration of a model utilizing brand social responsible (BSR) image as a method of achieving a distinct advantage in conjunctive

decision-making and rapidly moving to the evoked set is timely and applicable in today's market. Reich's (2002) work involving intent to reward the BSR image fits directly into the Bliemel (1984) price-quality model as the explanation of why consumers will pay additional money for brands that fit in the frontier curve above the value-utility linear line. The review of this research has been exciting and stimulating; moreover, the basics of food service operations are empirically proven in the research reviewed. In quick-service restaurants the brand must be executed with quick service, good taste, great quality, and a convenient location to stay in the evoked set. The BSR image strategy may be seen as a strategy to get a brand into the consumer's evoked set with limited mass-media funds, but staying in the evoked set requires a solid focus on the basics of quick-service restaurants. Further research in other food service segments, such as the coffee/bakery restaurant or the leisure service restaurant segments, will show changes in consumer brand attributes and preferences. The model and processes outlined in this research will be applicable to building a base for future research in BSR. The second objective of the study, captured in the proposed hypotheses, is to test the influences of social responsibility on the evoked set, hold set, and reject set.

Evoked Set in the Brisoux-Larouche Model

The first step in moving a product into potential customer's evoked set is to develop awareness (Figure 7). "Awareness is achieved by creating a method to stimulate the customer to take notice of the brand or draw attention to it" (Brisoux & Larouche, 1980, p. 113). The second step is for the customer to increase his or her interest in the brand and gather more information. This process moves the brand to the process set. In this set, if the information gathered is enough to stimulate action or purchase intent the customer will

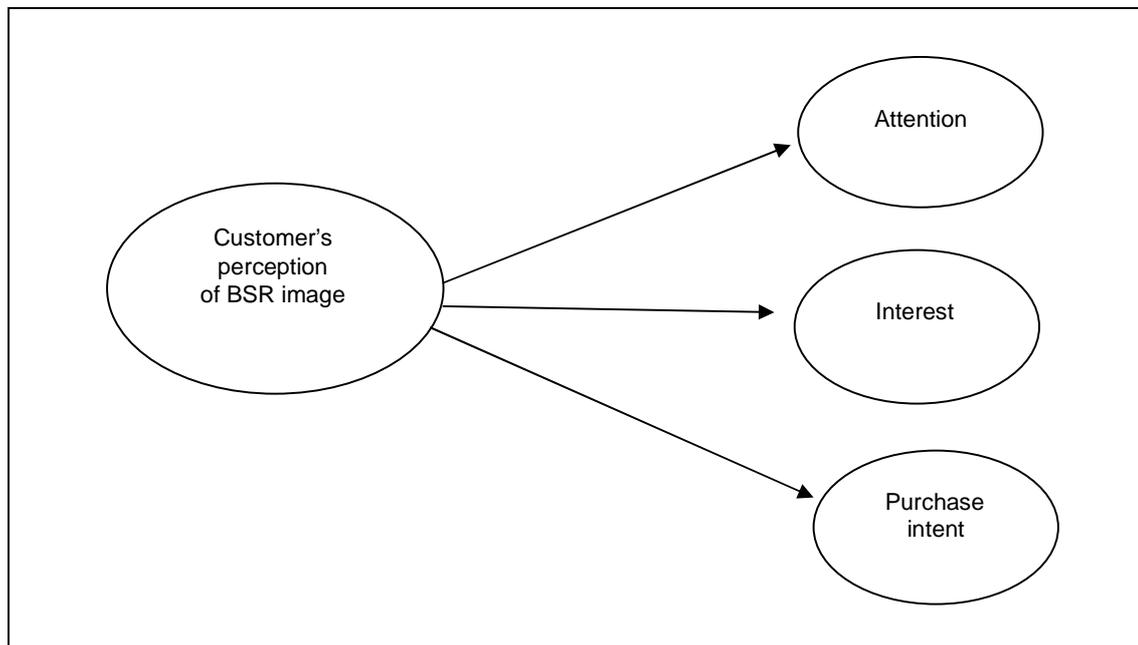


Figure 7. Conceptual model of the evoked set.

purchase a product or service. If there is not enough information or the message is unclear, the brand will sink to the foggy set. Being in the evoked set means the customer has made the decision to purchase the product or service. Customers have a small set of brands they will choose from the process set. The evoked set will be unique to each customer. Because a food service product is not a single purchase product, it is critical to keep the product in the evoked set and establish a relationship with the customer with the goal of building repeat business.

In this study, it is proposed that an effective BSR image can draw the attention of customers and stimulate enough interest for the customer to move the product into the evoked set (Figure 8).

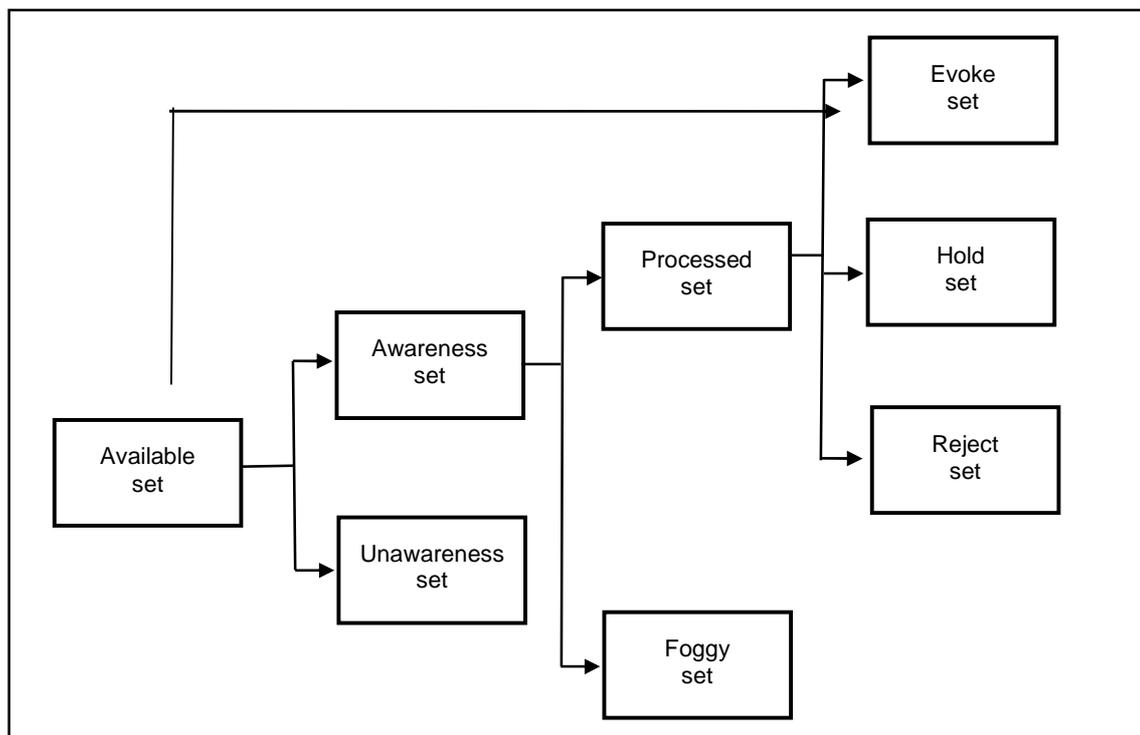


Figure 8. Brisoux–Larouche model of brand categorization showing the path to the evoked set (adapted from Brisoux & Larouche, 1980, pp. 112-114).

Structured Equation Modeling in Hospitality Research

Structural equation modeling is a methodology used within statistics that utilizes a confirmatory approach in the analysis of a structural or causal theory (Byrne, 2010). This method has similarities to factor analysis, path analysis, as well as regression analysis, but it is also unique from all three of these statistical methodologies (Swanson & Holton, 2005). SEM, unlike these other methods, allows for the inclusion of both measured as well as latent variables in an analysis and also goes beyond each of these three approaches by being able to incorporate all three of these methodologies into a single analysis (Swanson & Holton, 2005). As a confirmatory approach, this methodology focuses upon the testing of hypotheses

as compared with other, more exploratory methods of analysis (Byrne, 2010). Within the context of this methodology, causal relationships between variables are represented and estimated using a series of regression equations. Additionally, the structural/causal associations between variables can be represented through the use of a diagram in order to more clearly conceptualize the theory that is the focus of the analysis (Byrne, 2010). When using this method, the model used by the researcher as the best approximation of the relationship between the measures of interest included in the study is then tested statistically in a single simultaneous analysis of all equations in order to estimate the extent to which the model analyzed is consistent with the data collected and the relationships among the measures as evidenced in the data themselves (Byrne, 2010). A model with adequate fit, indicating a strong degree of association between the model and the data, suggests support for the relationships hypothesized in the model overall. Likewise, poor model fit would suggest a lack of correspondence between the data collected and the model posited by the researcher (Byrne, 2010). Within the context of this current study, Reisinger and Turner (1999) and Reisinger and Mavondo (2010) established a complete typography of SEM methodology in hospitality and proceeded to develop the road map for the clear-cut application of SEM in hospitality.

A critical issue when conducting analyses using structural equation models consists of model fit. As mentioned in the previous paragraph, an acceptable degree of model fit indicates a high degree of correspondence between the data and the relationships therein and the model posited by the researcher, serving to validate the model utilized (Byrne, 2010). Likewise, model fit that is found to be unacceptably low indicates a poor degree of correspondence between the model and the data/relationships, suggesting that an alternate

model would better represent the observed relationships between the measures of interest (Byrne, 2010). Although a very broad set of fit indices are available to researchers using SEM, Kline (2011) listed what he considers a minimal set of measures of fit that should be reported and discussed whenever reporting the results of a SEM analysis. Specifically, these statistics consist of (a) the model chi square, (b) the Steiger-Lind root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) along with its 90% confidence interval, (c) the Bentler comparative fit index (CFI), and (d) the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR; Kline, 2011).

Although these measures of fit are considered the ideal estimates to use when estimating the overall fit of the model, it is important to also consider the limitations inherent in fit indices. First, measures of fit indicate only the average, or overall fit, of the model, meaning that a fit index that suggests a good-fitting model may be calculated for a model that includes certain parts that poorly fit the data (Kline, 2011). Second, as these indices serve only to reflect a particular aspect of model fit, a measure of model fit indicating adequate model fit cannot by itself indicate good fit. Therefore, it is suggested that one use multiple measures of model fit when running structural equation model analyses, with these various measures being compared in order to determine an overall picture of model fit (Kline, 2011). Third, measures of fit do not suggest whether the results are meaningful theoretically. A careful analysis of the results is required in order to make the determination of whether the results support, or fail to support, the associated hypotheses in question (Kline, 2011). Fourth, it is also important to consider that results suggesting adequate fit do not necessarily indicate that the model has high predictive power. The variables included in the model may still not provide substantial predictive power (Kline, 2011). Finally, it must also be stated that the sampling distribution of many fit indices are unknown, meaning that the interpretation of the

values achieved must be done using rules of thumb as opposed to statistically determined thresholds (Kline, 2011).

First, in regard to model chi square, a model with no degrees of freedom that fits the data perfectly would have a model chi square value equal to exactly zero (Kline, 2011). As this chi-square value increases, the fit of the model becomes less and less acceptable. In almost all structural equation models in which the degrees of freedom is positive (and model fit is not perfect), model chi square is used to test the null hypothesis that the model is correct (i.e., has perfect fit within the population). If the model chi square is not found to be significant, then this null hypothesis stating that the model is correct would not be rejected (Kline, 2011). Likewise, this hypothesis would be rejected in cases where the model chi square was found to be significant. However, it is important to note that this measure should not be relied upon solely as a measure of model fit, as in practice; it is very common for the null hypothesis within the context of model chi square to be rejected. Additionally, model chi square is sensitive to the size of the correlations between the variables included in the model, with larger correlations usually producing higher model chi-square values (Kline, 2011). Furthermore, it is very common for model chi square to be statistically significant when larger sample sizes are used. In order to reduce this sensitivity, the normed chi square, which consists of model chi square divided by its degrees of freedom, will also be reported. As a reasonably conservative standard, normed chi-square values of 3.0 or below will be used to indicate acceptable model fit (Kline, 2011).

The next measure of model fit recommended by Kline (2011) consists of RMSEA. This measure of fit is a parsimony-adjusted index, meaning that the formula used includes a correction for model complexity. Therefore, when comparing two models with similar

explanatory power, the simpler model will produce a measure of model fit indicating more adequate fit (Kline, 2011). Within this measure of fit, a specific null hypothesis is not tested and the model used by the researcher in the population is not assumed to be perfect. With regard to the actual RMSEA measure, a value of zero indicates the best fit and higher values indicate poorer fit. The rule of thumb used for this measure is that RMSEA values equal to or below .05 indicate good fit and values between .05 and .08 indicate acceptable fit (Kline, 2011). An RMSEA value of .10 or above would indicate poor fit. Additionally, the 90% confidence interval, which Kline (2011) also suggested reporting, can be used in the interpretation of RMSEA as opposed to the point estimate itself. For example, if the lower bound of the 90% confidence interval is less than or equal to .05, it can be concluded that the model has good fit. Furthermore, if the upper bound of the confidence interval is not equal to or greater than .10, then it can also be concluded that it is not a poorly-fitting model. This standard may result in some mixed outcomes when using RMSEA (Kline, 2011).

Next, Kline (2011) also recommended reporting the CFI as another measure of model fit. This measure of model fit assesses the relative improvement in fit of the researcher's model compared with the baseline model, which is generally the independence or null model and which assumes zero covariances among the observed variables included in the model (i.e., assuming unrelated variables). The general rule of thumb for the CFI is that values greater than .90 indicate good fit. Additionally, Kline also mentioned that it is important to consider the fact that CFI compares the researcher's model to the null model in which there is no association between the variables included in the model. This null model, which is used as a comparison, would generally be considered implausible, and he suggested that a finding

that indicates that the researcher's model is better as compared with the null model may not be very impressive.

Finally, Kline (2011) also suggested to report the SRMR, a measure of model fit based on covariance residuals, or the differences between observed and predicted covariances. In an ideal situation, all of these residuals should be approximately zero in order to indicate good model fit. The SRMR is calculated as a measure of the mean absolute correlation residual, or the overall difference between the observed and predicted correlations. As a rule of thumb, values of the SRMR lower than .10 indicate good model fit.

The opportunity that a company, brand, or product could be built with a SR core value creates an entirely new opportunity for both researchers and industry entrepreneurs. Taking the Rodrigues, Real, Vitorino, and Cantista (2011) model shown in Figure 9 conceptually, a new hospitality brand could be developed using this SEM model. Developing the brand with CSR as a core element, building identity salience, brand image,

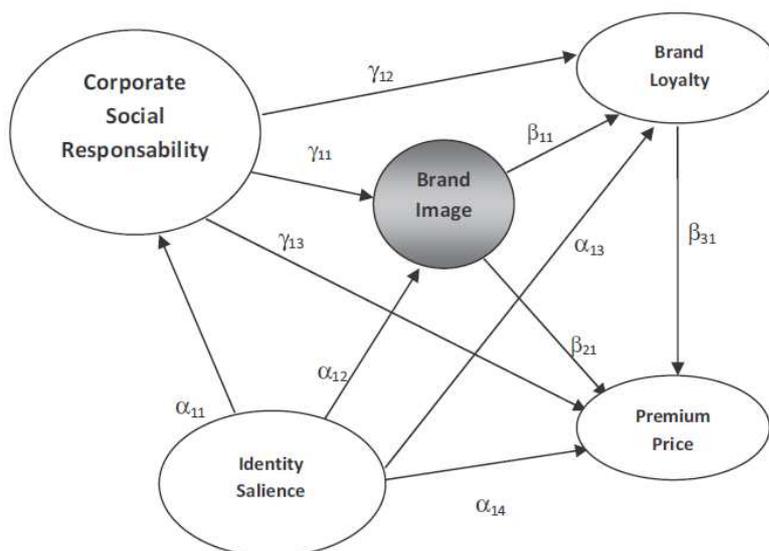


Figure 9. The importance of corporate social responsibility in brand image.

and brand loyalty to produce a hospitality product that commands a premium price, CSR could be the sustained marketing point of difference. The premium price answers the question: “Will customers reward firms for BSR practice,” countering the 30-year question, “Should management be involved in SR?”

The Delta Café SEM model, showing the correlation between brand image and loyalty (.345), brand image and premium price (.265), and brand loyalty and premium price (.023), identified the importance of corporate social responsibility in brand image (Rodrigues et al., 2011). In this case the data were analyzed using a quantitative method and a hierarchical value map was used to present the findings. The survey method utilized a “hard ladder” method designed to probe the social aspects of FT. The hierarchical value map relating to specialty stores showed a strong trend for FT, a desire to participate in an alternative economy, and a sense of accomplishment among purchasers.

The intent of this in-house coffee shop research is to utilize SEM methodology to determine the correlation of the variables in the B–L model of brand categorization.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis #1: *Social responsibility will rank over brand name as a factor of the available set.* The intent is to understand if social responsibility is a factor in the customer’s process system to establish the available set. The available set is the group of options or attributes associated with the purchase from a coffee shop.

Hypothesis #2: *Knowing an in-house coffee shop is socially responsible will move this house brand to the evoked set.* Not knowing anything other than a coffee shop is socially responsible will stimulate the customer to move this brand to the evoked set.

Hypothesis #3: *Social responsibility builds brand loyalty and trustfulness needed to move past the process set to the evoke set.* The investments in social responsibility by the coffee shop will engender enough loyalty and trust with potential customers for them to give the venue a try.

Hypothesis #4: *The customer will reward the socially responsible coffee shop by increasing the frequency or amount of money spent.* The customer will reward the coffee shop for engaging in social responsibility.

Hypothesis #5: *The coffee shop is evoked and, if there is a product quality or service quality issue, the guest will give it a second chance.* The coffee shops being socially responsible will stimulate the guest to give the venue a second chance.

Rationale

If a customer's experience with a brand is not satisfactory, the brand can sink into the hold set. Products and service that sink into the hold set typically have minor issues with QSCV or do not establish a differentiated image in the customer's mind. Slipping into the hold set can also happen when the consumer is unable to retrieve a positive cognitive memory of the product or experience. Brands that drop into the reject set typically have major quality, service, or customer value issues, and the customers retrieve a very negative cognitive memory experience. The interest in this study is to determine if brands that engage in (BSR) image activities can influence customers who have placed the brand in the hold set or reject set into giving the brand a second chance. Because the concept of QSCV depends highly on the customer's personal perception, in the study QSCV will be isolated and the focus will be on the construct that BSR image positively influences a customer's perceptions of the brand.

BSR as a method of expediting the process of brand categorization and ultimately achieving the evoked set has applications in all types of consumer goods and the service industry. Due primarily to the access and convenience of gathering data and the author's professional experience, for this research the focus will be on college coffee offerings. The limitations to this research include the ability to collect the needed sample and ensure the data received are accurate.

METHODOLOGY

Sample

Through an ongoing corporate food service research process that was being conducted by the researcher, young adults attending or visiting college were selected from college campuses located throughout the United States to be surveyed. The average age of these men and women was 18 to 22 years. Faculty, staff, and campus visitors also were included in the sampling. Other than a free coffee beverage coupon, there was no compensation to participate in all the studies completed as part of this research.

Data Collection

The overall quantitative research method was to use SEM confirmatory models and use this data from these models as the basis to test the five hypotheses. To gain enough knowledge about the college coffee drinker's consumer habits to develop the SEM model two surveys developed: the coffee-cupping survey and the online coffee survey. The final survey used to test the hypothesis was the campus coffee survey.

The first step in the data collection process was the coffee-cupping survey, designed to compare the quality and customers' perceptions among the in-house, Starbucks, and Dunkin' Donuts coffees. The surveys were conducted on a private college campus in the northeastern United States. The coffee-cupping test utilized an affective test method and gauged preferences and ranking (Murano, 2003). The participants also were asked both a price-sensitive question and a general question regarding social responsibility. The coffee-cupping survey consisted of seven sections in which respondents were asked to indicate their coffee-drinking habits, purchase-decision process, understanding of BSR, perceptions of national brands' social responsibility status, willingness to pay a premium for a socially

responsible brand, and a brief rating of social networking sites. The coffee-cupping surveys were conducted at the same campus with the assistance of an MBA project team and company resources. A total of 172 cupping surveys were completed.

The second survey, the online coffee survey, was pretested with 36 MBA students attending the same college and then administered in an intercept form to 84 participants. The same survey was then administered online and pretested with a national student advisory board with members on 35 university campuses. The members of the national student advisory board recruited other students from their campuses to participate. There were 163 respondents for the online survey, 73 of whom were coffee drinkers.

Through an extensive review of current literature regarding social responsibility and SEM, recommendations by members of this graduate program of study committee, and experience gained from the coffee-cupping and the online coffee survey a SEM model for this research was developed (Figure 10). The software used was AMOS 19. The model breaks down the three elements of the B–L model of brand categorization into the available, awareness, and process categories (see Figure 10).

Survey Instrument Development

Using questions from the pretest material and reviewing Reich (2002) and Sirdeshmukh et al. (2002), a code book was developed for the campus coffee survey (see Appendix A). Using existing questions from the pretest and established questions from previous research, a basis for reliability was established for the survey tool. A 23-question survey with responses on a 7-point Likert-type scale was created (see Appendix B).

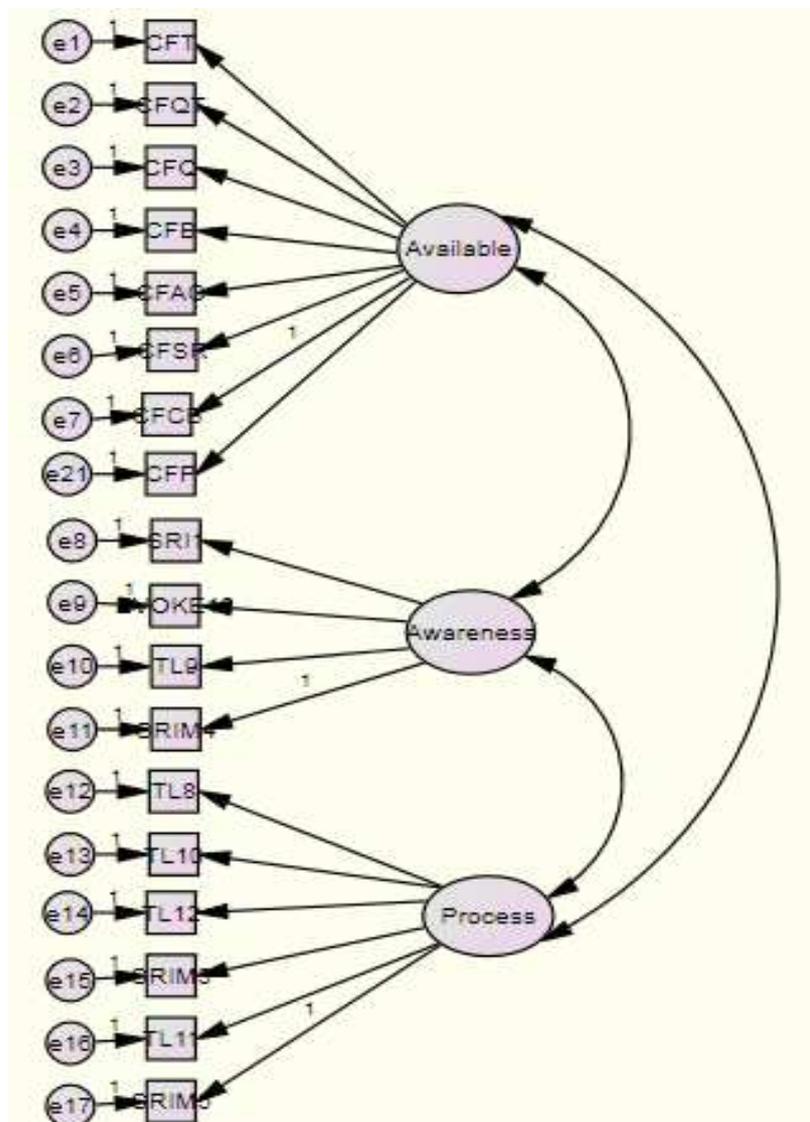


Figure 10. Full SPSS Amos socially responsible in-house coffee shop model

(CFT = taste, CFQT = quality of service, CFQ = quality of products, CFB = brand name, CFAC = access to coffee shop, CFSR = social responsibility of the shop, CFCB = _coffee bean origin, CFP = price, SRI1 = index of social responsibility, EVOKE13 = decide to purchase, TL9 = easy to switch from SR coffee shop, SRM4 = more social responsible than my friends, TL8 = social responsibly and increased loyalty, TL10 = socially responsible and a sense of loyalty, TL12 = emotional reward when purchase socially responsible coffee, SRIM3 = coffee shop acted in a social responsible way. TL11 = socially responsible sense of warmth and comfort, SRIM5 = walk an extra five minutes to a coffee shop that was socially responsible).

Survey Methodology

Sample and Response Rate

A minimum sample size is based on the number of responses needed for a proper statistical analysis and is highly dependent on the statistical technique deployed. The response rate is the ratio of the number of completed surveys received divided by the number of surveys administered.

The survey process started by dividing colleges and universities in the United States into three broad segments: community colleges, small and large private institutions, and public 4-year institutions. The survey target sample was individuals from 2 public community colleges, 2 small private institutions, 2 large private institutions, and 2 large public institutions. For the purpose of this research community colleges were defined as 2-year campuses, small private institutions were defined as college or university campuses having fewer than 3,000 fulltime undergraduate students, and large private and public institutions were defined as campuses having more than 3,000 fulltime undergraduate students.

The author currently has a position with a company that provides services to a large number of university campuses in the United States. Part of responsibilities of this position requires visiting multiple client campuses each year. The list of survey target sample institutions was developed from the campuses visited during the 2010–2011 school year.

Research Design

Previously conducting two surveys and having vast experience with the target audience provided the author with a great deal of experience in how to administer the final research tool. Although a computer-assisted surveys sent out through the Internet and

targeted to individual e-mail accounts is a very efficient method of collecting data from a large sample, the lower quality of data and the lower response rate can be a source of “noise” in the data collected. Therefore, the survey methodology developed was to conduct 50 surveys at each campus in a face-to-face personal interview process in current campus coffee shops. A total sample size of 400 surveys was projected and was part of an internal company coffee program being deployed at these institutions.

The face-to-face personal interview data collection method was developed based on a careful research of survey collection methods. According to Groves et al. (2009), “Interviewers can be effective recruiters of the sample persons, potentially affecting the nonresponse error features of the survey statistics” (p. 153). Tourangeau, Rips, and Rasinski (2000) commented that the use of interviewers clarifies and motivates respondents to participate in the survey and provide accurate responses. Groves et al. also cautioned that a face-to-face personal interview can affect the response of socially undesirable topics. However, the present research topic did not contain any socially sensitive topics.

The next step was to confirm that a target sample size of under 400 surveys would function in a SEM research method. Researchers in the field consider SEM to be a large-sample technique (Kline, 2011). However, as there are a number of factors that are associated with sample size requirements when using SEM, it is difficult to determine how large a sample must be in order to use this method of analysis. For example, a more complex model will generally require a greater number of cases as compared with a simplistic model (Kline, 2011). In addition, the method of estimation used also will affect the minimum sample size recommended. However, Kline (2011) did provide several recommendations regarding sample size in relation to SEM analysis. He stated that almost any type of SEM

model would not be recommended in situations when fewer than 100 total cases were present. He suggested that sample sizes below 100 would be considered “small” and sample sizes between 100 and 200 would be considered of “medium” size. He suggested that sample sizes in this range (i.e., 100 to 200) to be a better estimate of the minimum sample size needed when using SEM but also suggested that this is not absolute and that other factors, such as the complexity of the model, must also be considered (Kline, 2011). He suggested that sample sizes exceeding 200 would be considered “large.” Within the context of this current study, a sample size exceeding 200 was targeted in order to decrease the likelihood of encountering technical problems when conducting the SEM analysis as well as to increase the power of statistical tests (Kline, 2011). Kline’s conclusion that a target sample size of over 200 would be considered large validated the size of the target sample goal for this study.

The survey methodology was to intercept coffee-drinking customers of current in-house coffees or at food service locations serving coffee and ask them if they would participate in this research. This research was conducted during the morning hours and especially during class breaks. The survey tool was developed as a 16-question survey on two sides of a single page. This researcher read the instructions for the survey and a brief description of social responsibility, then proceeded to ask the questions. Either recorded the responses or, if there was a group of multiple respondents, the respondents circled their responses. The whole process on average took less than 5 minutes. A total of 346 surveys, reflecting a response rate of 86.5%, were completed, qualifying this sample as a large sample size as noted by Kline (2011). All surveys completed were included in the final results data set.

Data Reduction and Coding

The data from the surveys were reviewed for incomplete questionnaires and consistency. The personal interview survey worked very well, and there were a minimal number surveys with skipped questions or consistency issues, such as misunderstood questions. The responses were entered into Excel, coded using the 7-point Likert-type response scale and loaded into AMOS, the SEM statistical software program. Question #9 was used as an internal reliability measurement for question #1 and was reverse coded.

RESULTS

Respondent Profile

Among the respondents in the cupping survey, 54.34% were male and 45.66% were female. The student classification was 22.5% freshman, 25.4% sophomore, 12.7% junior, 15.6% senior, 14% MBA, and 9.8% other. The overall coffee cupping survey results, based on a three-point Likert-type scale, showed the mean score for the in-house brand (1.93) trailing Dunkin' Donuts (1.98) and Starbucks (2.09; see Table 1).

The overall flavor ranking showed that Starbucks, with its distinctive taste, ranked first at 42%, followed by Dunkin' Donuts at 31% and the in-house brand at 27%. However, the in-house mild-tasting coffee ranked first among undergraduate students surveyed, with 37% preferring the in-house coffee over Starbucks (34%) and Dunkin' Donuts (29%). The students were then asked if they would be willing to pay above the price of their second choice (see Table 2). Ninety percent said they would pay a premium, with the average amount they would pay being \$.62. The last question asked the participants whether they would change their purchase decision if they were told their preferred coffee was not a socially responsible brand. Over half (52%) of the undergraduates and 44% of the graduates said they would change their coffee choice (see Table 3).

Among the respondents to the online coffee survey, 54.34% were male and 45.66% were female. The student classification was 14.1% freshman, 16.9% sophomore, 29.6% junior, 29.6% senior, 4.4% MBA, and 5.4% other. The online survey question ranking the purchase decision of coffee (see Table 4) showed that on a 3-point Likert-type scale, taste, with a mean score of 3.91, was the most highly ranked attribute, followed by accessibility

Table 1

Cupping Survey Coffee Preference (%)

Brand	Undergraduate	Graduate	Total
In-house	37.0	12.0	52.0
Dunkin' Donuts	29.0	35.5	44.0
Starbucks	34.0	53.0	49.0

Table 2

Cupping Survey: Willingness to Pay a Premium for Top Choice Versus Second Choice

Amount extra willing to pay	<i>N</i>	%
0	17	10
\$0.20	21	12
\$0.40	28	16
\$0.60	47	27
\$0.80	10	6
\$1.00	22	13
\$1.00+	28	16

Table 3

Cupping Survey: If Your Coffee Was Not Social Responsible Would That Change Your Purchase Decision?

Class	Yes (<i>n</i>)	No (<i>n</i>)	Yes (%)
Undergraduate	55	50	52
Graduate	24	31	44
Total	78	82	49

Table 4

Results of Online Purchasing Factors for Campus Coffee

Variables	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Variance
Taste	72	3.917	0.325	0.106
Brand name	72	2.208	1.020	1.040
Accessibility	72	3.458	0.691	0.477
Social responsibility	72	2.792	0.948	0.900
Origin of coffee	72	2.028	0.978	0.957
Price	70	3.329	0.829	0.688

(3.45), price (3.32), social responsibility (2.79), brand name (2.20), and origin of coffee (2.02). The most important observation is that taste, access, and social responsibility were noted as more important in the purchasing decisions than brand name.

Of the campus coffee survey respondents 148 (43%) were male and 197 (57%) were female with a total sample size of 344 survey participants. The student classification was 91 (27.0%) freshman, 79 (23.5%) sophomore, 82 (24.0%) junior, 40 (12%) senior, 10 (3%) graduate, 32 (9.5%) faculty, and 2 (0.6%) staff and other. The overall survey design was based on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*not important*) to 7 (*very important*). Out of the sample population of (n=344), 159 scored whether a coffee shop was socially responsible as an important factor when making a purchase (SR1) as less than 4 on the 7-point scale; the remaining 185 scored the importance of whether a coffee shop was socially responsible as an important part of the purchase decision (SR1) above 5.

Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis 1

Social responsibility will rank over brand name as a factor of the available set.

Stated another way, hypothesize 1 theorized that social responsibility will be a stronger

component of the available latent variable as compared with brand name as well as origin of the bean. The purpose of this hypothesis was to understand the extent to which social responsibility is an important factor in the customer's process system in relation to the available latent variable, which constitutes a group of options or attributes which are associated with a purchase from a coffee shop. The structural equation model specified in order to test this first hypothesis is presented in Figure 11. This structural equation model includes the available, awareness, and process latent variables.

The main results of this analysis are presented in Table 5. The results illustrate the unstandardized and standardized factor loadings present in this model along with the associated standard errors and probability levels. The focus of interest in relation to this model consists of brand name, coffee bean origin, and social responsibility of the shop. All three of these items were included under the available latent variable. As shown, items included under this factor had both positive and negative factor loadings. This indicates that higher scores on the available latent variable were associated with higher ratings in regard to some items but lower ratings in regard to other items. In focusing on these results in relation to this first hypothesis, brand name (CFB) had a standardized factor loading of .183, whereas coffee bean origin (CFCB) had a standardized factor loading of .259. Additionally, social responsibility of the shop (CFSR) had a standardized factor loading of $-.267$. Although negative, given that the absolute value of the standardized factor loading is higher than the other two measures, this indicates, that out of these three measures, social responsibility of the shop was the strongest component of this latent variable. The results found in this model do fail to reject there is any statistical difference between the data and the hypothesis and serve to support this first hypothesis.

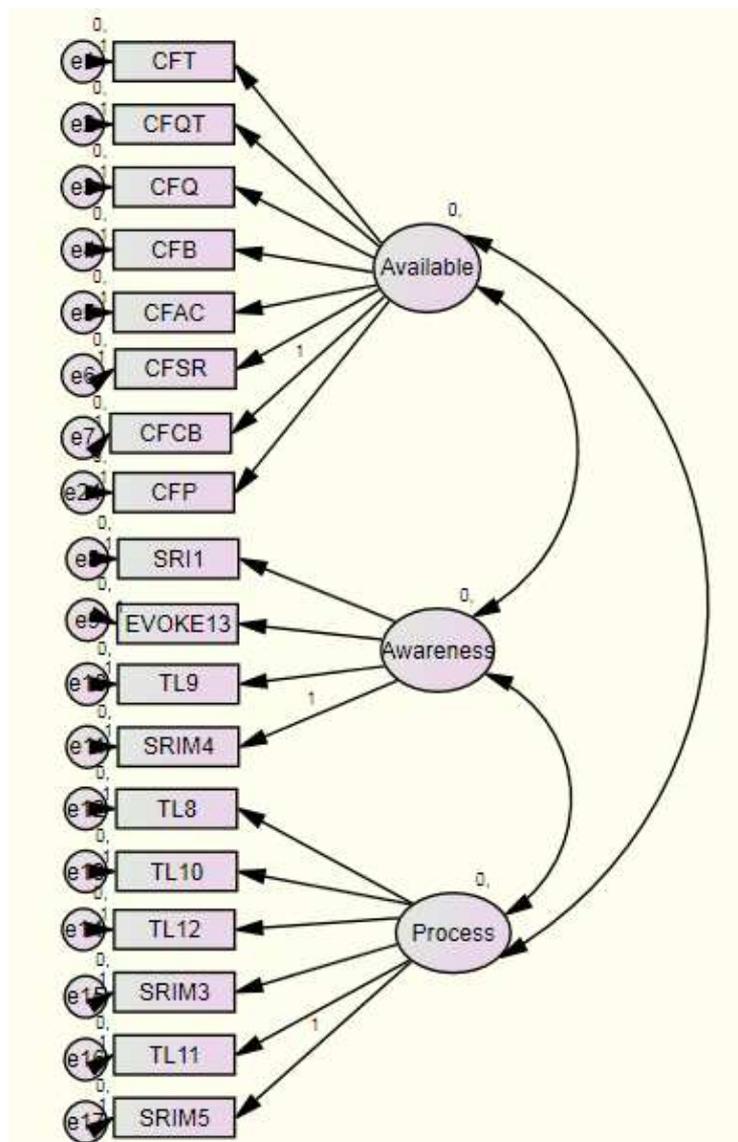


Figure 11. Structural equation model testing hypothesis 1 (CFT = taste, CFQT = quality of service, CFQ = quality of products, CFB = brand name, CFAC = access to coffee shop, CFSR = social responsibility of the shop, CFCB = _coffee bean origin, CFP = price, SRI1 = index of social responsibility, EVOKE13 = decide to purchase, TL9 = easy to switch from SR coffee shop, SRM4 = more social responsible than my friends, TL8 = social responsibly and increased trust, TL10 = socially responsible and a sense of loyalty, TL12 = emotional reward when purchase socially responsible coffee, SRIM3 =coffee shop acted in a social responsible way.TL11 = socially responsible sense of warmth and comfort, SRIM5 = walk an extra five minutes to a coffee shop that was socially responsible).

Table 5

Hypothesis 1 SEM Model Regression Weights

Variable ^a	Estimate	Std. estimate	Std. error	<i>p</i>
Available				
CFAC	-0.440	-.184	0.171	.010
CFB	0.683	.183	0.267	.011
CFQ	-0.469	-.259	0.148	.002
CFQT	-2.159	-.722	0.499	<.001
CFP	-2.421	-.744	0.558	<.001
CFCB	1.000	.259	—	—
CFSR	-0.901	-.267	0.279	.001
CFT	-2.035	-.787	0.467	<.001
Awareness				
SRIM4	1.000	.305	—	—
TL9	-0.073	-.021	0.205	.720
EVOKE13	2.179	.681	0.427	<.001
SRI1	1.427	.431	0.317	<.001
Process				
TL8	1.072	.708	0.096	<.001
TL10	1.049	.758	0.089	<.001
TL11	1.295	.866	0.100	<.001
TL12	1.044	.746	0.090	<.001
SRIM3	0.886	.568	0.095	<.001
SRIM5	1.000	.642	—	—

^aCFAC = access to coffee shop, CFB = brand name, CFQ = quality of products, CFQT = quality of service, CFP = price, CFCB = coffee bean origin, CFSR = social responsibility of the shop, CFT = taste, SRM4 = more social responsible than my friends, TL9 = easy to switch from SR coffee shop, EVOKE13 = decide to purchase, SRI1 = index of social responsibility, TL8 = social responsibly and increased loyalty, TL10 = socially responsible and a sense of loyalty, TL11 = socially responsible sense of warmth and comfort, TL12 = emotional reward when purchase socially responsible coffee, SRIM3 = coffee shop acted in a social responsible way, SRIM5 = walk an extra five minutes to a coffee shop that was socially responsible.

An important side note is that taste (CFT) had a standard factor load of .787, price (CFP) had a factor load of .744, and food quality (CFQT) had a factor load of .722. These results support the reliability of the sample when compared with the preliminary online survey and Oh and Jeong's (1996) research on restaurant customer satisfaction.

Next, the covariances and correlations produced by this model are illustrated in Table 6. This consists of the associations specified between this model's three latent variables. A significant, positive correlation, which was very high in strength, was found between the process and awareness latent variables. Significant, negative correlations, which were moderate to strong, were found between the available and awareness latent variables as well as between the process and available latent variables.

Table 6

Hypothesis 1 SEM Model Covariances

Relationship	Covariance	Correlation	Std. error	<i>P</i>
Available and awareness	-.087	-.359	.032	.006
Process and awareness	.569	.954	.121	<.001
Process and available	-.269	-.455	.074	<.001

As suggested by Kline (2011), the measure of model fit reported consists of the model chi square and normed chi square, RMSEA along with its 90% confidence interval, CFI, and SRMR. The measures of model fit were reviewed in order to determine this model's goodness of fit. The chi square for this model was found to be significant, which was expected due to the large sample size used in these analyses, $\chi^2(132) = 626.524, p < .001$; however, as noted by Kline (2011), model chi square is very sensitive to larger sample sizes and high intercorrelations between variables, so although this measure was found to be

significant, this does not alone indicate poor model fit. Normed chi square was found to be above 3.0, but was not so high as to indicate poor model fit, $\chi^2/df = 4.746$. Next, RMSEA was found to be .104 with a 90% confidence interval ranging from .092 to .114. As suggested by Kline, the point estimate of .104 indicates a model fit, whereas the 90% confidence interval indicates borderline model fit. Additionally, CFI was found to be .753 in this model. As this value was not above .9, this would not indicate good model fit. Taking these measures of model fit as a whole, acceptable to borderline model fit was indicated in regard to this model. Additionally, RMR was not included here as it is not calculated by Amos in models that incorporate missing data.

Next, an ANOVA was also conducted in order to further explore this hypothesis. This analysis compared the means of brand name, coffee bean origin, and social responsibility of the shop in order to determine whether any significant differences in mean levels of these measures were present. The descriptive statistics relating to these three measures are presented in Table 7. As shown, mean values were found to be fairly similar, whereas standard deviations were found to be relatively low in general.

First, Levene's test for the homogeneity of variances was conducted in order to determine whether or not significant differences in variances were present between these

Table 7

Hypothesis 1 Analysis of Variance Descriptive Statistics

Variable ^a	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
CFB	345	4.67	1.832
CFCB	345	4.78	1.890
CFSR	345	4.78	1.651

^aCFB = brand name, CFCB = coffee bean origin, CFSR = social responsibility of the shop.

three measures; this was found to be the case, $F = 6.983$, $p = .001$. Next, the one-way ANOVA did not indicate any significant differences in mean scores among these three measures, $F(2, 1032) = .457$, $p = .634$. Overall, the results of the analyses conducted testing this first hypothesis found that, although the average rating for these three measures did not significantly differ, social responsibility was a stronger component of the available latent variable, serving to support this first hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2

Knowing an in-house coffee shop is socially responsible will move this house brand to the evoked set. Stated another way, not knowing anything other than a coffee shop is socially responsible will stimulate the customer to move this brand to the evoked set. Among socially responsible coffee shops, a model incorporating three measures of social responsibility as a separate evoked latent variable will be more appropriate than a model that includes these measures under the process latent variable. In order to test this hypothesis, SEM was used. A new structural equation model was specified in which three measures of social responsibility, coffee shop acted in a social responsible way (SRIM3), walk an extra five minutes to a coffee shop that was socially responsible (SRIM5), decide to purchase (EVOKE13), were moved from the process latent variable to the evoked latent variable. After this model was initially run, a multiple groups analysis was also performed in which the total sample was dichotomized on the basis of the response for the importance rating associated with the social responsibility of the shop. This multiple groups analysis served to determine whether this newly revised model could be used for both groups of respondents or if this new model was significantly different between groups. In order to create more equal groups of respondents, individuals who had selected scores on the survey from 1 through 4

regarding the importance of the social responsibility of the shop were included in the first group of respondents (low SR group) and those who had selected scores of 5 through 7 constituted the second group of respondents (high SR group). The structural equation model that was run initially is presented in Figure 12.

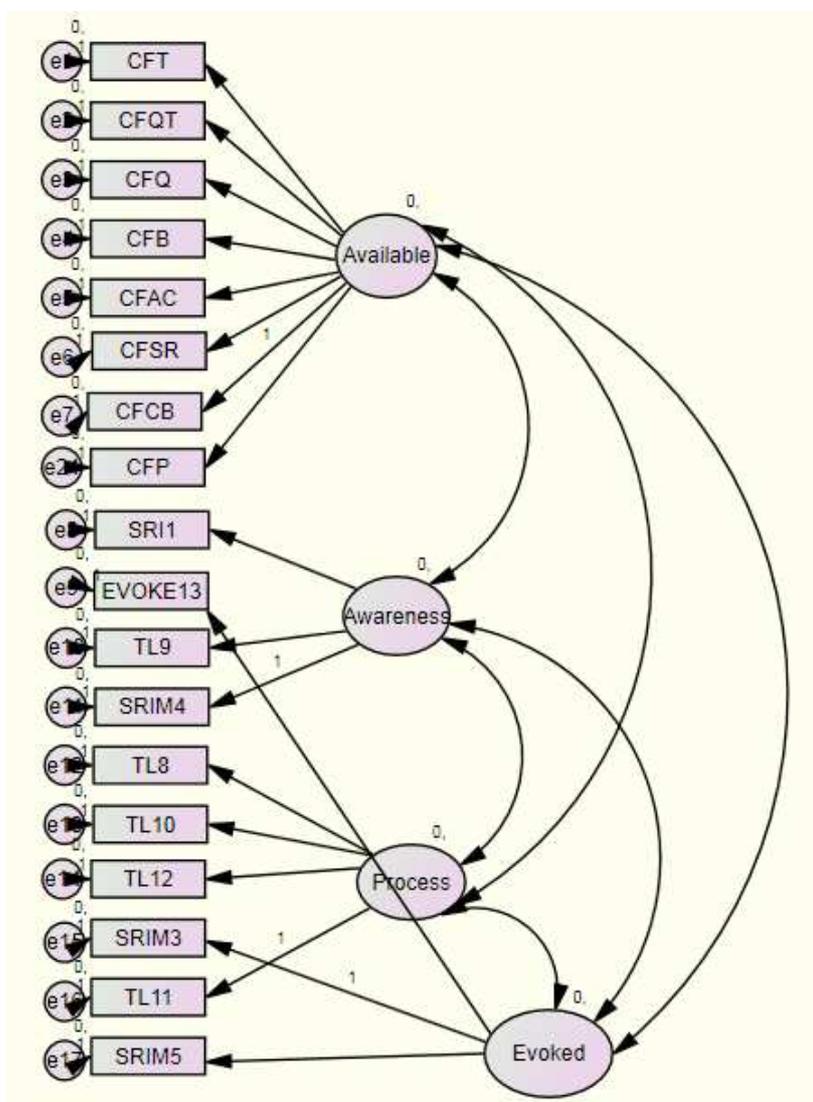


Figure 12. Initial structural equation model testing hypothesis 2 (variable abbreviations are as described for Figure 11).

The regression weights associated with this initial structural equation model are shown in Table 8. As before, the regression weights, standardized regression weights, standard errors, and probability levels are presented in this table. Focusing on the evoked latent variable, in regard to respondents in general, these three items were found to have strong standardized loadings upon this new latent variable.

Next, the covariances and correlations specified in this model are shown in Table 9. Negative and significant correlations found to be moderate to strong were indicated between the available and awareness latent variables, as well as between the process and available latent variables. Additionally, a strong positive correlation, also found to be statistically significant, was found between the process and awareness latent variables. Next, in regard to the newly defined evoked latent variable, very strong, positive, statistically significant correlations were found between this new latent variable and the process as well as the awareness latent variables. Additionally, a strong, negative, and statistically significant correlation was found between the evoked latent variable and the available latent measure.

The measures of model fit with regard to this model were very similar to the measures of model fit found in relation to the first structural equation model presented for the first hypothesis. The chi square of this model was found to be significant, which again was expected based on the larger sample size included, $\chi^2(129) = 585.466, p < .001$. In addition, the normed chi square for this model did not indicate good model fit but was also not so high as to indicate poor model fit, $\chi^2/df = 4.538$. The RMSEA of .101 indicated borderline model fit, and the CFI of .772 did not indicate good model fit. As before, RMR is not reported as missing data was present in this data set. Overall, these results indicate borderline acceptable model fit.

Table 8

Hypothesis 2 SEM Model Regression Weights

Variable ^a	Estimate	Std. estimate	Std. error	P
Available				
CFAC	-0.427	-.174	.174	.014
CFB	0.680	.178	.273	.013
CFQ	-0.474	-.255	.152	.002
CFQT	-2.206	-.721	.521	<.001
CFP	-2.495	-.749	.587	<.001
CFCB	1.000	.253	–	–
CFSR	-0.959	-.278	.295	.001
CFT	-2.074	-.784	.486	<.001
Awareness				
SRIM4	1.000	.389	–	–
TL9	-0.281	-.103	.186	.132
SRI1	1.545	.595	.307	<.001
Process				
TL8	0.823	.718	.054	<.001
TL10	0.791	.756	.048	<.001
TL11	1.000	.883	–	–
TL12	0.792	.747	.049	<.001
Evoked				
SRIM3	1.000	.629	–	–
SRIM5	0.981	.619	.096	<.001
EVOKE13	0.791	.594	.080	<.001

^aCFAC = access to coffee shop, CFB = brand name, CFQ = quality of products, CFQT = quality of service, CFP = price, CFCB = coffee bean origin, CFSR = social responsibility of the shop, CFT = taste, SRM4 = more social responsible than my friends, TL9 = easy to switch from SR coffee shop, SRI1 = index of social responsibility, TL8 = social responsibly and increased loyalty, TL10 = socially responsible and a sense of loyalty, TL11 = socially responsible sense of warmth and comfort, TL12 = emotional reward when purchase socially responsible coffee, SRIM3 = coffee shop acted in a social responsible way, SRIM5 = walk an extra five minutes to a coffee shop that was socially responsible, EVOKE13 = decide to purchase.

Table 9

Hypothesis 2 SEM Model Covariances

Relationship	Covariance	Correlation	Std. Error	<i>p</i>
Available and awareness	-0.110	-.366	.041	.008
Process and awareness	0.636	.633	.135	<.001
Process and available	-0.310	-.406	.087	<.001
Evoked and process	1.835	.968	.200	<.001
Evoked and awareness	0.682	.913	.138	<.001
Evoked and available	-0.355	-.625	.095	<.001

Next, the structural equation model run for the multiple groups analysis is presented in Figure 13. As shown, a large set of additional variables were included in this model as part of the multiple groups methodology. Additionally, the covariances between latent variables were removed from this model due to sample size concerns.

The nested model comparisons resulting from this analysis are summarized in Table 10. These nested model comparisons, which consist of the unconstrained model, the constrained measurement weights model, the constrained measurement intercepts model, the constrained structural covariances model, and the constrained measurement residuals model, were utilized in order to determine which structural equation model was most appropriate. In the unconstrained model, two completely separate models were run between the two groups of respondents included in the analysis; the constrained measurement weights and all the following models continually constrained more parameters between the two groups. If these more constrained models were not found to be significantly worse fitting than the previous models, then these constrained, more parsimonious models were utilized.

The change in chi square value as well as the change in degrees of freedom among these models is presented in Table 10. The first set of results presents these figures assuming

that the unconstrained model is correct. As presented in the table, the change in chi square for the first constrained model, the measurement weights model, was found to be statistically significant. This indicates that the measurement weights model was significantly worse fitting than the unconstrained model. Therefore, the unconstrained model would be retained in this analysis, in which two separate models were utilized for both sets of respondents.

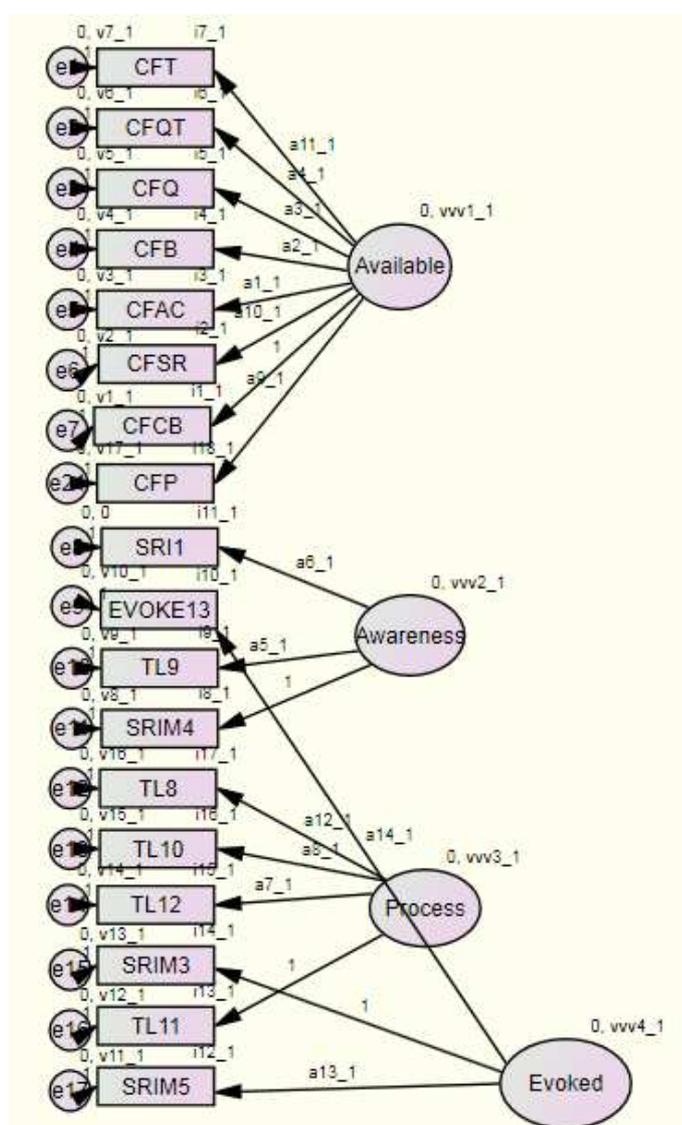


Figure 13. Structural equation model testing hypothesis 2: multiple groups analysis (variable abbreviations are as described for Figure 11).

Table 10
Hypothesis 2 SEM Model Nested Model Comparisons

Model comparison	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	<i>p</i>
Assuming unconstrained model to be correct			
Measurement weights	80.536	14	<.001
Measurement intercepts	523.433	32	<.001
Structural covariances	633.578	36	<.001
Measurement residuals	671.814	53	<.001
Assuming measurement weights model to be correct			
Measurement intercepts	442.897	18	<.001
Structural covariances	553.042	22	<.001
Measurement residuals	591.278	39	<.001
Assuming measurement intercepts model to be correct			
Structural covariances	110.146	4	<.001
Measurement residuals	148.381	21	<.001
Assuming structural covariances model to be correct			
Measurement residuals	38.236	17	.002

The measures of model fit associated with all models run in this analysis are summarized in Table 11. Model fit corresponding with the unconstrained model was not substantially different than the initial model run testing this second hypothesis.

With regard to this structural equation model, the path coefficients of the unconstrained model for both groups of respondents are summarized. Specifically, the paths associated with the evoked latent variable, which are presented in Table 12, are the focus. Overall, these results are fairly similar. Probability levels were the same for both models, and standardized estimates were not identical but were very similar. This indicates that the nature of the evoked latent variable is very similar between the low SR group and the high SR group.

Table 11

Hypothesis 2 SEM Model Measures of Model Fit

Path	χ^2 (df)	χ^2/df	CFI	RMSEA
Unconstrained	1153.886 (272)	4.242	.539	.097
Measurement weights	1234.422 (286)	4.316	.504	.098
Measurement intercepts	1677.319 (304)	5.517	.281	.115
Structural covariances	1787.465 (308)	5.803	.226	.119
Measurement residuals	1825.700 (325)	5.618	.215	.116

Table 12

Hypothesis 2 SEM Model Regression Weights for Evoked Measures

Variables ^a	Estimate	Std. estimate	Std. error	<i>P</i>
Evoked: Low SR				
SRIM3	1.000	.428	–	–
SRIM5	1.754	.778	.553	.002
EVOKE13	1.203	.570	.314	<.001
Evoked: High SR				
SRIM3	1.000	.511	–	–
SRIM5	1.575	.777	.511	.002
EVOKE13	0.706	.424	.182	<.001

^aSRIM3 = coffee shop acted in a social responsible way, SRIM5 = walk an extra five minutes to a coffee shop that was socially responsible, EVOKE13 = decide to purchase.

Finally, the original structural equation model run testing the first hypothesis was run for the high SR group, along with the modified structural equation model in which the evoked latent variable was added. The purpose of this analysis was to compare the Akaike (1987) information criterion (AIC) measures between these two models in order to determine which of these two models was more appropriate for the high SR group. Lower AIC

measures would indicate a better fitting model. With regard to the new model, containing the evoked latent variable, AIC was found to be 540.614, whereas in regard to the original model, AIC was found to be 570.958. These results indicate that, among the high SR sample, the inclusion of the evoked latent variable produces a better model fit as compared to the original model. Overall, these results serve to support this second hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3

Social responsibility builds brand loyalty and trustfulness needed to move past the process set to the evoke set. The investments in social responsibility by the coffee shop will engender enough loyalty and trust with potential customers for them to give the venue a try.

In cases in which high social responsibility is indicated, moving the measures of brand loyalty and trustfulness from the process to the evoked latent variable will produce a better overall model. This hypothesis suggests that investments in social responsibility by coffee shops will lead to greater loyalty and trust with potential customers, which will increase the likelihood of these individuals trying these coffee shops. As with hypothesis 2, an initial structural equation model was first run on the entire sample. A diagram of this model is shown in Figure 14.

The results of this initial structural equation model are presented in Table 13. With regard to the evoked latent variable, high, positive standardized loadings were found in all cases. Additionally, loadings were also found to be statistically significant in all cases in which a probability level was calculated. This supports the construct validity of this evoked latent variable among the entire sample.

Next, the covariances and correlations resulting from this analysis are presented in Table 14. As shown, negative, significant correlations that were moderate to strong were

found between the available and awareness latent variables as well as between the process and available latent variables. In addition, a strong, positive correlation coefficient, also found to be statistically significant, was found between the process and awareness latent variables. Next, in regard to the evoked latent variable, a strong, negative correlation, which was statistically significant, was found between this latent variable and the available latent

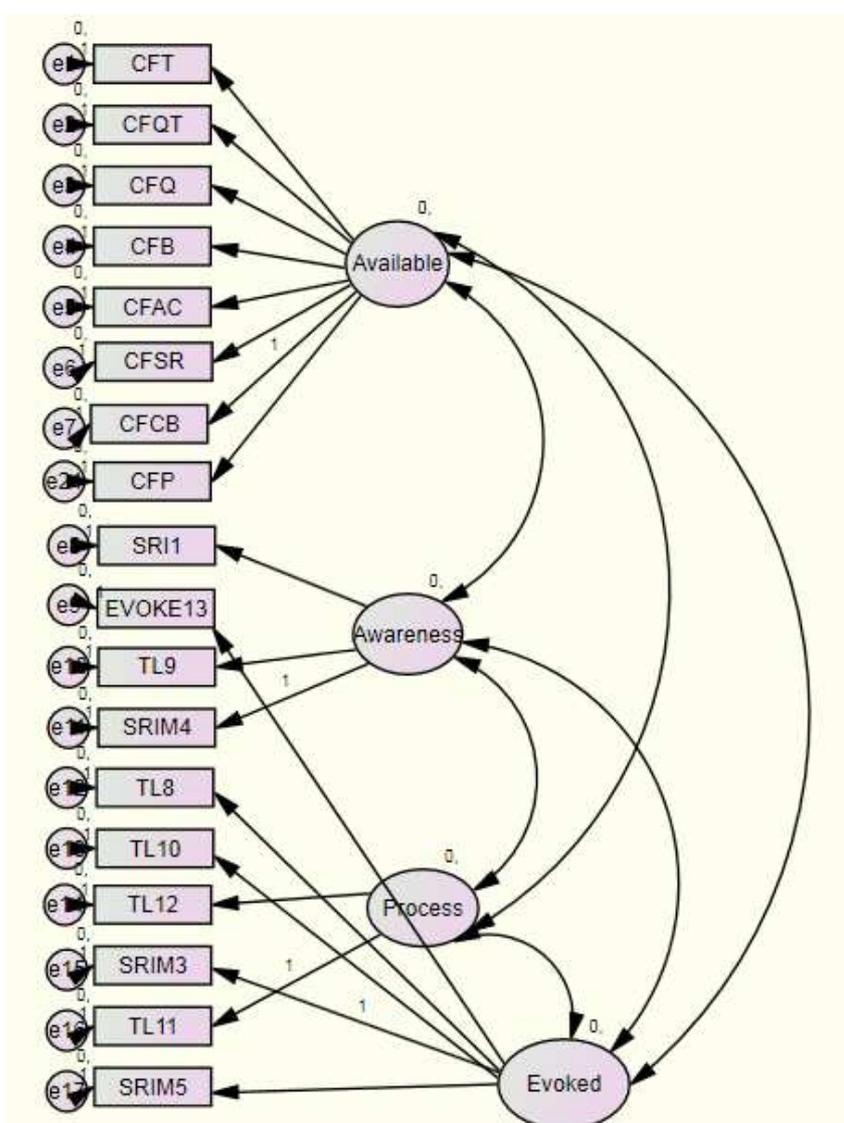


Figure 14. Initial structural equation model testing hypothesis 3 (variable abbreviations are as described for Figure 11).

Table 13

Hypothesis 3 SEM Model Regression Weights

Variables ^a	Estimate	Std. estimate	Std. error	<i>p</i>
Available				
CFAC	-0.448	-.182	.178	.012
CFB	0.665	.173	.273	.015
CFQ	-0.488	-.262	.155	.002
CFQT	-2.220	-.721	.528	<.001
CFP	-2.489	-.743	.590	<.001
CFCB	1.000	.252	–	–
CFSR	-0.942	-.272	.294	.001
CFT	-2.102	-.790	.496	<.001
Awareness				
SRIM4	1.000	.367	–	–
TL9	-0.299	-.103	.206	.147
SRI1	1.758	.639	.405	<.001
Process				
TL11	1.000	.887	–	–
TL12	0.796	.754	.050	<.001
Evoked				
SRIM3	1.000	.585		
SRIM5	1.098	.643	.115	<.001
EVOKE13	0.916	.639	.096	<.001
TL8	1.161	.700	.114	<.001
TL10	1.145	.756	.107	<.001

^aCFAC = access to coffee shop, CFB = brand name, CFQ = quality of products, CFQT = quality of service, CFP = price, CFCB = coffee bean origin, CFSR = social responsibility of the shop, CFT = taste, SRM4 = more social responsible than my friends, TL9 = easy to switch from SR coffee shop, SRI1 = index of social responsibility, TL11 = socially responsible sense of warmth and comfort, TL12 = emotional reward when purchase socially responsible coffee, SRIM3 = coffee shop acted in a social responsible way, SRIM5 = walk an extra five minutes to a coffee shop that was socially responsible, EVOKE13 = decide to purchase, TL8 = social responsibly and increased loyalty, TL10 = socially responsible and a sense of loyalty.

Table 14
Hypothesis 3 SEM Model Covariances

Relationship	Covariance	Correlation	Std. error	<i>p</i>
Available and awareness	-0.105	-.370	.040	.009
Process and awareness	0.577	.605	.140	<.001
Process and available	-0.311	-.408	.089	<.001
Evoked and process	1.726	.976	.198	<.001
Evoked and awareness	0.467	.713	.114	<.001
Evoked and available	-0.255	-.485	.072	<.001

measure. Additionally, strong, positive, statistically significant correlations were found between the evoked latent variable and the process as well as the awareness latent variables.

Finally, model fit with regard to this initial model was found to be very similar to model fit measures of the previous models presented. First, the chi square for this model was found to be significant, which again was expected due to the sample size, $\chi^2(129) = 612.650$, $p < .001$. The normed chi square was found to be slightly below 5, which indicates acceptable/borderline model fit, $\chi^2/df = 4.749$. RMSEA was found to be .104, which indicates borderline acceptable model fit; CFI was equal to .759, which does not indicate good model fit. Again, summarizing these measures of model fit leads to the conclusion that model fit with relation to this model was borderline to acceptable. Next, the model utilized for the multiple groups analysis is presented in Figure 15. Again, covariances were not included in this model due to sample size concerns.

The nested model comparisons resulting from this analysis are presented in Table 15. As shown, compared with the unconstrained model, the measurement weights model was found to have a significantly higher chi square, indicating significantly poorer model fit.

These results indicate that the unconstrained model should be preferred between both samples of respondents based upon social responsibility.

Next, the measures of model fit associated with these five models is presented in Table 16. With regard to the unconstrained model, model fit was found to be borderline in sum. With regard to the structural equation model, the path estimates for the evoked latent

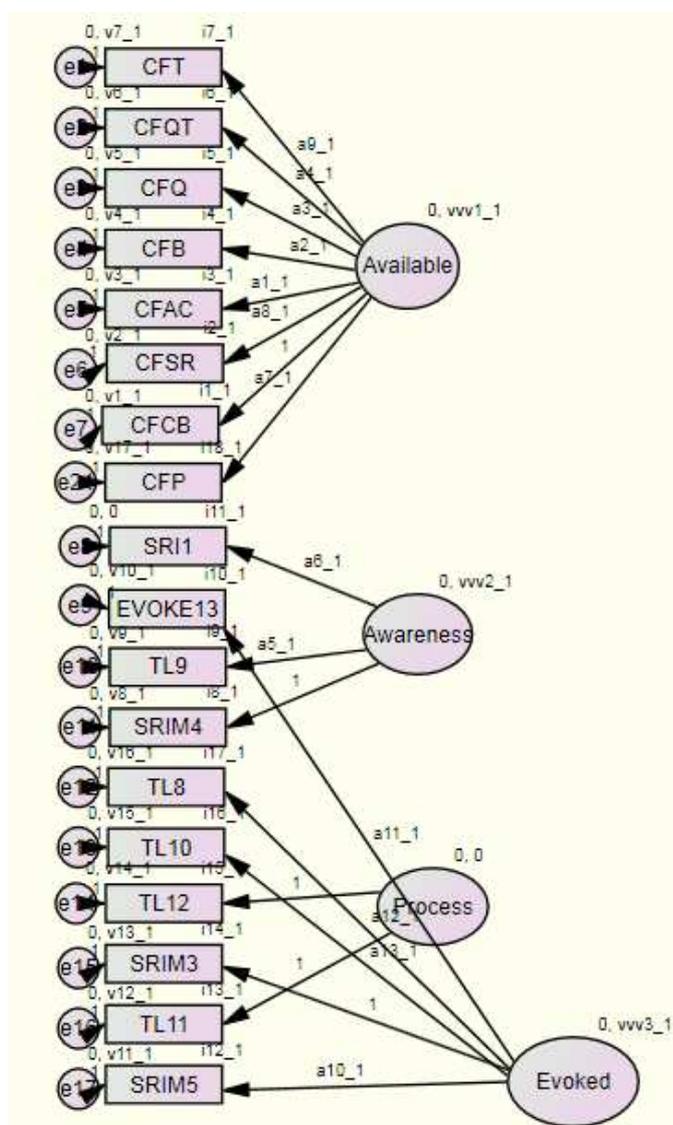


Figure 15. Structural equation model testing hypothesis 3: multiple groups analysis (variable abbreviations are as described for Figure 11).

Table 15

Hypothesis 3 SEM Model Nested Model Comparisons

Model comparison	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	<i>p</i>
Assuming unconstrained model to be correct			
Measurement weights	73.034	13	<.001
Measurement intercepts	544.358	31	<.001
Structural covariances	654.135	34	<.001
Measurement residuals	687.742	51	<.001
Assuming measurement weights model to be correct			
Measurement intercepts	471.324	18	<.001
Structural covariances	581.101	21	<.001
Measurement residuals	614.708	38	<.001
Assuming measurement intercepts model to be correct			
Structural covariances	109.777	3	<.001
Measurement residuals	143.384	20	<.001
Assuming structural covariances model to be correct			
Measurement residuals	33.607	17	.009

Table 16

Hypothesis 3 SEM Model Measures of Model Fit

Measures	$\chi^2 (df)$	χ^2/df	CFI	RMSEA
Unconstrained	1438.791 (276)	5.213	.392	.111
Measurement weights	1511.826 (289)	5.231	.360	.111
Measurement intercepts	1983.149 (307)	6.460	.123	.126
Structural covariances	2092.926 (310)	6.751	.067	.130
Measurement residuals	2126.533 (327)	6.503	.058	.127

variable are summarized in Table 17. The estimates included in the table are shown for both the low SR group as well as the high SR group. These results indicate very similar factor loadings for the evoked latent variable between groups.

Finally, AIC values were compared between the original model, the model tested for the second hypothesis, and this current model among the high SR group to determine which had the best model fit. The original model (used to test hypothesis 1) had an AIC of 570.958, whereas the model used for the second hypothesis was found to have an AIC of 540.614. This current model had an AIC of 555.034. These results indicate that the model utilized in testing the second hypothesis had the best model fit. Overall, these results lend only moderate support to this third hypothesis.

Table 17

Hypothesis 3 SEM Model Regression Weights for Evoked Measures

Variables ^a	Estimate	Std. estimate	Std. error	<i>p</i>
Evoked: Low SR				
SRIM3	1.000	.498	–	–
SRIM5	1.296	.669	.248	<.001
EVOKE13	1.174	.646	.228	<.001
TL8	1.333	.669	.255	<.001
TL10	1.304	.729	.241	<.001
Evoked: High SR				
SRIM3	1.000	.462		–
SRIM5	1.228	.546	.256	<.001
EVOKE13	1.250	.677	.237	<.001
TL8	1.373	.630	.268	<.001
TL10	1.583	.780	.289	<.001

^aSRIM3 = coffee shop acted in a social responsible way, SRIM5 = walk an extra five minutes to a coffee shop that was socially responsible, EVOKE13 = decide to purchase, TL8 = social responsibly and increased loyalty, TL10 = socially responsible and a sense of loyalty.

Hypothesis 4

The customer will reward the socially responsible coffee shop by increasing the frequency or amount of money spent. To test this hypothesis, a series of independent-samples *t* tests were conducted looking at the three measures focusing on the willingness to pay more (RBSRI6), the willingness to increase the number of visits (RBSRI7), and the willingness to travel to the coffee shop (SRIM5). First, descriptive statistics relating to these measures separately on the basis of social responsibility are displayed in Table 18. Values appear to be substantially higher with regard to the high social responsibility group.

Levene's test of the homogeneity of variances was conducted to determine whether the *t* test should be calculated assuming or not assuming the homogeneity of variances. This test was found to be significant in relation to the number of visits, $F = 4.229, p = .041$, as well as willingness to pay more, $F = 4.121, p = .043$, indicating that the variances were significantly different. With regard to willingness to travel, this test was not found to be significant, indicating no significant differences in variances, $F = 1.728, p = .190$.

Table 18

Hypothesis 4 Analysis of Variance Descriptive Statistics

Variable ^b	Low SRI1 ^a			High SRI1 ^a		
	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
RBSRI6	159	3.43	1.798	182	4.68	1.652
RBSRI7	159	3.54	1.731	185	4.84	1.609
SRIM5	159	3.59	1.765	185	4.85	1.792

^aSRI1 = index of social responsibility. ^bRBSRI6 = pay more money for coffee from a socially responsible coffee shop, RBSRI7 = increase the number of visits to a coffee shop that was socially responsible, SRIM5 = walk an extra five minutes to a coffee shop that was socially responsible.

All three t tests were found to achieve statistical significance. Values were found to be significantly higher with regard to the number of visits, $t(325.610) = 7.186, p < .001$; the willingness to pay more, $t(323.379) = 6.606, p < .001$; as well as willingness to travel, $t(342) = 6.561, p < .001$. These results strongly support this fourth hypothesis.

Hypothesis 5

The coffee shop is evoked and, if there is a product quality or service quality issue, the guest will give it a second chance. Stated another way, social responsibility will lead customers to give venues a second chance. To test this hypothesis, a single independent samples t test was conducted focusing on the extent to which respondents would give the coffee shop that they felt had poor quality products and/or service a second chance if they learned that it was now a socially responsible shop. First, the descriptive statistics associated with this analysis are provided in Table 19. Scores were found to be substantially higher with regard to the high social responsibility sample.

Levene's test for the homogeneity of variances did not achieve statistical significance, indicating that variances were not significantly different, $F = 2.310, p = .129$. The independent samples t test did achieve statistical significance, indicating that scores were significantly higher among the high social responsibility sample, $t(342) = 4.807, p < .001$. These results serve to strongly support this fifth and final hypothesis.

Table 19
Hypothesis 4 Analysis of Variance Descriptive Statistics

Variable ^b	Low SRI1 ^a			High SRI1 ^a		
	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
SINK14	159	3.55	1.841	185	4.49	1.797

^aSRI1 = index of social responsibility. ^bSINK14 = give a second chance.

Summary of Findings

Five hypotheses were developed for this study, and in addition, a SEM confirmatory model was developed to confirm that the B-L model (available–aware–process) model was consistent with the research findings. The intent of the confirmatory model was to better understand if in-house coffee brand followed the established brand categorization method as empirically tested in multiple contexts by Brisoux and Larouche (1980), Larouche et al. (1996), Larouche and Toffoli (1999), and Larouche and Parsa (2000).

The SEM presented an overall border line model fit. The chi square for this model was $\chi^2(132) = 626.524, p < .001$. The normed chi square was found to be above 3.0 ($\chi^2/df = 4.746$) but was not so high as to indicate poor model fit. As previously noted, the model chi square is sensitive to large sample size and high correlation between variables. However, although the chi square was found to be significant, this alone does not indicate poor model fit. The RMSEA was found to be .104 with a 90 percent confidence interval and the normed chi square provided the evidence to support the border line fit.

As noted, the correlations show strong correlation between the process and awareness latent variables (.954), and the available latent variable clearly had the lowest correlation as shown by the correlations between available and awareness (.359) and process and awareness (.455). Overall the SEM confirmatory model showed a strong covariance between the three pillars of the B-L model.

Hypothesis 1. *Social responsibility will rank over brand name as a factor of the available set.* The intent with hypothesis was to understand if social responsibility is a factor in the customer's process system to establish the available set. The available set is the group of options or attributes associated with the purchase from a coffee shop. The hypothesis was

tested by two methods. First, the SEM factor loads reported a standardized factor load for coffee brand (CFB) of .183, whereas the standardized factor load for coffee bean origin (CFCB) was .259 and for social responsibility (CFSR) was .267. Next, the one-way ANOVA supported the SEM results by revealing no significant differences in mean scores among coffee brand, coffee bean origin, and social responsibility, $F(2.1032) = .457, p = .634$, supporting hypothesis 1 that social responsibility is more important than brand name. The strength of the consumers' interest in the origin of the coffee bean was also an important finding in this analysis. To the college-age customer, the combination of the coffee shop being socially responsible and having the origin of the coffee clearly communicated was more important than was the brand name.

Hypothesis 2. *Knowing an in-house coffee shop is socially responsible will move this house brand to the evoked set.* The sample population was divided into two groups low SR ($n = 159$) and high SR ($n = 189$). A new model was developed adding the evoke latent variable (available–aware–process–evoke). The chi square for this model was found to be significant, $\chi^2(129) = 585.466, p < .001$. The normed chi square was found to be slightly below 5, which indicates poor model fit, $\chi^2/df = 4.749$. RMSEA was found to be .101, indicating borderline acceptable model fit, and CFI was equal to .759, which did not indicate good model fit. Both the Low SR and High SR groups were independently run in the unconstrained (available–aware–process–evoke) model. Overall the results were very similar.

Strong factor loadings were reported for the low SR evoked group for coffee shop acted in a social responsible way (SRIM3) = .428, walk an extra five minutes to a coffee shop that was socially responsible (SRIM5) = .778, and decide to purchase (EVOKE13) =

.570) as well as for the high SR evoked group SRIM3 = .511, SRIM5 = .777, and EVOKE13 = .424. Both the low and high SR group factor loads for the evoked latent variable supported hypothesis 2. The high SR group values were then run through the original model and the new model with the evoked latent variable. An AIC was performed to assess the parsimony and assessment of fit. The results showed the new model with the evoked latent variable had a better fit with a value of 540.614 versus the original model's value of 570.958. The results of the AIC analysis further supported hypothesis 2 by proving the model with the evoked latent variable offered the best fit and was parsimonious. College customers in the high SR group with no other stimulus are more willing to try (evoke) or purchase coffee from a socially responsible coffee shop than from one that is not socially responsible.

Hypothesis 3. *Social responsibility builds brand loyalty and trustfulness needed to move past the process set to the evoke set. The investments in social responsibility by the coffee shop will engender enough loyalty and trust with potential customers for them to give the venue a try.* The third model developed to test hypothesis 3 reported an AIC of 555.034, which was a better fit than original model for hypothesis 1 with an AIC of 570.958, but was not as good of a fit as the second model used for hypothesis 2, which reported an AIC of 540.614. Overall the results showed a moderate support for the third hypothesis, which led to the conclusion that brand loyalty and trust are too complex to have been isolated in this analysis.

Hypothesis 4. *The customer will reward the socially responsible coffee shop by increasing the frequency or amount of money spent.* An ANOVA developed from the high SR sample group was conducted. Willingness to pay more (RBSR16) was significant, $p = .043$; willingness to increase visits to the coffee shop (RBSR17) also was significant, $p =$

=.043; and willingness to walk 5 more minutes (SRIM5) was not significant, $F = 1.728$. All three t test were found to be statistically supportive: willingness to pay more, $t(323.379) = 6.606, p < .001$; willingness to increase visits $t(325.610) = 7.186, p < .001$; and willingness to travel $t(343) = 6.56, p < .001$. The results strongly support hypothesis 4. The higher SR group customer would reward socially responsible coffee shops by increasing visits, paying more, and maybe walking an increased distance to get to the shop.

Hypothesis 5. *The coffee shop is evoked and, if there is a product quality or service quality issue, the guest will give it a second chance.* The low SR group had a significantly lower mean score at 3.55 ($SD = 1.841$) than did the high SR group at 4.49 ($SD = 1.797$). The independent t test achieved statistical significance with the score higher for the high SR group, $t(342) = 4.807, p < .001$. The results support the hypothesis that the higher SR group customer is more apt to give a socially responsible coffee shop a second chance.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Social responsibility is rapidly becoming an important part of the purchasing selection process in food service areas other than coffee makes this research very timely and forward thinking for both the research community and industry professionals. The adaption of the B–L model to social responsibility has been proven and could provide an important foundation for understanding BSR in foodservice and hospitality. The results of this research provided a lens for understanding how college consumers move through the elements of the B-L model (available–awareness–process–evoke) in a coffee shop selection. Howard’s (1963) seminal work on brand categorization and the “evoke set” was based on casual observation of campus students selecting lunch, and Brisoux and Larouche and the supporting researchers who followed them studied topics like fast food, toothpaste, and beer. Therefore, this researcher concludes the results of this study are much more far reaching than college age consumer pattern and will preview how consumers of hospitality products will categorize social responsible brands.

In regards to hypothesis #1, social responsibility will rank over brand name as a factor of the available set. No prior research showed a direct correlation similar to the finding in this study. Rodrigues et al.’s (2011) finding that the “salience of the identity of the brand translates the way the consumer sees themselves” (p. 10) supports this finding, which shows that consumers may be shifting from associating with brands that they relate to a on more superficial level to choosing brands that promote their beliefs and values—their own “internal brand.”

Regarding hypothesis #2, knowing an in-house coffee shop is socially responsible will move this house brand to the evoked set was supported by and correlated with previous

research. Reich's (2002) findings showed the connection between brand social responsibility, loyalty, and trust and support the findings in this study. Singh and Sirdeshmukh's (2000) model showed the first level in building trust and loyalty object signaling investments (OSI).

Hypothesis #3 was not supported as stated; the findings were inconclusive due to this researcher not fully understanding how to research the complexity of pre-loyalty and pre-trustfulness. This findings showed a very strong relationship between sense of warmth (.866) and emotional reward (.746) from purchasing socially responsible coffee. Dick and Basu's (1994) research showed that consumers build loyalty with brands by satisfying individual needs. The cup of coffee may be a temporary need, whereas the need to be social responsible is an affective antecedent that promotes long-term loyalty.

Hypothesis #4, which stated that the high SR customer will reward the socially responsible coffees shop by increasing the frequency or amount of money spent, correlates with and supports previous research. Rodrigues et al. (2011) reported that an association with social responsibility appears to make consumer more loyal and willing to pay a premium price. The ability to build strong consumer loyalty and financially prosper by being a BSR brand may be dependent on how the brand reinforces the consumer's purchase as supporting BSR activities. Tactical marketing techniques, such as social media, may play an important role in the communication, consumer engagement, and reinforcement of this process.

Regarding hypothesis #5, the findings confirmed that consumers with a high social responsible index were inclined to give the social responsible coffee a second chance if their experience did not meet expectations. In the hospitality industry, in which there are direct

person-to-person interactions and multiple transactions of low value are need to make the hospitality venue financially viable, losing the loyalty of a earned guest is a very expensive loss. Having the opportunity for a second chance to rebuild trust directly follows Singh and Sirdeshmukh's (2000) research on rebuilding operational competency and post purchase price fairness.

The implications of this study support the concept that a consumer must have some advance knowledge of the brand in order for it to be included in the awareness set. As previously stated, Singh and Sirdeshmukh's (2000) model for developing brand loyalty coined the phrase "objective signaling investments." In national brands this could be advertisements, iconic signage, exterior store design, or other forms of recognizable servicescape. Given that the in-house brand or a startup brand will not have this messaging or servicescape, it is critical that the OSI provide the "pretrust and preloyalty" to move the customer through the awareness and process stages and, ultimately, evoke the customer to make a purchase. The in-house brand has to communicate its affiliation with fair trade, organic, or local certifications as the primary OSI. This assumption is supported by the high regression weights on the increased trust (TL8) = .708 and sense of loyalty (TL10) = .758 constructs in the SEM model. However, once the customer has evoked or made a purchase, the taste, product and service quality, price, and availability have to meet the consumer's expectation, otherwise the brand will sink into the hold or rejection set. One final finding from this research is the very high regression weight in the constructs that focus on the knowledge that the consumer's purchase has contributed to BSR causes provides a sense of warmth (TL11) = .866 and emotional reward (TL12) = .746. The ability to build strong

consumer loyalty and financially prosper by being a BSR brand may be dependent on how the brand reinforces the consumer's purchase as supporting BSR activities.

Limitations of the Study

The challenge with researching a forward-developing marketing strategy is that one projects consumer behavior in advance of its acceptance. Food service BSR, as a research and operational topic, is in its infancy. The college-age target population used in this research provided some great data, and the research method of performing personal intercept surveys worked well. The constructs were limited in order to manage the amount of time needed to complete the survey, which ultimately insured the high response rate. The available set defined in the B-L model was streamlined in the process. In a more accepted use of the B-L model the available set would include wider options for the consumers or survey participants. As an example, the participant could have as their available set "brew coffee at home," or a substitution for coffee could include consuming "Diet Coke" or a hot tea beverage. Adopting the core construct from Creyer and Ross's (1997) work on consumer social responsibility orientation into the "available set" of this research explains some of the noise discussed in the research findings. The lower factor weights in the "available" set in all the SEM models signaled this issue. A suggested refinement in this survey tool would be to eliminate the taste and price attributes and expand the available set to include a wider range including brewing coffee at home or beverage substitutions.

The second area of concern was validating that loyalty and trust were built by the BSR coffee shop in the process state of the B-L model and helped move the consumer to the evoked set. Pretrust, trust, and loyalty are very complex construct to research. Singh and Sirdeshmukh's (2000) model framework for the interrelationship among trust, agency

mechanisms, and their influence on satisfaction and loyalty may provide the answer by identifying prepurchase trust/distrust and postpurchase trust/distrust as two different constructs in the research.

The third area of concern is validating the consumer's actual performance to reward brand social responsibility. In the initial research conducted prior to the development of the SEM model, one of the objectives was to quantify the premium the consumer would pay for a cup of fair-trade coffee. This construct was troublesome because it was not grounded in theory or quantified. The objective of the fourth research hypothesis (the customer will reward the socially responsible coffee shop by increasing the frequency or amount of money spent) was to determine if the customer would reward the coffee shop for engaging in social responsibility. The survey methodology asked the question but the results did not provide a quantitative answer.

If time had permitted, a stronger random sample could have been achieved if the survey sample could have stratified or been developed over a period of different days and different parts of the day on each campus. Survey stratification, as identified by Groves et al. (2009) allows for independent selections from each stratum or subgroup. The strength with this sampling method is the ability to develop a more complete customer sample. As an example it would have created a stronger sample to include responses from nontraditional students that typically attend classes during the evening part of the day.

Recommendations for Future Research

The B-L model has provided an important base for understanding how a socially responsibility brand may reach the "evoked set" in brand categorization. This researcher hopes this study has developed a foundation for future research in brand social responsibility.

There are three main areas of future research that look promising. First, given that BSR is an evolving market dynamic, the ability to conduct this same research over a period of time would create longitudinal data as defined by Groves et al. (2009). The research objective would be to determine if social responsibility is continuing to grow or how external factors, like the economic downturn, affect it. Second, the research conducted with four different classifications of colleges and universities provided a preview of a difference in engagement in social responsibility. The community college students appeared to be less socially responsible. A future research topic would be to determine if members of that group lack basic awareness of the social responsible construct or if demographic (economic) factors contribute to their overall lower interest. Finally, there appears to be a conceptual correlation between Singh and Sirdeshmukh's (2000) model of brand loyalty and the B-L model that could be of great interest to study. A focus in this area of research may provide a superior understanding of the "available set" in the B-L model and ultimately a pattern of brand categorization and brand loyalty.

APPENDIX A. SURVEY CODE BOOK

(Adaption of Brisoux–Larouche brand categorization)

Hypothesis #1. Social responsibility will rank over brand name as a factor of the available set.

Service Quality: Original Scale, Oh and Jeong (1996)

1. Quick food delivery.
2. No waiting.
3. Employee attitude.
4. Employees' greeting
5. Responsiveness.
6. Menu availability.

Product Quality: Original Scale, Oh and Jeong (1996)

1. Tastiness of food.
2. Price of food.
3. Food quality.
4. Ingredient freshness.
5. Temperature of food.
6. Portion size.

Dissertation Scale

2. Please rate the following as to how important they are in deciding whether to make purchases from a coffee shop.

Taste

Not Important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Important
---------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----------------

Quality of Service

Not Important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Important
---------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----------------

Quality of Products

Not Important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Important
---------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----------------

Brand Name

Not Important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Important
---------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----------------

Access and Convenience

Not Important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Important
---------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----------------

Social Responsibility of the Shop								
Not Important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Important
Coffee Bean Origin								
Not Important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Important
Price								
Not Important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Important

Hypothesis #2. Knowing an in house coffee shop is social responsible will move this house brand to the evoked set.

Consumer Social Responsibility Orientation: Original Scale, Creyer and Ross (1997)

1. It really bothers me to find out that a firm that I buy from has acted unethically.
2. I really care whether the stores I patronize have a reputation for ethical behavior.
3. Whether a firm is ethical is not important to me in making my decision what to buy.
4. I really care whether the companies whose products I buy have a reputation for unethical behavior.
5. It is important to me that the firms I deal with do not have a reputation for unethical behavior.
6. It really pleases me to find that a firm I buy from has acted ethically.
7. I really care whether the stores I patronized have a reputation for unethical behavior.
8. Whether a firm is unethical is not important to me making my decision what to buy.
9. I really care whether the companies whose products I buy have a reputation for unethical behavior.
10. It is more important to me that the firms I deal with have an ethical reputation.

Dissertation Scale

1. Whether a coffee shop is socially responsible or not is important to me in making purchasing decisions.
Disagree Completely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree Completely
3. It really pleases me to know that a coffee shop I buy from has acted in a socially responsible way.
Disagree Completely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree Completely
4. Overall, I tend to be more socially responsible than my friends and other campus students.
Disagree Completely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree Completely

12. I get an emotional reward when I purchase socially responsible products, knowing that my money is being used to support the things I believe in.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree
Completely Completely

13. If I had no other information regarding a coffee shop and had never frequented it before, if I heard it was socially responsible I would give it a try.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree
Completely Completely

Hypothesis #4. The customer will reward the social responsible coffee shop by increasing the frequency or amount of money spent.

Reynolds and Arnold (2000); this scale had both attitudinal and behavioral components)

1. I am very loyal to (store name).
2. I shop at other stores if the price is lower.

Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001); attitudinal and behavioral loyalty were measured as separate constructs)

Attitudinal loyalty

1. I am committed to this brand.
2. I would be willing to pay a higher price for this brand over other brands.

Behavioral loyalty:

1. I will buy this brand the next time I buy (product name).
2. I intend to keep purchasing this brand.

Dissertation Scale

5. I would walk an extra five minutes to a coffee shop that I knew was socially responsible.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree
Completely Completely

6. I would be willing to pay more money for coffee or products from a socially responsible coffee shop.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree
Completely Completely

7. I would increase the number of visits to a coffee shop if I knew it was socially responsible.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree
Completely Completely

APPENDIX B. SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Campus Coffee Shop Survey

The purpose of this study is to get consumers' attitudes toward coffee shops and social responsibility. For the purpose of this study social responsibility will be defined as:

- 1) Purchasing products that are fair trade, organic, or from known and/or local sources
- 2) Engaging in recycling efforts and the conservation of resources
- 3) Promoting wellness - nutrition, health and fitness
- 4) Supporting the local community.

Please read the following questions thoroughly and circle the answer that best describes your thoughts and perceptions. Your time is gratefully appreciated!

1. Whether a coffee shop is socially responsible or not is important to me in making purchasing decisions.

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Agree
Completely								Completely

2. Please rate the following as to how important they are in deciding whether to make purchases from a coffee shop.

Taste

Not Important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Important
---------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----------------

Quality of Service

Not Important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Important
---------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----------------

Quality of Products

Not Important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Important
---------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----------------

Brand Name

Not Important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Important
---------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----------------

Access and Convenience

Not Important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Important
---------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----------------

Social Responsibility of the Shop

Not Important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Important
---------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----------------

Coffee Bean Origin

Not Important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Important
---------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----------------

- Price**
Not Important 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Important
3. **It really pleases me to know that a coffee shop I buy from has acted in a socially responsible way.**
- Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree
Completely Completely
4. **Overall, I tend to be more socially responsible than my friends and other campus students.**
- Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree
Completely Completely
5. **I would walk an extra five minutes to a coffee shop that I knew was socially responsible.**
- Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree
Completely Completely
6. **I would be willing to pay more money for coffee or products from a socially responsible coffee shop.**
- Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree
Completely Completely
7. **I would increase the number of visits to a coffee shop if I knew it was socially responsible.**
- Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree
Completely Completely
8. **Knowing a coffee shop is socially responsible would increase my trust in their products and services.**
- Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree
Completely Completely
9. **I could easily switch from a coffee shop that was socially responsible to one that was not.**
- Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree
Completely Completely

10. Because a coffee shop is socially responsible, I have a sense of loyalty to it.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree
Completely Completely

11. Purchasing from a coffee shop that is socially responsible gives me a sense of warmth and comfort.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree
Completely Completely

12. I get an emotional reward when I purchase socially responsible products, knowing that my money is being used to support the things I believe in.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree
Completely Completely

13. If I had no other information regarding a coffee shop and had never frequented it before, if I heard it was socially responsible I would give it a try.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree
Completely Completely

Please elaborate on your response:

14. If I had stopped frequenting a coffee shop because of poor quality products and/or service, and then learned that it was now a socially responsible coffee shop, I would give it a second chance.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree
Completely Completely

15. Your Gender: (Please circle one) Male Female

16. What best describes you? (Please circle only one selection)

Freshman Sophomore Junior Senior
Graduate student Faculty Staff Visitor

Campus Coffee Shop Survey Code

1. (*SR1*). Whether a coffee shop is socially responsible or not is important to me in making purchasing decisions.
2. Please rate the following as to how important they are in deciding whether to make purchases from a coffee shop.
 - (*CFT*) Taste
 - (*CFQT*) Quality of Service
 - (*CFQ*) Quality of Products
 - (*CFB*) Brand Name
 - (*CFSQ*) Access and Convenience
 - (*CFSR*) Social Responsibility of the Shop
 - (*CFCB*) Coffee Bean Origin
 - (*CFP*) Price
3. (*SRM3*) It really pleases me to know that a coffee shop I buy from has acted in a social responsible way.
4. (*SRM4*) Overall, I tend to be more socially responsible than my friends and other campus students.
5. (*SRM5*) I would walk an extra five minutes to a coffee shop that I knew was socially responsible.
6. (*RBSRI6*) I would be willing to pay more money for coffee or products from a socially responsible coffee shop.
7. (*RBSRI7*) I would increase the number of visits to a coffee shop if I knew it was socially responsible.
8. (*TL8*) Knowing a coffee shop is socially responsible would increase my trust in their products and services.
9. (*TL9*) I could easily switch from a coffee shop that was socially responsible to one that was not.
10. (*TL10*) Because a coffee shop is socially responsible, I have a sense of loyalty to it.
11. (*TL11*) Purchasing from a coffee shop that is socially responsible gives me a sense of warmth and comfort.
12. (*TL12*) I get an emotional reward when I purchase socially responsible products, knowing that my money is being used to support the things I believe in.

3. (*SRM3*) It really pleases me to know that a coffee shop I buy from has acted in a social responsible way.
4. (*SRM4*) Overall, I tend to be more socially responsible than my friends and other campus students.
5. (*SRM5*) I would walk an extra five minutes to a coffee shop that I knew was socially responsible.
6. (*RBSRI6*) I would be willing to pay more money for coffee or products from a socially responsible coffee shop.
7. (*RBSRI7*) I would increase the number of visits to a coffee shop if I knew it was socially responsible.
8. (*TL8*) Knowing a coffee shop is socially responsible would increase my trust in their products and services.
9. (*TL9*) I could easily switch from a coffee shop that was socially responsible to one that was not.
10. (*TL10*) Because a coffee shop is socially responsible, I have a sense of loyalty to it.
11. (*TL11*) Purchasing from a coffee shop that is socially responsible gives me a sense of warmth and comfort.
12. (*TL12*) I get an emotional reward when I purchase socially responsible products, knowing that my money is being used to support the things I believe in.
13. (*EVOKE13*) If I had no other information regarding a coffee shop and had never frequented it before, if I heard it was socially responsible I would give it a try.
14. (*Sink 14*) If I had stopped frequenting a coffee shop because of poor quality products and/or service, and then learned that it was now a socially responsible coffee shop, I would give it a second chance.
15. (*Gender*) Your Gender: (Please circle one)
16. (*Class*) What best describes you? (Please circle only one selection)

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