RAE Journal of Business Management

RESEARCH AND KNOWLEDGE
V. 60, N. 1,
January–February 2020

fgv.br/rae

FGV | SAO PAULO SCHOOL OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

FORUM

Customer experience and engagement
Delane Botelho | Leandro Angotti Guissoni

Dishonesty is contagious: Investigating the domino effect of dysfunctional customer behaviors
Denise Telli | Lélis Balestrin Espartel | Clecio Falcao Araujo | Kenny Basso

Consumers' knowledge, maximizing tendencies, and post-decision information search
Maura Ferreira | Cristiane Pizzutti dos Santos

Investigating online response strategies for addressing negative word of mouth
Roberta Duarte Fernandes | Giuliana Isabella

ARTICLE

Craft and commercial dimension in constructing a beer market
Marlon Dalmoro | Guilherme Fell

PERSPECTIVES

Organizational studies in Brazil: Building access or replicating exclusion?
Alexandre de Pádua Carrieri | Gabriel Farias Alves Correia

Reflexivity in teaching and researching organizational studies
Ann L. Cunliffe

BOOK REVIEW

The energy emanating from NEOS
Marcio Sá

CONTENTS

EDITORIAL

1 A NEW DECADE AND *RAE'S* 60TH ANNIVERSARY...
Uma nova década, e a rae se aproxima dos 60 anos
Una nueva decada, y la RAE se aproxima a los 60 años
Maria José Tonelli | Felipe Zambaldi

FORUM

3 CUSTOMER EXPERIENCE AND ENGAGEMENT
Experiência e engajamento do cliente
Experiencia y compromiso con el cliente
Delane Botelho | Leandro Angotti Guissoni

7 DISHONESTY IS CONTAGIOUS: INVESTIGATING THE DOMINO EFFECT OF DYSFUNCTIONAL CUSTOMER BEHAVIORS
Desonestidade é contagiosa: Investigando o efeito dominó do comportamento disfuncional do consumidor
La Deshonestidad es contagiosa: El efecto dominó del comportamiento disfuncional del consumidor
Denise Telli | Lélis Balestrin Espartel | Clecio Falcao Araujo | Kenny Basso

20 CONSUMERS' KNOWLEDGE, MAXIMIZING TENDENCIES, AND POST-DECISION INFORMATION SEARCH
Conhecimento do consumidor, tendência à maximização e a busca de informação após decisões
Conocimiento de los consumidores, tendencia a la maximización y la búsqueda de información posterior a decisiones
Maura Ferreira | Cristiane Pizzutti dos Santos

33 INVESTIGATING ONLINE RESPONSE STRATEGIES FOR ADDRESSING NEGATIVE WORD OF MOUTH
Investigando as estratégias de respostas quanto ao boca a boca negativo on-line
Investigando las estrategias de respuestas respecto al boca a boca negativo online
Roberta Duarte Fernandes | Giuliana Isabella

ARTICLES / *ARTIGOS / ARTÍCULOS*

47 CRAFT AND COMMERCIAL DIMENSION IN CONSTRUCTING A BEER MARKET
Dimensões artesanal e massificada na construção do mercado cervejeiro
Dimensiones Artesanal y Comercial en la Construcción del Mercado Cervecero
Marlon Dalmoro | Guilherme Fell

PERSPECTIVAS / *PERSPECTIVES*

59 ORGANIZATIONAL STUDIES IN BRAZIL: BUILDING ACCESS OR REPLICATING EXCLUSION?
Estudos organizacionais no Brasil: construindo acesso ou replicando exclusão?
Estudios organizacionales en Brasil: ¿Construyendo acceso o replicando exclusión?
Alexandre de Pádua Carrieri | Gabriel Farias Alves Correia

64 REFLEXIVITY IN TEACHING AND RESEARCHING ORGANIZATIONAL STUDIES
Reflexividade no ensino e pesquisa de estudos organizacionais
Reflexividad en la enseñanza e investigación de estudios organizacionales
Ann L. Cunliffe

BOOK REVIEW / *RESENHA / RESEÑA*

70 THE ENERGY EMANATING FROM NEOS
A energia que emana do NEOS
La energía que emana de NEOS
Marcio Sá

EDITORIAL INFORMATION / *INFORMAÇÕES EDITORIAIS / INFORMACIÓNES EDITORIALES*

72 EDITORIAL INFORMATION 2019 | CONTRIBUTORS
Informações editoriais 2019 / Colaboradores
Informaciónes editorales 2019 / Colaboradores

CC BY

ISSN 0034-7590

EDITORIAL

Translated version
DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/S0034-759020200101



Maria José Tonelli
Editora-chefe



Felipe Zambaldi
Editor-adjunto

A NEW DECADE AND *RAE'S* 60th ANNIVERSARY...

Traditionally, the first edition of the year takes stock of the previous year. Hence, we would like to first thank the entire ecosystem of *RAE* for their collaboration and support, including Fundação Getulio Vargas, São Paulo School of Business Administration, members of the RAE Publications Committee, Editorial Policy Committee, and Scientific Editorial Board; the reviewers, who are fundamental to the development of the articles; and, internally, our work team. We also thank CNPq for its assistance. Without such a support network, the publication would not have been possible.

The year 2019 was marked by significant achievements for *RAE*, with an increase of up to 70% in the main worldwide citation indices: JCR, CiteScore, and FI SciELO. This milestone confirms and strengthens *RAE's* leadership in the Brazilian academy of business administration while projecting the journal internationally. These accomplishments are the result of more than a decade's effort, especially by the previous editor-in-chief, Professor Eduardo Diniz, who put *RAE* onto several international indicators.

The new year began with the decision of making the articles available on our *website* shortly after their approval (no longer having to wait for the closing of the edition they are in): the *ahead of print* publication—providing swift dissemination of the ideas of *RAE* authors. Scientific journals have become increasingly important to give greater visibility to published articles and disseminate scientific knowledge among not only researchers but also the general public. However, these changes should be promoted patiently, especially in a traditional journal such as *RAE*, which will mark its 60th anniversary in 2021. This new decade will be special for our journal.

It is worth highlighting some other numbers from 2019: submissions increased by 7% compared with the previous year (we received 841 articles in 2019, up from 786 in 2018); 63% of the 38 articles we published had authors linked to Brazilian institutions, 29% had authors linked only to foreign institutions, and 8% involved international collaboration, configuring an important exchange of contributions for the dissemination of scientific research in business administration. Other editorial information can be accessed at *website*. We still have on board 231 collaborators, of which 76% are from Brazil and 24% from other countries. In recognition of this fundamental work, we have selected the best researchers, which can be checked at *website*.

In this edition, we present the results of partnerships with two important conferences in the area of marketing—Latin American Retail Congress (CLAV) and Marketing Meeting (EMA)—both held in 2018 and promoted by the Fundação Getulio Vargas and the National Association of Postgraduation and Research in Administration (Associação Nacional de Pós-Graduação e Pesquisa em Administração [ANPAD]), respectively. The first text, "Customer experience and

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

engagement" by professors Delane Botelho and Leandro Angotti Guissoni, provides an overview of the discussions held at CLAV and the importance of academic literature for retail practice. Next, "Dishonesty is contagious: investigating the domino effect of dysfunctional customer behaviors" by professors Denise Telli, Lélis Balestrin Espartel, Clecio Fallao Araujo, and Kenny Basso addresses how the interaction between different clients can influence the individual perception of the company's services/products. The article "Consumers' knowledge, maximizing tendencies, and post-decision information search" by professors Maura Ferreira and Cristiane Pizzutti dos Santos investigates consumer behavior when searching for a product and how this reflects in their decision-making. "Investigating online response strategies for addressing negative word of mouth" by Roberta Duarte Fernandes and Giuliana Isabella addresses the strategies of companies to preserve their reputation in the online environment. Finally, the article "Craft and commercial dimension in constructing a beer market" by professors Marlon Dalmoro and Guilherme Fell analyzes the dimensions of the hegemonic market before the craft market of breweries in southern Brazil in a multidimensional system.

In the Perspectives section, professors Alexandre de Padua Carrieri and Gabriel Farias Alves Correia propose reflection on organizational studies in the Brazilian context, while professor Ann L. Cunliffe, with her experience outside Brazil, discusses how reflexivity can help professors and researchers in the teaching and practice of organizational studies. Finally, in the Book review section, Professor Marcio Sá writes about the book *Energy, organizations and society (Energia, organizações e sociedade)*.

We welcome our readers in this new decade and hope that it brings us even more reasons to celebrate.

Happy reading!

Maria José Tonelli[1] | ORCID: 0000-0002-6585-1493

Felipe Zambaldi[1] | ORCID: 0000-0002-5378-6444

[1] Fundação Getulio Vargas, Escola de Administração de Empresas de São Paulo, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

FORUM

Invited article
Translated version
DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/S0034-759020200102

CUSTOMER EXPERIENCE AND ENGAGEMENT

The 11th Latin American Retail Congress (Congresso Latino-Americano de Varejo [CLAV]) conducted at Escola de Administração de Empresas de São Paulo da Fundação Getulio Vargas (FGV EAESP) on October 25 and 26, 2018, aimed to connect the frontier of academic literature with practical issues related to retail, through the theme "Engaging and interactive shopper experience." This theme was selected due to its relevance in terms of theory and practice and its integrative character because it combines various topics, such as consumer behavior, big data and retail analytics, experience, engagement, customer relationship management, shopper marketing, and omnichannel. The discussion included the role of retailers in providing an engaging and interactive experience for consumers and shoppers throughout the retail journey and how they respond to the experience. The term "customer journey" refers to the process through which the buyer is provided with the customer experience, across all stages and touchpoints. (Lemon & Verhoef, 2016). Changes in technology have provided customers with several interactive touchpoints regarding media, channels, and online and offline devices in their purchase journeys. Retailers attempt to provide different levels of experience—rational, emotional, physical, and sensory (Smith, Bolton, & Wagner, 1999; Verhoef et al., 2009)—for customers and the company to make their journey more valuable and to aim at customer engagement through direct and indirect contributions to retailers throughout the journey (Kumar et al., 2010; Venkatesan, Petersen, & Guissoni, 2017).

Since the first CLAV conducted in 2008, the congress has established itself as one of the most important Brazilian congresses in this field. In 2019, the name of the congress was changed to Latin American Retail and Consumption Conference (Congresso Latino-Americano de Varejo e Consumo), thus incorporating the observations of the growing submission of consumer-related articles, in addition to the submission of articles regarding the retail environment. The name CLAV has been retained, as well its positioning as the scientific congress of Business Administration that invests significant effort for promoting the integration of marketing and business practices among Brazilian academics. The CLAV prioritizes research applicability, and to that end, brings together academics and professionals in a single environment by offering executive sessions, panels with CEOs, an applied research workshop, and the professional master's degree sessions.

CLAV is primarily characterized by the presence of distinguished speakers, academics, and practitioners. In 2018, two professors who are widely cited in literature regarding the theme of the 2018 congress were present: V. Kumar (J. Mack Robinson College of Business, Georgia State University and editor-in-chief of the Journal of Marketing, 2014–2018) and Rajkumar Venkatesan (Darden School of Business, University of Virginia). They addressed the theme of CLAV, engagement and interactivity, and discussed the role of retailers in delivering interactive, high-engaging experiences to consumers throughout the retail journey and how they respond to it in both physical and digital environments. It is important for us to honor not only the experienced researchers, but also novice researchers who are starting their journey by undergoing the traditional doctoral consortium or scientific initiation board for undergraduate students. The CLAV is delighted to see renowned researchers, first-year master's degree students in remote areas of Brazil, professionals from large companies, or entrepreneurs

DELANE BOTELHO[1]
delane.botelho@fgv.br
ORCID: 0000-0001-5491-2847

LEANDRO ANGOTTI GUISSONI[1]
leandro.guissoni@fgv.br
ORCID: 0000-0003-1193-9251

[1]Fundação Getulio Vargas, São Paulo School of Business Administration, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

with small businesses presenting their articles during the CLAV sessions. This is the CLAV community. It is a congress that does not aspire to increase the number of participants (approximately 250), but instead aspires to increase the quality of submissions and internationalization, with a focus on Latin America.

CUSTOMER EXPERIENCE AND ENGAGEMENT

Technological advances have allowed shoppers—individuals in "shopping mode" (Shankar, Inman, Mantrala, Kelley, & Rizley, 2011)—to interact with several types of online and offline media, channels, and devices during the purchase decision process (Kannan, Reinartz, & Verhoef, 2016). In the retail context, Verhoef et al. (2009) defined customer experience as a multidimensional construct involving the cognitive, affective, emotional, social, and physical aspects of the customer, with relation to the retailer. In line with this theory, senior executives have prioritized managing their businesses to ensure that a relevant consumer experience can be created during the initial stages of the purchase decision process, particularly in the context of digital business transformation (Accenture, 2015). Therefore, the academic research has contributed by associating the purchase decision process with the consumers' experiences at each contact point during this process (Edelman & Singer, 2015). This association led to the systematization of the term "customer journey," which represents "the process through which a consumer goes through, across all stages and touch points, that makes up the customer experience." (Lemon & Verhoef, 2016, p. 3).

Therefore, literature examining the retail environment has evolved to combine topics, such as experience (Lemon & Verhoef, 2016) and customer engagement (Venkatesan et al., 2017). These studies address how companies can interact with customers during the purchase journey and create and capture value beyond the completed transactions, with direct and indirect contributions (Venkatesan et al., 2017). Direct contributions refer to purchases made by customers, whereas indirect contributions refer to the references they make about the companies. For example, consumers recommend the company to other consumers, evaluate products, participate in affiliate programs, and help the company sell their products, in exchange for commission (Kumar et al., 2010).

Venkatesan et al. (2017) argued that academics and executives can benefit from the combination of the perspectives on customer experience and the engagement literature. Noting the intersection between the theme of customer engagement, customer experience, and shopper marketing, Venkatesan et al. (2017) advanced this topic by presenting methods to seek customer engagement in their journey before, during, and after the purchase, which leads customer management to undergo the stages of acquisition, relationship growth, retention, and customer recovery, in case the company chooses to regain customers who were lost at some point.

Therefore, CLAV-2018 aimed at discussing the findings reported in the literature and the opportunities for conducting applied research on experience, engagement, and interaction with customers during their purchase and purchase journeys. Research opportunities include both traditional and emerging issues in retail literature. For example, the traditional themes include the contributions of experience and customer engagement literature to customer relationship management from acquisition and retention strategies (Boulding, Staelin, Ehret, & Johnston, 2005; Grönroos, 2004; Gummesson, 1987). On the other hand, some themes, such as engagement, customer journey, customer centrality, shopper marketing, and multichannel, began to be explored—or were explored again—by studies conducted in 2010 (Kumar et al., 2010; Shankar et al., 2011; Bell, Corsten, & Knox, 2011; Kushwaha & Shankar, 2013; Lemon & Verhoef, 2016; Venkatesan et al., 2017). Finally, during the lectures of international professors and CEOs at CLAV-2018, emerging topics related to the theme of the congress aimed at connecting theory and practice were indicated: omnichannel (Verhoef, Kannan, & Inman, 2015; Ailawadi & Farris, 2017), marketing analytics (Wedel & Kannan, 2016), and digital transformation (Gielens & Steenkamp, 2019; Teixeira & Piechota, 2019; Teixeira, Guissoni, & Trajano, 2019). For example, both the academy and the market are interested in understanding the use of data derived from customer–company relationships across multiple physical and digital channels to optimize customer experience, engagement, and centrality as part of the digital transformation of business. Therefore, based on the themes and authors mentioned here, we can conclude that several opportunities are provided for the development of future articles regarding this subject and managerial implications in the retail context.

RAE RETAIL FORUM

The best articles of CLAV were invited to undergo a double-blind review process by the *RAE* Retail Forum. This forum discusses themes relevant to global retail and consumption, which are adapted to the reality of the Brazilian market.

CC BY
© RAE | São Paulo | **60(1)** | **January-February 2020** | 3-6 ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

In the first article, "Dishonesty is contagious: Investigating the domino effect of dysfunctional consumer behavior," the authors, Denise Telli, Lélis Balestrin Espartel, Clécio Falcão Araújo, and Kenny Basso, proposed that the interaction between dysfunctional customers (those with unethical or dishonest behavior) and other customers can cause a domino effect—i.e., the dissemination of the behavior of a dysfunctional customer to other customers that are close. After conducting five experiments, the authors noted that the amount of damage influenced the probability of replicating dysfunctional behaviors. Through the mediation analysis, this effect is explained based on the acceptability of a dysfunctional behavior, and through the moderation analysis, it was noted that higher levels of client ethics and perceived risk, and an in-group condition (versus an out-group condition, related to social distance), mitigate the effects of the damage in the occurrence of the domino effect. The implications for the retail context are evident because unethical behaviors impact business, from the perspective of both corporates and shoppers.

In the second article, "Effects of prior consumer knowledge and the tendency to maximize the search for information after decisions," the authors, Maura Ferreira and Cristiane Pizzutti dos Santos, argue that consumers are now more informed before making purchase decisions. The authors examined the effects of this knowledge on post-decision information research; using an experimental study and two correlational studies, they showed that informed consumers seek additional information in the post-decision phase, even if the decision cannot be altered. Moreover, this primary effect is stronger (weaker) for satisficers. The effect of consumers' prior knowledge on the search for information has already been explored in the early stages of the purchase journey; however, previous studies have not extended this effect to the post-decision context. As shown in the literature, variables, such as cognitive dissonance and feelings of regret or dissatisfaction, not only affect the behavior of seeking information after the decision, but also the consumers' prior knowledge of the product. Therefore, the article suggests a new variable to be considered in the post-decision information search model. The implications for retailers suggest that if knowledgeable consumers continue looking for additional information about the products they bought after the purchase decision, marketers should help the consumers by providing additional information about the product they bought after the purchase. The information that consumers find after selecting a product can serve as a "calibration element" for their judgments. If retailers find out where consumers search for information, they can select the best approach to reinforce their decisions and as a result, decrease their feelings of regret.

In the third article, "Investigating response strategies for negative online word-of-mouth," the authors, Roberta Duarte Fernandes and Giuliana Isabella, investigated the response strategies being adopted by companies to protect organizational reputation in the online environment because the digital age has changed the methods through which companies and customers interact, and the influence of negative word-of-mouth on brand reputation has increased. Ten semi-structured interviews with brand managers were conducted to identify the strategies used to minimize negative word-of-mouth in social media, and a content analysis of the profiles managed by agencies and Facebook and Instagram profiles (more than 4,000 comment posts were analyzed) was performed to identify more strategies. In some situations, companies have preferred to apologize, hide the message, privately reply to consumers, or simply ignore negative comments from consumers. The article provides an integrated and current overview of several strategies and actions taken by companies in response to complaints on the Internet, thus presenting insights regarding strategies that are currently being used by brands and the implications of consumer interaction or engagement for brand management.

We hope that this *RAE* Forum stimulates the development of retail and consumer research that can be discussed in future CLAVs and published in high-impact journals, thus contributing to the development of our field. Each year, CLAV features a new theme that aligns with topics that have been widely discussed by international academics, in line with the demands of the market, which are captured in conferences, such as National Retail Federation and São Paulo Supermarket Association (Associação Paulista de Supermercados).

NOTE

Institutional video. CLAV 2018, recovered from https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZBjJTJczslo=278s.

REFERENCES

Accenture. (2015, October 27). *Improving customer experience is top business priority for companies pursuing digital transformation, according to accenture study*. News release. Retrieved from https://newsroom.accenture.com/news/improving-customer-experience-is-top-business-priority-for-companies-pursuing-digital-transformation-according-to-accenture-study.htm

Ailwadi, K. L, & Farris, P. W. (2017). Managing multi- and omni-channel distribution: metrics and research directions. *Journal of Retailing*, 93(1), 120-135. doi: 10.1016/j.jretai.2016.12.003

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

Bell, D., Corsten, D., & Knox, G. (2011, January). From point of purchase to path to purchase: How preshopping factors drive unplanned buying. *Journal of Marketing*, *75*, 31-45. doi: 10.1509/jm.75.1.31

Boulding, W., Staelin, R., Ehret, M., & Johnston, W. J. (2005, October). A customer relationship management roadmap: What is known, potential pitfalls, and where to go. *Journal of Marketing*, *69*, 155-166.

Edelman, D. C., & Singer, M. (2015, November). Competing on customer journeys. *Harvard Business Review*, 88 (12), 62-69.

Ferreira, M., Santos, C. P. dos. Consumers' knowledge, maximizing tendencies, and post-decision information search. (2020). *RAE-Revista de Administração de Empresas*, *60*(1), 20-32. doi: 10.1590/S0034-759020200103

Gielens, K., Steenkamp, J. B. E. M. (2019). Branding in the Era of Digital (dis)intermediation. *International Journal of Research in Marketing,* 36(3), 367-384. doi: 10.1016/j.ijresmar.2019.01.005

Grönroos, C. (2004).xs. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, *19*(2), 99-113. doi: 10.1108/08858620410523981

Gummesson, E. (1987). The new marketing: developing long-term interactive relationships. *Long Range Planning*, *20*(4), 10-20. doi: 10.1016/0024-6301(87)90151-8

Isabella, G., Fernandes, R. D. Investigando as estratégias de respostas quanto ao boca a boca negativo on-line. (2020). *RAE-Revista de Administração de Empresas*, 60(1), 33-46. doi: 10.1590/S0034-759020200104

Kannan, P. K., Reinartz, W., & Verhoef, P. C. (2016). The path to purchase and attribution modeling: Introduction to special section. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, *33*, 449-456. doi: 10.1016/j.ijresmar.2016.07.001

Kumar, V., Aksoy, L., Donkers, B., Venkatesan, R., Wiesel, T., & Tillmanns, S. (2010). Undervalued or overvalued customers: Capturing total customer engagement value. *Journal of Service Research*, *13*(3), 297-310. doi: 10.1177/1094670510375602

Kushwaha, T., & Shankar, V. (2013). Are Multichannel Customers Really more Valuable? The Moderating Role of Product Category Characteristics. *Journal of Marketing*, 77(4), 67–85. doi: 10.1509/jm.11.0297

Lemon, K. N., & Verhoef, P. C. (2016). Understanding customer experience throughout the customer journey. *Journal of Marketing*, *80*(6), 69-96. doi: 10.1509/jm.15.0420

Shankar, V., Inman, J. J., Mantrala, M., Kelley, E., & Rizley, R. (2011). Innovations in shopper marketing: current insights and future research issues. *Journal of Retailing, 87*(1), S29-S42. doi: 10.1016/j.jretai.2011.04.007

Smith, A. K., Bolton, R. N., & Wagner, J. (1999, August). A model of customer satisfaction with service encounters involving failure and recovery. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *36*, 356-372. doi: 10.1177/002224379903600305

Teixeira, T., & A., L. Guissoni, & Trajano, F. An unlikely case of successful digital transformation (2019). In *The transformation playbook: insights, wisdom, and best practice to make transformation reality*, Edited by The Brightline Initiative & Thinkers50, Great Britain.

Teixeira, T. S., & Piechota, G. (2019). *Unlocking the customer value chain*. New York, USA: Penguin Random House LLC.

Telli, D., Espartel, L. B., Araujo, C. F., Basso, K. Dishonesty is contagious: Investigating the domino effect of dysfunctional customer behaviors. (2020). *RAE-Revista de Administração de Empresas*, 60(1), 7-19. doi: 10.1590/S0034-759020200102

Venkatesan, R., Petersen, J. A., & Guissoni, L. A. (2017). Measuring and managing customer engagement value through the customer journey. In V. Kumar, R. W. Palmatier, & C. M. Harmeling (Eds.), *Customer engagement marketing* (pp. 53-74). London, UK: Palgrave MacMillan.

Verhoef, P. C., Kannan, P.K., & Inman, J. J. (2015). From Multi-Channel Retailing to Omni-Channel Retailing: Introduction to the Special Issue on Multi-Channel Retailing. *Journal of Retailing*, 91 (2), 174–81. doi: 10.1016/j.jretai.2015.02.005

Verhoef, P. C., Lemon, K. N., A. Parasuraman, Roggeveen, A., Tsiros, M., & Schlesinger, L. A. (2009). Customer experience creation: Determinants, dynamics, and management strategies. *Journal of Retailing*, 85 (1), 31–41. doi: 10.1016/j.jretai.2008.11.001

Wedel, M., & Kannan, P. K. (2016). Marketing analytics for data-rich environments. *Journal of Marketing,* 80(6), 97–121. doi: 10.1509/jm.15.0413

AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

The authors declare that they participated in all stages of development of the manuscript. From the conceptualization and theoretical-methodological approach, as well the theoretical review (literature survey), and finally, writing and final review the manuscript.

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

FORUM

Submitted 07.10.2019. Approved 09.04.2019
Evaluated through a double-blind review process. Guest Scientific Editors: Delane Botelho and Leandro Angotti Guissoni
Original version

DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/S0034-759020200103

DISHONESTY IS CONTAGIOUS: INVESTIGATING THE DOMINO EFFECT OF DYSFUNCTIONAL CUSTOMER BEHAVIORS

Desonestidade é contagiosa: Investigando o efeito dominó do comportamento disfuncional do consumidor

La Deshonestidad es contagiosa: El efecto dominó del comportamiento disfuncional del consumidor

DENISE TELLI[1]
denisetelli@hotmail.com
ORCID: 0000-0003-0009-9840

LÉLIS BALESTRIN ESPARTEL[1]
lbespartel@pucrs.br
ORCID: 0000-0003-1062-9817

CLECIO FALCAO ARAUJO[1 2]
clecioa@bol.com.br
ORCID: 0000-0002-8753-5184

KENNY BASSO[3]
bassokenny@gmail.com
ORCID: 0000-0003-2853-0903

[1]Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Rio Grande do Sul, Escola de Negócios, Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil

[2]Universidade Regional do Noroeste do Estado do Rio Grande do Sul, Programa de Pós-Graduação em Desenvolvimento Regional, Ijuí, RS, Brazil

[3]Cooperando Inteligência + Interação & B-LAB Learning Space, Passo Fundo, RS, Brazil

ABSTRACT

The interaction between dysfunctional customers and other customers can cause the domino effect (i.e., the dissemination of a dysfunctional client's behavior to other nearby clients). However, it is not understood if this effect will manifest under certain levels of damage to the company. This study thus aims to verify if the amount of damage from the dysfunctional behavior can affect the probability of the domino effect. Through five experimental studies, we prove that the amount of damage influences the likelihood of dysfunctional behavior replication. Moreover, we found that this effect is explained by the acceptability of the dysfunctional behavior. We also identify that a consumer's ethics level, perception of risk in replicating the behavior, and social distance acts as boundary conditions of the amount of damage effect on the probability of replicating the dysfunctional behavior.

KEYWORDS | Dysfunctional behavior, domino effect, ethics, perception of risk, contagious effect.

RESUMO

A interação entre clientes disfuncionais e outros clientes pode causar o efeito dominó (ou seja, a disseminação do comportamento de um cliente disfuncional para outros clientes próximos). No entanto, não há uma compreensão se esse efeito ocorrerá em tamanhos diferentes de danos à empresa. Nesse sentido, esta pesquisa tem como objetivo verificar se o tamanho do dano pode afetar a ocorrência de efeito dominó do comportamento disfuncional. Através de cinco estudos experimentais, verificamos que o tamanho do dano influencia a probabilidade de replicar um comportamento disfuncional. Além disso, descobrimos que esse efeito é explicado pela aceitabilidade de um comportamento disfuncional. Também identificamos que o nível de ética do consumidor, a percepção de risco ao replicar o comportamento e a distância social atuam como condicionantes do efeito do tamanho do dano na probabilidade de replicar o comportamento disfuncional.

PALAVRAS-CHAVE | *Comportamento disfuncional, efeito dominó, ética, percepção de risco, efeito de contágio.*

RESUMEN

La interacción entre clientes disfuncionales y otros clientes puede causar un efecto dominó (es decir, la diseminación del comportamiento de un cliente disfuncional entre otros clientes cercanos). No obstante, no se entiende si este efecto se manifestará en diferentes proporciones de daño a la empresa. Por lo tanto, este estudio tiene como objetivo verificar si la proporción del daño del comportamiento disfuncional puede afectar la probabilidad del efecto dominó. A través de cinco estudios experimentales, verificamos que la proporción del daño influye en la probabilidad de replicación del comportamiento disfuncional. Además, descubrimos que ese efecto se explica por la aceptabilidad del comportamiento disfuncional. También identificamos que el nivel de ética del consumidor, la percepción del riesgo al replicar el comportamiento y la distancia social actúan como condicionantes del efecto de la proporción del daño en la probabilidad de replicar el comportamiento disfuncional.

PALABRAS CLAVE | *Comportamiento disfuncional, efecto dominó, ética, percepción del riesgo, efecto de contagio.*

 CC BY

INTRODUCTION

In the retail context—offline or online—customers constantly interact and are influenced by other customers. These interactions and influences happen through conversations and observations (Libai et al., 2010) and can be either positive for companies, as customers can influence each other to buy or spread positive word-of-mouth, or cause damage because there are customers who behave dysfunctionally (Wilkes, 1978; Fullerton & Punj, 1993; Daunt & Greer, 2015).

Dysfunctional customer behavior (DCB), also called aberrant, unethical, or dishonest behavior, is understood as "actions by customers who intentionally or unintentionally, overtly or covertly, act in a manner that, in some way, disrupts otherwise functional service encounters" (Harris & Reynolds, 2003, p. 145). DCB has also been described as client behaviors that violate conduct rules and norms generally accepted in consumption situations (Fullerton & Punj, 1993). In these cases, customers break the rules established by the company or society and cause damage to companies, employees, themselves, and other customers. The types of DCB studied in marketing relate to behaviors such as shoplifting, purchasing counterfeit products, fraudulent return of merchandise, verbal or physical aggression, and vandalism (Fisk et al., 2010).

The interactions between dysfunctional customers and other customers can cause, among others, the domino effect, which is the dissemination of the dysfunctional behavior from a dysfunctional client to other nearby clients (Harris & Reynolds, 2003). The possibility of the domino effect in the DCB has been explored (e.g., Harris & Reynolds, 2003; Wu, 2007, 2008; Liao, Chou, & Lin, 2015). In general, previous studies assume and find that if a customer sees another one engaging in a DCB, he/she may replicate this behavior. However, these studies do not explore the role of the amount of damage to the company affected by the DCB. For example, will a customer replicate a DCB from another customer if the damage to the company is significant? What if the damage to the company is minimal?

The present study aims to verify if the amount of damage can influence the occurrence of the dysfunctional behavior's domino effect. We suppose that a customer, having interacted with a dysfunctional customer, is more likely to repeat this behavior if the damage is minimal than when it is great. This domino effect may be a consequence of DCB acceptability—that is, the greater the acceptability of a DCB, the greater the likelihood of imitation of the deviant behavior.

To better understand the damage amount effect, we investigated three conditions that could change the likelihood of the domino effect according to the level of damage to the company: the level of customer ethics, the perceived risk, and the social distance. Specifically, we expect that higher levels of customer ethics and perceived risk can mitigate the effects of the amount of damage on the likelihood of the DCB's domino effect. Similarly, we expect that an in-group condition (vs. out-group condition from social distance) could reduce the contagion effect of the DCB.

Notably, explanations for these imitative behaviors are studied by psychologists through social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) and by criminologists through broken windows theory (Schaefers, Wittkowski, Benoit, & Ferraro, 2016). Marketing studies also explore the mechanisms of observational learning, or how customers not only observe the behaviors of others but how they learn this behavior, and how these imitative effects influence consumer preferences and decisions (Libai et al., 2010).

This paper first discusses the theoretical foundations of the domino effect of DCB and the hypotheses. Next, we carry out five experimental studies to test the hypotheses. Finally, we offer theoretical and practical implications.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES

Bandura (1963) argues that when a model is provided, behavioral patterns quickly emerge; unlike the longer instrumental training process, studies on imitation demonstrate that exposure to negative models (e.g., aggressive) implies an increase in subsequent responses. Imitation behavior refers to participating in an action after observing similar behavior by others (Akers & Sellers, 2004). Whether the behavior modeled will be imitated depends on the characteristics of the models, the behavior observed, and the observed consequences of the behavior (Akers & Sellers, 2004).

In the context of complaints, Kowalski (1996) presents similar results on the domino effect. He calls it the "contagion of complaints" and concludes that, for various reasons, after an individual's complaint, the incidents of people complaining tend to increase. Akers and Sellers (2004, p. 92) relate that the relationship between social learning variables (i.e., social contagion or the domino effect) and criminal behavior (i.e., similar to DCB) is typically strong to moderate. Most customers may file modestly inflated claims that can still be justified by self-serving fairness perceptions to allow self-concept maintenance (Wirtz & McColl-Kennedy, 2010). However, some may try to cheat for maximum benefit.

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

Imitation can be an influencer of this customer opportunistic complaint behavior (Baker, Magnini, & Perdue, 2012). Gino, Gu, and Zhong (2009) investigated the imitative effect and found that observing colleagues who acted unethically, such as cheating in a test, increases the observer's level of unethical behavior. A person's behavior can be contagious if it induces other people to act similarly (Schaefers et al., 2016). Based on the broken windows theory of criminology, they studied the contagious effects of DCB and found that anonymity encourages dysfunctional behaviors in access-based car services. The broken windows theory proposes that urban deterioration signals previous misconduct and generates criminal activities, predicting the contagion of dysfunctional behavior; that is, for bad behavior to occur, it is not necessary for the person to witness past misbehavior (Schaefers et al., 2016) but only to realize that it has succeeded.

Moreover, the amount of damage caused may influence the probability of the domino effect. Specifically, behaviors that result in minor damages to businesses can be more easily accepted by people and, therefore, more easily imitated by other customers, thus increasing the likelihood of the domino effect.

> H1: The amount of damage caused to the company influences the probability of the domino effect of a previous DCB, so the probability is higher (lower) when the damage is minimal (great).

> H2: The relationship between the damage amount and subsequent DCB is mediated by the acceptability of the DCB.

The level of moral development is an individual's psychological characteristic, and moral restraints are a way to check if a behavior is right or wrong (Fullerton & Punj, 1993). These restrictions may play an important role in making each individual perceive a dysfunctional act as either moral or immoral.

Fullerton, Kerch, and Dodge (1996) indicate that the acceptance of unethical behavior by an individual is attributed more to the situation than to their attitude. Thus, although individuals perceive behaviors as unethical, depending on the situation, tolerance in the ethical judgment of certain behaviors may vary.

Following these observations, we believe that the customer ethics level plays an important role in the replication of dysfunctional behaviors. Specifically, for individuals with higher levels of ethics, an increase in company damage represents a lower DCB acceptability, or a decrease in the intention to perform a subsequent DCB.

> H3: The level of customer ethics moderates the domino effect, so for higher levels of ethics, the effect of the amount of damage on DCB acceptability will be negative.

Even with important motivational variables that influence individuals to repeat dysfunctional behaviors, the fear of being caught may deter them. Albers-Miller (1999) points out that despite the financial advantages that dysfunctional behavior offers, criminal penalties can discourage such actions. That is, the lower the risk of detention, the greater the likelihood of dysfunctional behaviors.

Likewise, Daunt and Greer (2015) found that the likelihood of a customer stealing a product in a store is lower when this store is under surveillance. Therefore, an opportunity to assume a dysfunctional behavior is the result of a set of favorable conditions that offer rewards and do not present punishments (Ferrell & Gresham, 1985). If the client perceives the opportunity, he will be more prone to act dysfunctionally.

The motivating or inhibiting factor of perceived risk is also influenced by previous client experiences. Daunt and Harris (2011) point out that the behavior of deviant clients who were successful in the past is associated with performing the same acts in the future. When the customer realizes that they have a high chance of success (low perception of risk) after dysfunctional behavior, they merge past and future behaviors.

> H4: Perceived risk moderates the domino effect, so that a higher perceived risk (vs. perceived low risk) will decrease the likelihood of the domino effect under a high damage condition.

A consumer who engages in some type of DCB can be motivated by financial gain, revenge, dissatisfaction, or just taking advantage of a company's failure (Wirtz & Kum, 2004). Opportunistic consumer behavior can take several forms, including inflated and fake insurance claims (Wirtz & McColl-Kennedy, 2010). The findings of a study from Wirtz and McColl-Kennedy (2010) indicate that consumers tend to exaggerate claims when they complain about damage caused by a company.

Gino, Ayal, and Ariely (2009) found support for the idea that when the saliency of dishonesty increases, cheating decreases. Some claimants may try to maximize the compensation they seek to obtain; however, many opportunistic claims are likely to be less than the maximum amount possible, so that claimants maintain their positive self-concept (Mazar, Amir, & Ariely, 2008a). The ambiguity associated with what constitutes fair compensation enables a self-serving interpretation (Babcock & Loewenstein, 1997) while allowing claimants to perceive themselves as not being dishonest (Mazar, Amir, & Ariely, 2008b).

CC BY

ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

> H5: Customers exposed to a successful DCB with high damage will claim a higher value to the company than customers exposed to a successful DCB with low damage.

The social-norms theory (Tajfel, 1982) shows an important factor that might influence the degree to which people are affected by the unethical behavior of those around them: the degree to which they identify with them. The idea is that when the identification is strong, the behaviors of others will have a higher influence on observers' social norms. When an in-group member is observed engaging in unethical behavior, other group members may make him or her the standard for the descriptive norm and, as a result, engage in unethical behavior themselves (Gino, Ayal, & Ariely, 2009).

However, another stream of research found that a proximal identification between customers could mitigate the contagion effects from the DCB (Schaefers et al., 2016). This research is supported by the notion of community, in which a member of the community tries to reestablish the order after another person's misbehavior in the group. Sampson, Morenoff, and Gannon-Rowley (2002) found that social ties can be an informal control mechanism for misbehavior in a group. Therefore, individuals evaluate in-group members (socially close ones) that misbehave more negatively than out-group members with the same behavior (Gino, Gu, & Zhong, 2009). Based on this evidence, we propose that:

> H6: Social distance moderates the domino effect, so that being a member of an in-group (vs. out-group) will decrease the likelihood of the domino effect.

To test our hypotheses, we conducted five experimental studies. Studies 1A and 1B tested the effect of the amount of damage on the likelihood of replicating a DCB and examined the mediator role of DCB acceptability and the ethics level moderation. Studies 2A and 2B replicated the domino effect and evaluated how the perception of risk influences the relationship between the amount of damage and the likelihood of replicating a DCB. In Studies 1A and 2A, we tested as a dependent variable the likelihood of replicating a DCB, and in Studies 1B and 2B, we tested as a dependent variable the amount of money that the participant requested after being exposed to a successful DCB. Study 3 replicated the domino effect and evaluated how the perception of risk influences the relationship between the amount of damage and the likelihood of replicating a DCB and examined the moderator effect of social distance (in-group vs. out-group).

STUDY 1A

The goal of Study 1A was to test the effect of the amount of damage (minimal vs. great) on the likelihood of replicating a dysfunctional behavior using an insurance claim scenario. We theorized that when a customer reports a "padded" insurance claim, he/she will exhibit more dysfunctional behavior when the amount of damage is low (vs. high). In addition, we examined the mediator role of dysfunctional behavior acceptability (Neale & Fullerton, 2010) and the moderator role of the ethical level (Muncy & Vitell, 2005).

Study design and method

The study manipulated a between-subject factor (damage: low advantage vs. high advantage) and used the continuous measure of the probability of the domino effect. Seventy-nine participants (M_{age} = 41.74 years old; SD = 13.38; 53.2% female) were recruited from Amazon's Mechanical Turk with monetary compensation.

Procedures and stimulus. The participants read a scenario about dysfunctional behavior in an insurance claim based on Miyazaki (2009). The stimulus was based on a third consumer (Bill) who reported a dysfunctional behavior regarding an insurance claim to his friend (Sam). Subjects had heard a report of a "padded" insurance claim made weeks earlier. This is an important fact in the scenario because it allowed the occurrence of the domino effect to stem from listening to the report of another dysfunctional customer.

Inside the scenario, two conditions were presented between subjects: low damage vs. high damage. Then, subjects were presented with the following situation: "On a recent trip, Sam had his suitcase stolen. While completing the claim for the insurance company, Sam remembered that the same case happened to his friend Bill a couple of weeks ago. Bill told Sam that he made a claim for $750 (vs. the maximum $3,000) instead of the actual loss of about $500. Because of that, Sam felt comfortable 'padding' the insurance claim, as well. He believed it was acceptable to increase a claim for a low (vs. high) amount to make up for the deduction (vs. insurance premium) of $250. The insurance company had accepted Bill's claim and he received $750." The values used for the claims were based on real data extracted from Miyazaki (2009).

Next, they were asked about the probability of the domino effect, measured by a 7-point scale (1 = not at all likely to 7 = extremely likely) for the two situations. The first measured the likelihood of another person (Sam) replicating a dysfunctional behavior through the question "What is the likelihood that Sam would repeat Bill's behavior?" The second item, "How likely

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

are you to repeat Bill's behavior?" measured the probability of the subject replicating Bill's dysfunctional behavior. These measures were based on Daunt and Greer (2015). To perform the manipulation check, we asked, "How much do you think Bill took advantage of the value of the lost items?" (1 = a little to 7 = a lot), followed by the mediation variable "How acceptable do you think his behavior was in the situation?" (1 = completely unacceptable to 7 = completely acceptable) based on Neale and Fullerton (2010). After that, we applied the consumer ethics scale (CES), "defined as the moral principles and standards that guide the behavior of individuals or groups as they obtain, use, and dispose of goods and services" by Muncy and Vitell (2005, p. 268) to verify the moderating effect of individual ethical behavior. This was on a 7-point scale with 31 items (1 = strongly believe that it is wrong and 7 = strongly believe it is not wrong) (α = .916). At the end, participants answered a few demographic questions and were extensively debriefed.

Pretest. We pretested our stimuli to ensure that the dysfunctional behaviors acceptability would have different perceptions in relation to the damage amount. The participants read the scenario about dysfunctional behavior in an insurance claim based on Miyazaki (2009). In this scenario, participants read about a situation in which one customer had their suitcase stolen. The manipulation check was the same as the main study. Participants indicated on a 7-point scale "How much do you think he took advantage of the value of the lost items?" (1 = a little to 7 = a lot) and "How acceptable do you think his behavior was in the situation?" (1 = completely unacceptable to 7 = completely acceptable) based on Neale and Fullerton (2010).

Seventy M-Turk panelists completed the pretest. Ten participants whose native language was not English were excluded from the final sample. Thus, the final sample included 60 participants (M_{age} = 36.23; 50% male). An independent t-test was performed to compare the mean for the small advantage ($M_{small_advantage}$ = 5.93, SD = 1.484), which was significantly lower than the large advantage ($M_{large_advantege}$ = 6.80, SD = 0.487, $t(58)$ = 3.041, p = .004), and the high damage of DCB's acceptability (M_{high_damage} = 1.363; SD = 2.080), which was significantly lower than for low damage (M_{low_damage} = 2.87; SD =1.73, $t(58)$ = 2.496, p = .015). Thus, the pretest indicated that the scenarios about the insurance claim were perceived as different among the participants.

Results

Manipulation check. We verified that subjects in the large amount of damage condition (or higher advantage) (M = 6.59) perceived that Bill took more advantage than subjects in the low amount of damage condition (or lower advantage) (M = 5.30; $F(1, 77)$ = 16.880; p ‹ .001)

Domino effect. Subjects exposed to the high amount of damage condition (M = 4.56) indicated a lower probability that Sam would repeat Bill's behavior than subjects exposed to the low amount of damage condition (M = 5.45; $F(1, 77)$ = 7.389; p ‹ .01). Additionally, the subjects in the high amount of damage condition (M = 2.25) indicated a lower likelihood of themselves replicating Sam`s behavior than participants in the low amount of damage condition (M = 3.52; $F(1, 77)$ = 7.858; p ‹ .01).

Moderated-mediation. To verify if the acceptability of the DCB explains why the domino effect happens, and how the participants' ethics level influences this relationship, we ran a moderated-mediation analysis following Hayes' (2013) recommendations. First, we dummy coded the amount of damage (0 = low and 1 = high) for the independent variable. The mediator was the acceptability of the DCB, and the dependent variable was the likelihood that Sam would replicate Bill's behavior. We also used the subjects' ethics level as the moderator of the relationship between the amount of damage and the mediator.

There is a significant effect of the interaction between the amount of damage and ethics level on acceptability (a = -.36; t = -2.45; p ‹ .05). This result indicates that the acceptability of the DCB depends on the amount of damage moderated by the ethics level. On the other side, the mediation effect of the likelihood that Sam would replicate Bill's dysfunctional behavior was positive (b = .18; t = 2.03; p ‹ .05). The indirect effect is significant only in the high levels of ethics (one SD above the mean). In this condition, through 5,000 resamples from bootstrapping, the indirect effect (a x b = -.11) is found to be negative and significant because the confidence interval (95%) did not present a null effect (-.31 to -.01). The significance of the direct effect of the amount of damage on the likelihood of the domino effect (c' = -.33; t = -1.98; p = .05) indicates that there is a partial mediation.

Likewise, we tested the mediation role of the acceptability in the relationship between the amount of damage and the likelihood of the subject to replicate Sam's behavior. As in the first test, we also considered the level of ethics as the moderator of the relationship between the amount of damage and the acceptability.

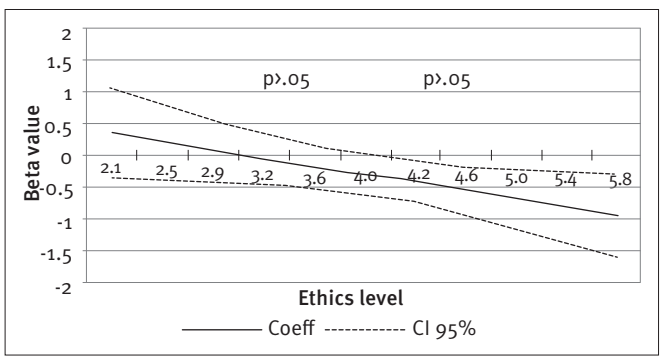
For the moderated-mediation model, the effect of the interaction between the amount of damage and ethics level on acceptability (a = -.36; t = -2.45; p ‹ .05) is the same as in the first analysis. The effect of the mediator on the likelihood that a subject would replicate Sam`s dysfunctional behavior was positive (b = .92; t = 11.65; p ‹ .001). The indirect effect is also significant but only in high levels of ethics (one SD above the mean). Specifically,

 CC BY © RAE | São Paulo | **60(1)** | **January-February 2020** | 7-19 ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

through 5,000 resamples from bootstrapping, the indirect effect ($a \times b$ = -.57) is found to be negative and significant because the confidence interval (95%) did not present a null effect (-.96 to -.15). Unlike the first moderated-mediation model, the direct effect of the amount of damage on the likelihood of the domino effect (c' = -.10; t = -.72; p = .47) is not significant, which indicates that the effect of the amount of damage on the domino effect is fully explained by the acceptability of the DCB.

To improve the understanding of the levels of ethics moderation in the relationship between the amount of damage and the acceptability of the customer dysfunctional behavior, we performed a Johnson-Neyman test to determine the location of the effect of damage significance on the acceptability, considering the level of ethics as a moderator, as shown in Graphic 1.

Graphic 1. **Effect of damage significance on acceptability with ethics as moderator – Study 1A**



Discussion

Study 1A, supporting H1, identified that the likelihood of replicating a DCB is higher in conditions that result in a lower amount of damage to the company. Specifically, the intention to replicate the behavior of another client is more pronounced when the subjects perceive that this behavior has minimal negative consequences to the company.

As predicted by H2, we also verified that the acceptability of the previous DCB mediated the influence of the amount of damage on the domino effect. The negative path between the amount of damage and the acceptability indicates that the higher the amount of damage to the company, the less acceptable the behavior, and, consequently, the probability that the client will replicate this behavior is lower.

In addition to the mediation effect, the level of ethics modifies how the amount of damage influences the acceptability, supporting H3. Specifically, for subjects with higher levels of ethics, the effect of the amount of damage on the acceptability of the DCB is negative, indicating that for these subjects, ethics reduce the acceptability of the DCB with the amount of damage increase more than for subjects with lower levels of ethics.

STUDY 1B

Study 1B was designed to be similar to Study 1A but used a different dependent variable measure. We measured it with a metrical scale from $500 to $3,000. Using this measure, we can verify how much money customers would claim from their insurance and if they are influenced by other customers. We show that this is influenced by the customer ethics level and the acceptability of the DCB. The aim of this study is to test hypotheses 1 and 5.

Study design and method

In this study, one factor, on two different levels, was manipulated (damage: low advantage vs. high advantage) in a between-subject design measuring the amount of the claim (domino effect). Ninety-three participants were recruited from an online panel (Amazon Mechanical Turk, M_{age} = 34.38 years old; SD = 9.90; 55.9% male) in exchange for monetary compensation.

Procedures and stimulus. The procedure was identical to Study 1A with one important modification—damage manipulation participants answered only one question related to the dependent variable: "How about you? How much money would you ask for from the insurance company in a similar situation?" It was measured with a metrical scale from $500 to $3,000. The acceptability of the DCB mediation and CES (α = .942) moderation followed the same procedures as in Study 1A. At the end, participants answered a few demographic questions and were extensively debriefed.

Results

Manipulation check. Participants in the high amount of damage condition (or higher advantage) (M = 5.63) perceived that Bill took more advantage than subjects in the low amount of damage condition (or lower advantage) (M = 4.67; $F(1, 91)$ = 8.032; p ‹ .01).

Domino effect. The participants in the large amount of damage condition (or higher advantage) (M = 1,457.10) indicated that they would ask for more money from the insurance company than participants in the low amount of damage condition (or lower advantage) (M = 833.45; $F(1, 91)$ = 16.634; p ‹ .001).

CC BY

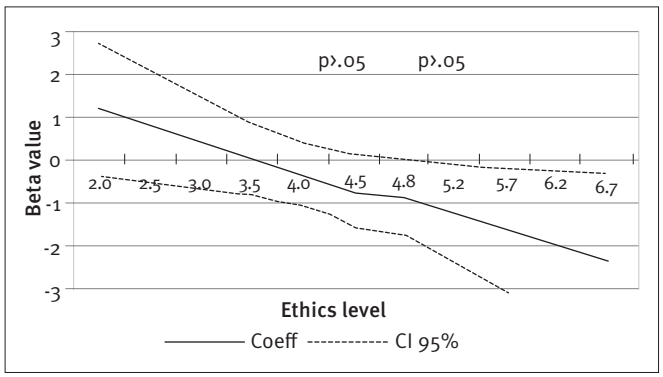
ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

Moderated-mediation. To verify how the interaction between the amount of damage and ethics of the participant influence the acceptability of the DCB and how this acceptability influences the domino effect, we used a moderated-mediation model, as in Study 1A. However, the dependent variable in this study was the amount of money requested by the participant in the insurance claim.

The path between the interaction and acceptability was significant (a = -.71; t = -2.09; p < .05), indicating that the amount of damage and ethics interaction influences the acceptability of the DCB. The acceptability positively influences the domino effect (b = 207.66; t = 5.74; p < .001), suggesting that an increase in the acceptability leads to higher amounts of money asked for from the insurance company by the participant.

The indirect effect was only significant in the higher ethics levels (one SD above the mean); through 5,000 resamples from bootstrapping, this effect ($a \times b$ = -237.68) is shown to be negative and significant because the confidence interval (95%) did not present a null effect (-508.21 to -43.43). The significance of the direct influence of the amount of damage on the domino effect (c' = 699.62; t = 5.29; p < .001) indicates that there is a partial mediation, or the acceptability partially mediates the influence of the amount of damage on the domino effect, considering the level of ethics as a moderator, as shown in Graphic 2.

Graphic 2. **Effect of damage significance on acceptability with ethics as moderator – Study 1B**



To specify how the level of ethics of the participant modifies their acceptability of DCB, we used the Johnson-Neyman test. Regarding the significance of the effect of damage on the acceptability, as a moderator, levels of ethics above 4.77 (7-point scale) indicate a negative and significant effect of the amount of damage on the acceptability. However, there is no relationship between the amount of damage and acceptability for levels of ethics below 4.77.

Discussion

The findings of this second study support the assumption of H5. Specifically, subjects exposed to a DCB in which the previous customer asked for a high amount from the company adjusted their claim and also asked for a higher amount than subjects who were exposed to a previous customer asking for a low amount. This finding supports the logic that customers anchor and adjust their future behavior according to previous behavior from another customer.

Moreover, we support the findings from Study 1A for the underlying mechanism, showing that acceptability is the mechanism that explains how previous DCB influences the domino effect. We also support the role of customer ethics, which moderates the relationship between previous behavior and the likelihood of the domino effect.

STUDY 2A

The goal of Study 2A was to replicate the domino effect and evaluate how risk perception (low vs. high) influences the relationship between the amount of damage and the likelihood of replicating a dysfunctional behavior. We predicted that when the subject perceives a high (vs. low) risk, it means there is a higher probability that the behavior can be discovered and punished by the company, thereby reducing the intention to replicate a dysfunctional behavior in the high amount of damage condition. The aim of this study is to test hypothesis 4.

Study design and method

Study 2A was a 2 (damage: low advantage vs. high advantage) × 2 (risk perception: low vs. high) between-subjects design. One hundred and twenty-one participants were recruited online (Amazon Mechanical Turk, M_{age} = 38.78 years old; SD = 12.20; 58.7% female) in exchange for monetary compensation.

Procedures and stimuli. Study 2A had the same procedures as Study 1A, with some important modifications, such as the risk perception stimuli between scenarios. In the low damage scenario (vs. high), the low risk perception was manipulated through the following information that participants received: "There is a clause in their contracts that do not allow the insurance company to use airports' x-ray videos for examining the application of the customer. The insurance company accepted Bill's claim, and he received $750 (vs. the maximum $3,000)." In the high damage scenario (vs. low), the high risk perception was manipulated

CC BY

ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

as follows: "There is a clause in their contracts that allows the insurance company to use airports' x-ray videos for examining the application of the customer; in case cheating is detected, the insurance company is not obligated to indemnify the customer. The insurance company accepted Bill's claim, and he received $3,000 (vs. $750)." The manipulation check question regarding the amount of advantage was measured on a 7-point scale: "How much do you think he took advantage of the value of the lost items?" (1 = a little to 7 = a lot). Risk perception was measured through two items from Blais and Weber (2006) on a 7-point scale. At the end, participants answered a few demographic questions and were extensively debriefed.

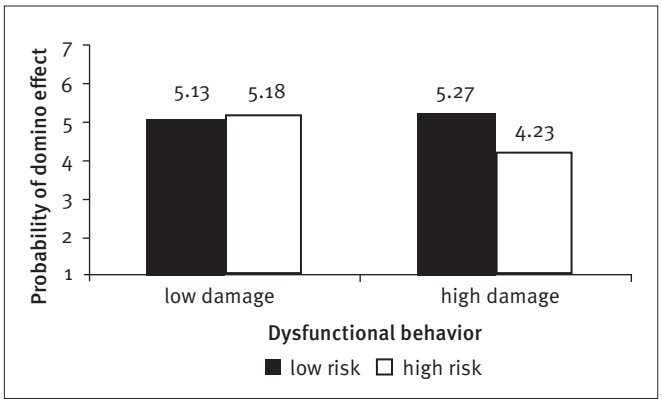
Results

Manipulation check. We verified that participants in the high amount of damage condition (or higher advantage) (M = 5.89) perceived that Bill took more advantage than subjects in the low amount of damage condition (or lower advantage) (M = 5.38; $F(1, 119) = 4.122$; $p < .05$). Likewise, subjects exposed to the lower risk condition (M = 3.76) perceived that the risk of Sam following Bill's behavior is lower than subjects exposed to the higher risk condition (M = 4.21; $F(1, 119) = 4.282$; $p < .05$).

Perceived risk moderation. We found a significant effect of the interaction between the amount of damage/advantage and perceived risk on the probability of Sam repeating Bill's behavior ($F(1, 117) = 4.329$; $p < .05$). Specifically, there is no difference in the domino effect along the low damage condition (M_{lower_risk} = 5.13; M_{higher_risk} = 5.18; $F(1, 117) = .022$; $p = .883$), but there is a difference in the domino effect along the high damage condition ($F(1, 117) = 7.638$; $p < .01$). Therefore, subjects exposed to the higher risk indicated a lower probability (M = 4.23) of Sam replicating Bill's behavior than subjects exposed to the lower risk condition (M = 5.27).

To complete the model, we ran a pairwise comparison of the amount of damage effect along the risk perception conditions. The participants exposed to the lower risk condition did not present a significant difference in the perceptions related to Sam following Bill's behavior (e.g., domino effect) (M_{high_damage} = 5.27; M_{low_damage} = 5.13; $F(1, 117) = .143$; $p = .706$). However, participants exposed to the higher risk condition had different judgments about Sam's behavior ($F(1, 117) = 6.718$; $p < .01$). In the high damage condition, respondents indicated a lower probability of Sam replicating Bill's behavior (M = 4.23) than in the low damage condition (M = 5.18). These findings are presented in Graphic 3.

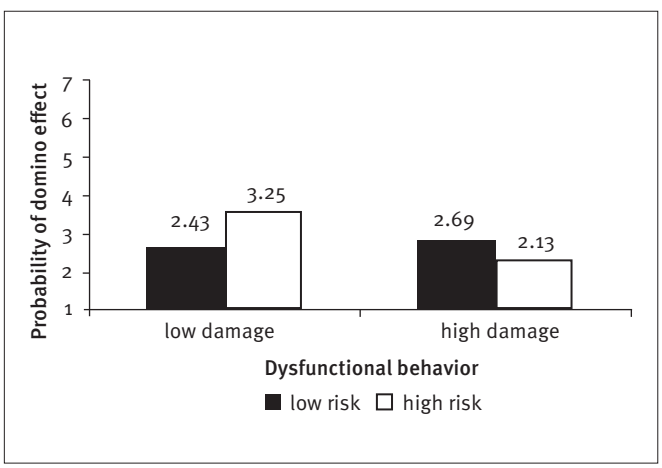
Graphic 3. **Sam's domino effect**



We also verified how the amount of damage and the risk perception influence the behavioral intentions of the respondent. There is a significant effect of the interaction on the probability of the respondent to replicate Bill's behavior ($F(1, 117) = 4.640$; $p < .05$). Specifically, there is a marginal difference in the likelihood of the respondent to repeat Bill's behavior in the low amount of damage condition ($F(1, 117) = 3.365$; $p = .06$) because subjects exposed to higher risk indicate a higher probability (M = 3.25) of repeating Bill's behavior than subjects exposed to a lower risk condition (M = 2.43). There is no difference in the probability along the high amount of damage condition ($F(1, 117) = 1.487$; $p = .22$).

Nevertheless, there is a significant difference in the probability of repeating Bill's behavior in the higher risk condition ($F(1, 117) = 6.292$; $p < .05$). In this condition, subjects exposed to a low amount of damage presented a higher probability (M = 3.25) of engaging in the domino effect than subjects in the high amount of damage (M = 2.13). It is important to note that there is no difference along the lower risk condition ($F(1, 117) = .316$; $p = .57$). Graphic 4 presents these findings.

Graphic 4. **Participants' domino effect: Probability**



 CC BY © RAE | São Paulo | **60(1)** | **January-February 2020** | 7-19 ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

Discussion

There is evidence that the level of perceived risk influences the relationship between the amount of damage and the domino effect. This finding supports H4. When the subject perceives a high risk, it means there is a higher probability that the behavior can be discovered and punished by the company. In this case, the customer reduces the intention to replicate a DCB in the high amount of damage condition. However, it is interesting to note that the perceived risk did not influence the domino effect in the low amount of damage condition. This should be explored in future studies, as it is possible that in the low amount of damage condition, the domino effect can be easily justifiable when compared to the high amount of damage, in which the advantage taken by the client is larger.

Study 2B

Study 2B was designed to replicate Study 2A, using a dependent variable measure from Study 1B. We used a metrical scale from $500 to $3,000. We replicated the same mechanism evaluated in Studies 1A and 1B and showed the relationship between the customer ethics level and the acceptability of the DCB.

Study design and method

Study 2B was a 2 (damage: low advantage vs. high advantage) × 2 (risk perception: low vs. high) between-subjects design. The 181 participants were recruited online (Amazon Mechanical Turk, M_{age} = 33.72 years old; *SD* = 10.06; 61.9% male) in exchange for monetary compensation.

Procedures and stimulus. The procedure was identical to Study 2A. However, . participants answered the same dependent variable question from Study 1B, using a metrical scale from $500 to $3000. The manipulation check and acceptability of the DCB mediation were the same as Studies 1B and 2A. At the end, participants answered a few demographic questions and were extensively debriefed.

Results

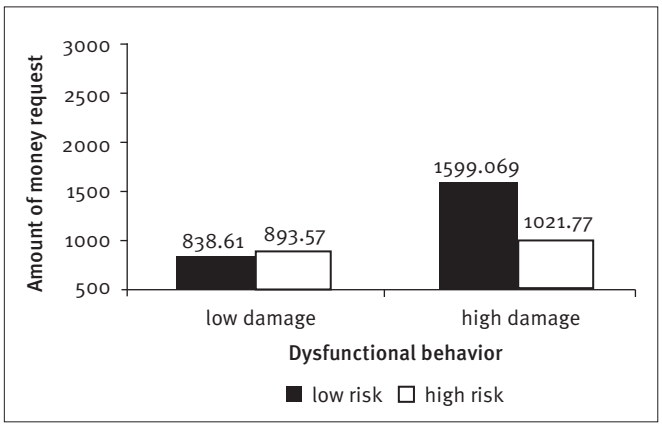
Manipulation check. The subjects in the high amount of damage condition (or higher advantage) (*M* = 5.78) perceived that Bill took more advantage than subjects in the low amount of damage condition (or lower advantage) (*M* = 5.12; *F*(1, 179) = 11.003; *p* ‹ .05). We also verified that subjects exposed to the lower risk condition (*M* = 3.76) perceived that the risk of Sam following Bill's behavior was lower than subjects exposed to the higher risk condition (*M* = 4.21; *F*(1, 119) = 4.282; *p* ‹ .05).

Perceived risk moderation. We analyzed how the amount of damage and the perception of risk influence the amount of money requested by the respondents. There is a significant effect of the interaction between the amount of damage and the perception of risk on the probability of Sam repeating Bill's behavior (*F*(1, 177) = 8.838; *p* ‹ .01).

Along pairwise comparisons, subjects in the low amount of damage condition do not present differences in the risk perceptions conditions (*F*(1, 177) = .145; *p* = .70). However, in the high amount of damage condition, subjects exposed to the lower risk perception (*M* = 1,559.06) indicate a higher value than subjects exposed to the higher risk perception (*M* = 1,021.77; *F*(1, 177) = 15,324; *p* ‹ .001).

In the risk perception conditions, there is a significant difference in the amount of money that the respondent would ask for in the lower risk perception (*F*(1, 177) = 25.407; *p* ‹ .001). In this condition, subjects exposed to a low amount of damage would ask for a lower amount (*M* = 838.61) than subjects exposed to the high amount of damage condition (M = 1,559.06). There is no difference regarding the higher risk condition (*F*(1, 177) = .853; *p* = .35). Graphic 5 presents these findings.

Graphic 5. **Participants' domino effect: Amount of money request**



Moderated-mediation. Considering that the acceptability of the DCB was tested as the underlying mechanism in the first study, in Study 2B, we also included this variable in the relationship between the interaction among damage and risk and the amount of money that the participant requested.

The path between the interaction and the behavior's acceptability is significant (*a* = -1.21; *t* = -2.05; *p* ‹ .05), indicating that the amount of damage and risk perception interaction

CC BY

ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

influence the acceptability of the DCB. The acceptability positively influences the domino effect (b = 171.05; t = 7.61; p < .001).

The indirect effect is only significant in the higher levels of risk perception; through 5,000 resamples from bootstrapping, this effect (a x b = -231.39) is shown to be negative and significant because the confidence interval (95%) did not present a null effect (-410.01 to -88.22). Additionally, the significance of the direct effect of the amount of damage on the domino effect (c' = 549,58; t = 6.00; p < .001) indicates a partial mediation.

Discussion

This study provides additional support to H2, H3, H4, and H5. Specifically, the results of Study 2B indicate that the acceptability of the DCB mediates the effect of the amount of damage on the domino effect (measured by the value claimed to the company); the level of ethics and the perception of risk act as boundary conditions of the occurrence of the domino effect.

STUDY 3

The goal of Study 3 was to test the domino effect and evaluate how risk perception (low vs. high) and social distance (in-group vs. out-group) influence the relationship between the amount of damage and the likelihood of replicating a dysfunctional behavior. The aim of this study was to test hypothesis 6.

Study design and method

Study 3 had a 2 (damage: low advantage vs. high advantage) × 2 (risk perception: low vs. high) x 2 (social distance: in-group vs. out-group) between-subjects design. Participants in the experiment were 167 undergraduate students from a Brazilian university (M_{age} = 29.28 years old; SD_{age} = 8.77; 51.5% female). They did not receive any compensation.

Procedures and stimulus. The procedure was identical to that of Study 2B with one important modification—the social distance stimuli between scenarios. In the in-group condition (vs. out-group), participants received the following extra information: "While completing the claim for the insurance company, he remembered that the same case happened to his brother a few days ago. His brother told him that he had applied for compensation." The out-group scenario was manipulated as follows: "While filling out the claim form, he remembered that this same situation had occurred with a passenger sitting in the back row during his one-way flight. He listened to the passenger telling the person on the side about his claim for compensation." Later, the scenario manipulation participants answered the following dependent variable question: "How much money would you ask for from the insurance company in a similar situation?" This question was measured with a metrical scale of R$375 to R$4,520. This value was adapted to the Brazilian participants; we used the proportional value based on the maximum value (R$4,520) proposed by the Montreal convention (Morsello, 2004). The manipulation check question about social distance was measured on a 7-point scale: "How close am I to the person who made the claim before him?" (1 = too far to 7 = too near). At the end, participants answered a few demographic questions and were extensively debriefed.

Results

Manipulation check. We verified that subjects in the high amount of damage condition (or higher advantage) (M = 5.26; SD = 1.90) perceived that Bill took more advantage than subjects in the low amount of damage condition (or lower advantage) (M = 4.31; SD = 1.85 F(1, 165) = 10.579; p < .001). Subjects exposed to the lower risk condition (M = 3.07; SD = 1.81) also perceived that the risk of Sam following the domino behavior was lower than subjects exposed to the higher risk condition (M = 4.05; SD = 1.77; F(1, 165) = 12.472; p < .001). Likewise, subjects exposed to the in-group condition (M = 5.68; SD = 1.69) perceived that the social distance from the other passenger was lower than subjects exposed to the out-group condition (M = 2.29; SD = 1.66; F(1, 164) = 169.63; p < .000).

Domino effect. Subjects exposed to the high amount of damage condition (or higher advantage) (M = 2,105.58) indicated that they would ask for more money from the insurance company than subjects exposed to the low amount of damage condition (or lower advantage) (M = 1,183.27; F(1, 165) = 22.550; p < .001).

Moderated-mediation. To verify how the interaction between the amount of damage and social distance influence the acceptability of the DCB and how this acceptability influences the domino effect, we used a moderated-mediation model, as in Study 1A. The dependent variable in this study was the amount of money asked for in the insurance claim by the participant (similar results were found with the projective measure as the dependent variable).

The path between the interaction and acceptability is significant (a = -.41; t = -3.11; p < .01), indicating that the amount of damage and social distance interaction influences the acceptability of the DCB. However, as social distance conditions

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

the effect from the amount of damage, the effect is significant when the participant was exposed to the in-group condition (a = -.61; t = -3.25; p < .01) and non-significant when the participant was exposed to the out-group condition (a = .21; t = 1.14; p = .25). Following the model, the acceptability positively influences the domino effect (b = 372.33; t = 7.87; p < .001), indicating that an increase in the acceptability leads to higher amounts of money asked for from the insurance company by the participant.

The indirect effect is only significant in the in-group condition; through 5,000 resamples from bootstrapping, this effect (a x b = -228.91) is shown to be negative and significant because the confidence interval (95%) did not present a null effect (-373.72 to -88.47). The significance of the direct effect of the amount of damage on the domino effect (c' = 532.56; t = 6.38; p < .001) indicates that there is a partial mediation, or the acceptability partially mediates the effect of the amount of damage on the domino effect, considering the social distance as a moderator of this relationship.

Three-way moderation. We also tested a three-way moderation using the amount of damage, the social distance, and the risk perception. We verify that the social distance conditions the effect from the interaction between the amount of damage and risk perception on the domino effect (F(1, 159) = 7.810; p < .01). Specifically, the effect presented in Study 2A happens when the participant was exposed to the in-group condition (F(1, 79) = 4.569; p < .05). Subjects exposed to the low risk perception presented a higher claim amount when the amount of damage was higher (M = 2,509.08) than when the amount of damage was lower (M = 1,165.19; F(1, 79) = 12.772; p < .01). In the higher risk perception, there is no difference between the amount of damage conditions (F(1, 79) = .146; p = .703). In the same sense, when exposed to the out-group condition, the effect from the interaction on the domino effect was not significant (F(1, 80) = 3.252; p = .075).

Discussion

Study 3 provides additional support for H1, H2, H4, and H5. Specifically, the results of Study 3 indicate that social distance is an important variable in the DCB context. The social distance is capable of reducing the domino effect, supporting H6, when the subject feels that it is low (in-group). This result is aligned with the notion of community and the social control and balance established between members to keep social cohesion. Moreover, when the subject is exposed to the in-group, the risk perception conditions the effect of the amount of damage on the DCB.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

We respond to calls to investigate the processes underlying DCB (Fisk et al., 2010; Harris & Reynolds, 2003). As previously discussed, the domino effect has not been adequately investigated empirically (e.g., Gino, Gu, & Zhong, 2009; Schaefers, Wittkowski, & Ferraro, 2016), and the main role of the amount of damage remained uncovered by the previous literature. We address this gap using four experimental studies that investigated both the amount of money the participant requested and the likelihood of replicating a dysfunctional behavior, going beyond common approaches (Fisk et al., 2010). We also investigated three distinct underlying mechanisms for these behaviors.

Our studies, supporting H1, identify that the likelihood of replicating a DCB is higher in a condition in which the DCB results in a lower amount of damage to the company. Specifically, the intention to replicate the behavior of another client is stronger when the subject realizes that this behavior has minimal negative consequences to the company than when he/she perceives that the consequences to the company are greater. This evidence seems aligned with the capacity of justification of the customer (Wirtz & McColl-Kennedy, 2010; Dootson, Neale, & Fullerton, 2014). It is easier to justify a DCB when it causes less damage to the company than when it causes significant damage. Future studies could explore this underlying mechanism; however, it makes sense that great damage is considered more wrong than a small amount of damage.

As predicted by H2, we also found that the acceptability of the previous DCB mediates the effect of the amount of damage on the domino effect. The negative path between the amount of damage and the acceptability indicates that the larger the amount of damage to the company, the less acceptable the behavior, and, consequently, it is less likely that the client will replicate it. Although the acceptability was not a justification, it seems that a more acceptable behavior is easier to justify. Therefore, the evidence that the acceptability mediates the influence of the amount of damage on the domino effect supports the idea that the lower the damage to the company, the more justifiable the behavior, and, consequently, the more likely it is to be replicated.

Additionally, the level of ethics modifies how the amount of damage influences the acceptability, supporting H3. Specifically, for subjects with higher levels of ethics, the effect of the amount of damage on the acceptability of the DCB is negative, indicating that for these subjects, ethics reduces the acceptability of the DCB with the amount of damage increase more than for subjects with lower levels of ethics.

CC BY

ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

Finally, we showed that the level of perceived risk and the social link influences the relationship between the amount of damage and the domino effect. This finding supports H4 and H6. When the subject perceives a high risk or when there is more probability of discovering and punishing the behavior, the customer reduces his intention to replicate a DCB in the high amount of damage condition. However, it is interesting that the perceived risk does not influence the domino effect in the low amount of damage condition. This result should be explored in future studies, as it is possible that in the low amount of damage condition, the domino effect can be easily justifiable, compared to a high amount of damage, in which the advantage taken by the client is clearer. In the same way, when the person is a group insider, the social link reduces the likelihood of replicating the DCB, supporting the hypotheses that the social proximity acts as an informal control mechanism to prevent an imbalance in the group.

REFERENCES

Albers-Miller, N. D. (1999). Consumer misbehavior: Why people buy illicit goods. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, *16*, 273-287. doi: doi/10.1108/07363769910271504

Akers, R. L., & Sellers, C. S. (2004). *Criminological theory: Introduction and evolution*, 2nd ed. Chicago: Routledge.

Babcock, L., & Loewenstein, G. (1997). Explaining bargaining impasse: The role of self-serving biases. *Journal of Economic perspectives*, *11*(1), 109-126. doi: 10.1257/jep.11.1.109

Baker, M. A., Magnini, V. P., & Perdue, R. R. (2012). Opportunistic customer complaining: Causes, consequences, and managerial alternatives. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *31*, 295-303. doi: 10.1016/j.ijhm.2011.06.004

Bandura, A. (1963). The role of imitation in personality development. *Journal of Nursery Education*, *18*(3), 1-9.

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, *84*, 191-215. doi: 10.1016/0146-6402(78)90002-4

Blais, A. R., & Weber, E. U. (2006). A domain-specific risk-taking (DOSPERT) scale for adult populations. *Judgement and Decision Making*, *1*, 33-47.

Daunt, K. L., & Greer, D. A. (2015). Unpacking the perceived opportunity to misbehave: The influence of spatio-temporal and social dimensions on consumer misbehavior. *European Journal of Marketing*, *49*, 1505-1526. doi: 10.1108/EJM-01-2014-0061

Daunt, K. L., & Harris, L. C. (2011). Customers acting badly: Evidence from the hospitality industry. *Journal of Business Research*, *64*, 1034-1042. doi: 10.1016/j.jbusres.2010.10.010

Dootson, P., Neale, L., & Fullerton, S. (2014). When size matters: Exploring perceptions and justifications of deviant consumer behavior. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *42*, 298-301.

Ferrell, O. C., & Gresham, L. G. (1985). Framework for contingency ethical decision understanding making in marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, *49*, 87-96. doi: 10.1177/002224298504900308

Fisk, R., Grove, S., Harris, L. C., Keeffe, D. A., Daunt, K. L., Russell-Bennett, R., & Wirtz, J. (2010). Customers behaving badly: A state of the art review, research agenda and implications for practitioners. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *24*, 417-429. doi: 10.1108/08876041011072537

Fullerton, R. A., & Punj, G. (1993). Choosing to misbehave: A structural model of aberrant consumer behavior. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *20*, 570-574.

Fullerton, S., Kerch, K. B., & Dodge, H. R. (1996). Consumer ethics: An assessment of individual behavior in the market place. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *15*, 805-814. doi: 10.1007/BF00381744

Gino, F., Ayal, S., & Ariely, D. (2009). Contagion and differentiation in unethical behavior: The effect of one bad apple on the barrel. *Psychological Science*, *20*(3), 393-398. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9280.2009.02306.x

Gino, F., Gu, J., & Zhong, C. (2009). Contagion or restitution? When bad apples can motivate ethical behavior. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *45*, 1299-1302.

Harris, L., & Reynolds, K. L. (2003). The consequences of dysfunctional customer behavior. *Journal of Service Research*, *6*, 144-161. doi: 10.1177/1094670503257044

Hayes, A. F. (2013). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach*. New York and London: Guilford Press.

Kowalski, R. M. (1996). Complaints and complaining: Functions, antecedents, and consequences. *Psychological Bulletin*, *119*, 179-196. doi: 10.1037/0033-2909.119.2.179

Libai, B., Bolton, R., Bügel, M. S., Ruyter, K. Götz, O., Risselada, H., & Stephen, A. T. (2010). Customer-to-customer interactions: Broadening the scope of word of mouth research. *Journal of Service Research*, *13*, 267-282. doi: 10.1177/1094670510375600

Liao, S., Chou, C. Y., & Lin, T. H. (2015). Adverse behavioral and relational consequences of service innovation failure. *Journal of Business Research*, *68*(4), 834-839. doi: 10.1016/j.jbusres.2014.11.037

Mazar, N., Amir, O., & Ariely, D. (2008a). The dishonesty of honest people: The theory of self-concept maintenance. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *45*(6), 633-644. doi: 10.1509/jmkr.45.6.633

Mazar, N., Amir, O., & Ariely, D. (2008b). More ways to cheat—expanding the scope of dishonesty. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *45*(6), 651-653. doi: 2010-01163-004

Miyazaki, A. D. (2009). Perceived ethicality of insurance claim fraud: Do higher deductibles lead to lower ethical standards? *Journal of Business Ethics*, *87*, 589-598. doi: 10.1007/s10551-008-9960-4

Morsello, M. F. (2004). Responsabilidade civil no transporte aéreo. São Paulo: Universidade de São Paulo.

Muncy, J., & Vitell, S. J. (2005). The Muncy–Vitell consumer ethics scale: A modification and application. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *62*, 267-275. doi: 10.1007/s10551-005-7058-9

Neale, L., & Fullerton, S. (2010). The international search for ethics norms: Which consumer behaviors do consumers consider (un) acceptable? *Journal of Services Marketing*, *24*(6), 476-486. doi: 10.1108/08876041011072591

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

Sampson, R. J., Morenoff, J. D., & Gannon-Rowley, T. (2002). Assessing "neighborhood effects": Social processes and new directions in research. *Annual Review of Sociology*, *28*(1), 443-478. doi: 10.1146/annurev.soc.28.110601.141114

Schaefers, T., Wittkowski, K., Benoit, S., & Ferraro, R. (2016). Contagious effects of customer misbehavior in access-based services. *Journal of Service Research*, *19*, 3-21. doi: 10.1177/1094670515595047

Tajfel, H. (1982). Social psychology of intergroup relations. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *33*(1), 1-39.

Wilkes, R. E. (1978). Fraudulent behavior by consumers. *Journal of Marketing*, *42*, 67-75. doi: 10.1177/002224297804200410

Wirtz, J., & Kum, D. (2004). Consumer cheating on service guarantees. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *32*(2), 159-175. doi: 10.1177/0092070303261416

Wirtz, J., & McColl-Kennedy, J. R. (2010). Opportunistic customer claiming during service recovery. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *38*(5), 654-675. doi: 10.1007/s11747-009-0177-6

Wu, C. H. J. (2007). The impact of customer-to-customer interaction and customer homogeneity on customer satisfaction in tourism service—the service encounter prospective. *Tourism Management*, *28*(6), 1518-1528. doi: 10.1016/j.tourman.2007.02.002

Wu, C. H. J. (2008). The influence of customer-to-customer interactions and role typology on customer reaction. *The Service Industries Journal*, *28*(10), 1501-1513. doi: 10.1080/02642060802250310

AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

Denise Telli and Lélis Bales¬trin Espartel worked on the conceptualization and theoretical-methodological approach. The theoretical review was conducted by Denise Telli and Clecio Falcao Araujo. Data collection was coordinated by Denise Telli and Clecio Falcao Araujo. Data analysis included Denise Telli, Clecio Falcao Araujo and Kenny Basso. All authors worked together in the writing and final revision of the manuscript.

CC BY

ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

FORUM

Submitted 01.08.2019. Approved 08.02.2019
Evaluated through a double-blind review process. Guest Scientific Editors: Delane Botelho e Leandro Angotti Guissoni
Original version

DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/S0034-759020200104

CONSUMERS' KNOWLEDGE, MAXIMIZING TENDENCIES, AND POST-DECISION INFORMATION SEARCH

Conhecimento do consumidor, tendência à maximização e a busca de informação após decisões

Conocimiento de los consumidores, tendencia a la maximización y la búsqueda de información posterior a decisiones

MAURA FERREIRA[1]
maura.ferreira@edu.pucrs.br
ORCID: 0000-0003-0280-2448

CRISTIANE PIZZUTTI DOS SANTOS[2]
cpsantos@ea.ufrgs.br
ORCID: 0000-0003-4188-5418

[1] Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Rio Grande do Sul, Escola de Negócios, Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil
2Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, Escola de Administração, Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil

ABSTRACT

Nowadays consumers have more previous knowledge about products and services before making decisions. This study sheds light on the effects of consumers' previous knowledge on post-decision information search. Previous studies argue that cognitive dissonance and feelings of regret or dissatisfaction elicit this search. However, we show through one experimental and two correlational studies that this view is incomplete. Our findings indicate that knowledgeable consumers search for more information at the post-decision stage, even when the decision cannot be modified. This main effect is stronger (weaker) for maximizers (satisficers). Also, cognitive dissonance affects the post-decision information search behavior. Therefore, we suggest a new variable, consumers' previous knowledge, for consideration in the post-decision information search model.

KEYWORDS | Consumers' previous knowledge, information search behavior, post-decision stage, maximizing tendencies, cognitive dissonance.

RESUMO

Consumidores têm mais conhecimento prévio ao tomarem decisões. Este estudo mostra os efeitos desse conhecimento na quantidade de informação buscada após a tomada de decisão. Segundo a literatura, variáveis como dissonância cognitiva e sentimentos de arrependimento e insatisfação predizem essa busca. Porém, por meio de um experimento e dois estudos correlacionais, mostramos que essa visão está incompleta. Nossos achados indicam que consumidores com maior conhecimento prévio sobre determinado produto buscam mais informação após tomarem uma decisão, mesmo quando esta não pode ser modificada. Ainda, esse efeito é intensificado (minimizado) para pessoas com tendência à maximização (satisficers). Mostramos que não somente variáveis como dissonância cognitiva afetam o comportamento de busca de informação após decisões, mas que o nível de conhecimento prévio que consumidores têm sobre o produto também pode afetar tal busca. Logo, sugerimos uma nova variável para o modelo de busca de informação após decisões.

PALAVRAS-CHAVE | *Conhecimento prévio do consumidor, busca de informação, pós-decisão, tendência à maximização, dissonância cognitiva.*

RESUMEN

Los consumidores tienen más conocimiento previo antes de tomar decisiones. Este estudio presenta los efectos de ese conocimiento sobre la cantidad de información buscada posterior a la decisión. Según la literatura anterior, variables como disonancia cognitiva y sentimientos de arrepentimiento o insatisfacción provocan esta búsqueda. No obstante, a través de un experimento y dos estudios correlacionales, demostramos que esta visión es incompleta. Nuestros hallazgos sugieren que los consumidores con mayor conocimiento previo buscan más información después de tomar una decisión, incluso cuando está ya no se puede modificar. Además, este efecto es más fuerte (más débil) para los consumidores con tendencias maximizadoras altas (bajas). También mostramos que no solo variables como disonancia cognitiva afectan el comportamiento de búsqueda de información posterior a la decisión, sino que el nivel de conocimiento previo que los consumidores tienen sobre el producto también puede afectar dicha búsqueda. Finalmente, sugerimos una nueva variable para el modelo de búsqueda de información después de la decisión.

PALABRAS CLAVE | *Conocimiento previo, Búsqueda de información, Posdecisión, Maximización, Disonancia cognitiva.*

INTRODUCTION

Collectively, 264 million US smartphone users view their devices 12 billion times per day (Deloitte, 2017), Brazilians alone spend 9 hours per day on the Internet (Kemp, 2018). These statistics indicate that the tools to access and acquire information are part of consumers' daily lives (Dholakia, Zwick, & Denegri-Knott, 2013). For instance, consumers often engage in showrooming because they can easily look up information (Mehra, Kumar, & Raju, 2017). Consequently, they become more knowledgeable about the available options and product features before making decisions (Dholakia et al., 2013).

Since information search still occurs after purchasing, it affects consumers' perceptions about their purchases (Teodorescu, Sang, & Todd, 2018). However, researchers and marketers have been neglecting this behavior. Researchers focus mainly on behaviors such as word of mouth (e.g., Chu & Kim, 2011; Hennig-Thurau, Gwinner, Walsh, & Gremler, 2004), consumer satisfaction, and feelings of regret (e.g., Lee & Kim, 2008; Wirtz, Matilla & Tan, 2007; Zeelenberg & Pietres, 2007) when they investigate consumers' behavior at the post-decision stage. The few studies on post-decision information search mention that this search is primarily driven by cognitive dissonance and feelings of regret/dissatisfaction (Oliver, 2014; Shani & Zeelenberg, 2007). However, we claim that this view is incomplete as researchers do not consider consumers' previous knowledge in their post-decision information search models. The effect of consumers' previous knowledge on information search has already been explored for the initial stages of the customer journey (Hadar, Sood, & Fox, 2013; Carlson, Vincent, Hardesty, & Bearden, 2009; Brucks, 1985). However, to the best of our knowledge, prior studies have not extended this effect to a post-decision context.

This study addresses this gap in the literature by exploring the effect of consumers' previous knowledge at the pre-purchase stage on post-decision information search. Also, we present an interaction between consumers' previous knowledge and maximizing tendencies. We achieve this objective while controlling for cognitive dissonance and (dis)satisfaction as predictors of post-decision information search. Across three studies (one experiment and two correlational studies), we show that knowledgeable consumers search for more information the post-decision phase, even when they cannot change their decisions, because they can easily access information and their knowledge makes the search an easier task (Dholakia et al., 2013; Brucks, 1985). High levels of maximizing tendencies strengthen this effect. Additionally, cognitive dissonance has a significant effect on post-decision information search, and satisfaction does not.

Our study has several theoretical contributions. First, it sheds light on a new predictor of post-decision information search, the consumer's previous knowledge, updating the literature on this topic. This new predictor is in tune with an important phenomenon, characterized by the dramatic increase in consumers' knowledge through the widespread access of information (Dholakia et al., 2013). Second, to the best of our knowledge, we present a new interaction effect between previous knowledge and maximizing tendencies on post-decision information search, thus advancing the literature on maximizing tendencies as well. Few studies have investigated the effects of this trait on consumer behavior in the post-decision stage (Ma & Roese, 2014). Third, this research explores the role of cognitive dissonance, which, so far, has not been empirically tested, even though Donelly and Ivancevich (1970) and Oliver (2014) state it to be an important driver of post-decision information search. Fourth, based on Lemon and Verhoef (2016)'s claim, we analyze consumer behavior through the link between two different stages of their journey: the pre- and post-decision phases. Thus, we present a more complete view of consumer behavior during the decision-making process.

For marketers, we elucidate the relevant effect of consumers' knowledge that increases the post-decision information search, and where consumers look up information at the post-decision stage. Companies usually invest less effort in the post-decision phase (Brega, 2018), and hence may lose the opportunity to diminish back-out behaviors and reinforce consumer choice (Donelly & Ivancevich, 1970; Oliver, 2014). If companies understand and invest in this phase, they could increase their capabilities to create a "loyalty loop" (Brega, 2018). Helping marketers know more about consumers' information search behavior at the post-decision stage, and which variables affect this behavior, may help business companies to get the loyalty loop.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Consumers' previous knowledge

The decision-maker's previous knowledge attracts the attention of researchers in different areas (Bettman & Park, 1980; Brucks, 1985; Hadar et al. 2013). In this work, we comply with Brucks' approach (1985), which states that previous knowledge consists of information stored in individuals' memories in a specific moment. In our case, this knowledge is the knowledge consumers hold before decision-making. In consumption settings, previous knowledge would reflect an individual's degree of knowledge of

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

brand names, usage procedures, and product features, among other attributes (Carlson et al., 2009).

Previous knowledge can be categorized into types: *objective* and *subjective*. Objective knowledge is the knowledge that is truly stored in an individual's memory. This knowledge depends on the consumer's actual ability to evaluate and use a product (Alba & Hutchinson, 2000). When measuring objective knowledge, researchers might test subjects in a focal topic. Alternatively, researchers try to keep the objective knowledge constant to all participants to avoid confounds produced by such knowledge (Brucks, 1985). They can do this by using an unknow product and giving the same information about this product to the participants, for example (Brucks, 1985; Alba & Hutchinson, 2000).

Subjective knowledge refers to a process in which an individual scans her memory for cues to evaluate her level of knowledge concerning a certain domain (Park, Monthersbaugh, & Feick, 1994). This knowledge is built on the information an individual thinks she has stored in memory (Hadar et al., 2013). It is conventionally measured using items that request individuals to report the knowledge they believe they hold about a focal topic (Hadar et al., 2013).

Though many researchers have used subjective knowledge measures in their studies (Brucks, 1985; Hadar et al. 2013), there is some concern about their effectiveness as a proxy for objective knowledge. Particularly, Carlson et al. (2009) and Brucks (1985) suggest that self-confidence influences subjective knowledge measures because individuals may overestimate (or underestimate) their knowledge depending on their confidence. However, some critics argue that self-reported knowledge often approximates actual knowledge (Alba & Hutchinson, 2000). Carlson et al. (2009) demonstrated through a meta-analysis that subjective and objective knowledge are significantly and positively correlated.

An important issue for studies that analyze the effect of previous knowledge on information search is knowledge calibration, which reflects the agreement between objective and self-assessed knowledge (Alba & Hutchinson, 2000; Carlson et al., 2009). Considering this discussion, the studies presented herein investigated both objective and subjective previous knowledge.

Consumers' previous knowledge and information search

Knowledge is a key concept in information processing research (Raju et al., 1995) There exists a traditional stream of research that particularly explores the effects of consumers' previous knowledge on information search at the initial stage of the customer journey. These studies have found positive as well as negative relationships between these two variables (Hadar et al., 2013; Carlson et al., 2009; Brucks, 1985; Kiel & Layton, 1983). Positive effects occur because knowledgeable individuals perceive the processing of new information to be an easier task (Carlson et al. 2009; Punj & Staelin 1983). Consequently, they may formulate more questions related to the focal domain and search for more information to answer their own questions. Furthermore, high levels of knowledge increase the benefits of new information (Brucks, 1985).

Conversely, researchers who found negative effects justify their results by arguing that knowledgeable individuals know more about the attributes of available options. Thus, they do not need to acquire more external information (Brucks, 1985). Although Bettman and Park (1980) explained this apparent contradiction (i.e., the existence of both negative and positive effects) as an inverted U-shaped relationship, other authors have found significant linear effects in prior inquiry (e.g., Brucks, 1985; Hadar et al., 2013; Kiel & Layton, 1983). Because the literature favors the positive effect (see Carlson et al., 2009; Hadar et al., 2013), we follow the logic that knowledge increases the information search.

Studies on the relationship between consumer's previous knowledge and information search have focused on the information search that occurs prior to the final decision (Brucks 1985; Hadar et al., 2013). However, consumers still search for information after finalizing their choices (Teodorescu et al., 2018) and the knowledge they have acquire before purchasing might affect this search as well. Their knowledge might increase post-decision information search because knowledgeable consumers have better awareness of where they can search for information; they can also process new information easier than non-knowledgeable consumers (Brucks, 1985).

Studies on post-decision information search have listed two main predictors of such behavior: *cognitive dissonance* and *feelings of regret/dissatisfaction* (see Donelly & Ivancevich, 1970; Ehrlich, Guttman, Schönbach, & Mills, 1957; Oliver, 2014; Shani & Zeelenberg, 2007;). For instance, Ehrlich et al. (1957) found that consumers sought post-decision information to confirm their choices. The authors argumentatively used the cognitive dissonance theory to explain this behavior. Their perspective assumed that consumers search information after deciding to minimize their experience of dissonance. Nevertheless, these authors did not empirically explore the effect of cognitive dissonance. Likewise, Donelly and Ivancevich (1970) showed that consumers did not desire to switch their cars when they had information about their purchased cars. This information

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

reinforced consumers' decisions, minimizing cognitive dissonance. However, the authors did not empirically test the role of cognitive dissonance either. Finally, Shani and Zeelenberg (2007) showed that feelings of regret or dissatisfaction motivate individuals to either acquire or avoid more information after purchasing.

Cognitive dissonance and feelings of regret/dissatisfaction are elicited during the post-decision stage of the consumer journey. However, consumers might not be affected only by the variables emerging at this stage after making their decisions since variables that influence consumer behavior during the initial stage of the customer journey still influence the end of this journey (Lemon & Verhoef, 2016). In fact, the costumer journey stages are linked, even though researchers in consumer behavior treat them as isolated stages (Lemon & Verhoef, 2016). Thus, we propose that consumers' previous knowledge, acquired at the pre-decision stage, increases post-decision information search:

> H1: The knowledge consumers hold before making their final decision will increase post-decision information search.

Interaction between consumers' previous knowledge and maximizing tendencies

Although the limited information-processing capacities of individuals make perfect maximization impossible (Simon, 1956), studies have shown that some individuals have higher maximizing tendencies than others (e.g., Goldsmith, Roux, & Ma, 2018; Luan & Li, 2017). Maximizers are usually more engaged with their decisions (Iyengar, Wells, & Schwartz, 2006). More than satisficers, they exhaustively engage in the decision-making process, by searching information and checking as many as available options they can, because they want to choose the best option (Iyengar et al., 2006).

Therefore, we propose that maximizing tendencies influence the effect of consumers' previous knowledge on post-decision information search. Assuming a positive relationship between previous knowledge and post-decision information search (H1) and predicting a positive relationship between maximization and need for more information, we infer that maximizers are more likely to use their previous knowledge to its full extent as a base for information search. Therefore, we propose that the effect of previous knowledge is intensified, or facilitated, by the "natural" maximizer's tendency to search more information. In contrast, satisficers have pre-defined parameters to judge when an option is satisfactory, or not, before making the final decision (Iyengar et al., 2006). When satisficers find an option that fits within these parameters, they cease the search and assume that the benefit of further investing in maximizing their choice does not pay off (Iyengar et al., 2006). Therefore, the more "satisficer" a consumer is, the weaker the positive relationship between her or his previous knowledge and post-decision information search. Thus, previous knowledge may decrease post-decision information search for low levels of maximizing tendencies. In tune with this, the more previous knowledge satisficers hold before the final decision, the more assured they may be that they made a choice that fits their parameters and that gathering more information after deciding will not benefit them.

> H2: The effect of consumers' previous knowledge on the amount of post-decision information search will be stronger for maximizers than for satisficers.

In Study 1, we investigated the main effect proposed in H1 through an experimental study to understand the existence of the main effect and to increase the internal validity (Field & Hole, 2003). In Study 2A and Study 2B, the correlational studies, we investigate the effects proposed by H1 and H2 in a more naturalistic setting to increase the external validity (Field & Hole, 2003). Through these studies, we explore two moments during the post-decision stage: 1*) when consumers have made a purchase but have not experienced the product yet (e.g., when they buy online and are waiting for the purchase delivery)*, and 2) *when they have made a purchase and experienced it (e.g., when the get the product and have used it)*. In Study 2A, participants were requested to recall an online purchase they had not received yet, which is a common experience for consumers. For instance, Brazilians spent R$ 2 bn in online purchases between March 2017 and March 2018 (Redação Forbes, 2018) and Americans spent US$ 517.36 bn in 2018 (Ali, 2019). These consumers do not immediately experience their purchases after buying. Instead, they need to wait until the purchased product is delivered. During this period, they may search for more information about their purchases. In Study 2B, the participants recalled a purchase they had already experienced. In these studies, we tested the proposed interaction as well as the effect of cognitive dissonance and satisfaction.

STUDY 1: THE MAIN EFFECT

Procedures

We investigated the proposed main effect through a single factor experiment with data collected on Amazon Mechanical Turk. We manipulated the objective previous knowledge to maintain greater control under the participants' knowledge. Since subjective knowledge may be affected by individuals' self-confidence

 CC BY © RAE | São Paulo | **60(1)** | **January-February 2020** | 20-32 ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

(Hadar et al., 2013), by manipulating objective knowledge we could minimize the effect of other variables on the participants' knowledge.

The participants were randomly assigned to one of two conditions (absence vs. presence of objective previous knowledge). They were informed that, during a task, they must choose a "brain game" that would improve reasoning. As an additional reward for participation, they would win a password to access the game of their choice on a brain games website for free for one month. All available options were games to improve reasoning or memory, namely, Towers of Hanoi, Rotation Game, and Logic Puzzles.

This deception served as the motivation for the game-choosing component of the experiment. We presented participants to unusual games to avoid confounds arising from the their knowledge about and familiarity with the games before taking part in the study as we manipulated objective knowledge. The "absence of previous knowledge" group received only the names of the games and no other information about them before making their decision. On the other hand, the "presence of previous knowledge" group received an informative text about each game along with their names and a representative image. It is important to stress that by providing participants with (or with no) information about the games, contrary to asking participants to report how much they knew about them, we might have generated different levels of objective previous knowledge.

After choosing the game, we asked the participants to search for online information about the games from the list without imposing any limits on them. We measured the time each participant spent searching as a proxy of their levels of post-decision information search. To ensure the participants searched for information related to the game decision, they pasted the URLs they accessed during the activity in an appropriate space.

Furthermore, we controlled for the participants' prior experience with the games and for their involvement with the decision using two items adapted from Mittal (1989) ("*How important was it to you to make a right choice of this decision?*"—1: "Not at all" and 7: "Extremely important"; "*In making your selection of this game, how concerned were you about the outcome of your choice?*"—1: "Not at all concerned" and 7: "Very much concerned") (where, r = .722).

Sample

Eighty-three participants were recruited. They spent approximately 14 minutes (on average) to complete the task. For controlling the main effect, we asked participants to report the extent to which they rushed into the information search activity to finish the task quickly ("*I did my online research as fast as I could to get over with this task as quick as possible*"—1: "I strongly disagree" and 7: "I strongly agree"). Individuals who checked "7" were filtered out (seven cases). Moreover, to investigate participants' attention, we included an attention check item ("*How important was this choice for you? Please ignore this question and go to the item below*"). Six participants failed this attention check, and thus were removed. Finally, 13 participants were eliminated from the analysis. The final sample consisted of 70 participants (42 females; M_{age} = 37.56).

Manipulation check

Since we manipulated the objective knowledge, to control for knowledge accumulated before the experiment, participants reported their experience with the games options we presented ("*I am experienced with the games options I was presented*"—1: "I strongly disagree" and 7: "Strongly agree"). The participants' experience with the games was low (M = 3.09, SD = 1.631) and significantly below the midpoint of the scale, with $t(69)$ = 4.69 and $p < .001$. Additionally, they reported their experience with the game they chose ("*I am experienced with the game I chose*"—1: "I strongly disagree" and 7: "I strongly agree"). The participants did not have much experience with the game they chose (M = 2.96, SD = 1.876), with the mean for this measure being significantly below the midpoint of the scale as well, with $t(69)$ = 4.65 and $p < .001$.

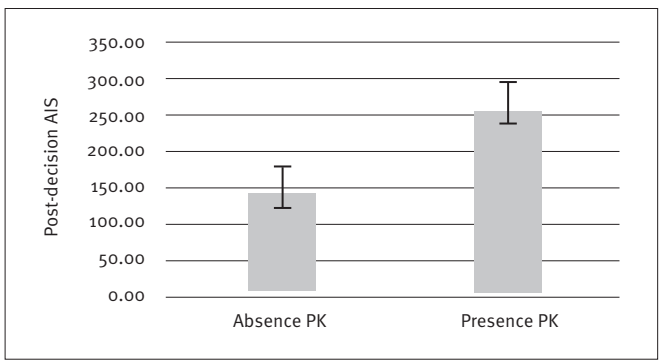
The manipulation check was measured with a single item ("*The information about the games provided to make my game choice was sufficient to make a decision*"—1: "I strongly disagree" and 7: "I strongly agree"). We expected the participants assigned to the "absence of previous knowledge" group to report lower levels of perceived information sufficiency. Indeed, they reported having a greater sensation of information insufficiency while making the game choice ($N = 34$, $M = 4.53$, $SD = 1.813$) than participants in the "presence of previous knowledge" group ($N = 36$, $M = 5.50$, $SD = 1.648$), with $t(66)$ = -2.340 and $p < .05$. We also conducted an analysis of covariance (ACOVA) to test if the effect of the experimental condition would remain when controlling for prior experience with the games of the list and prior experience with the chosen game. The effect of the experimental condition remained significant, whereas the potential covariates did not affect information sufficiency (experience with the games in the list, F (1, 66) = .506, *n.s*; experience with the chosen game, F (1, 66) = .711, *n.s*).

 CC BY © RAE | São Paulo | **60(1)** | **January-February 2020** | 20-32 ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

Results

An independent sample t-test was conducted. Individuals assigned to the "presence of previous knowledge" group (M = 253.907 seconds, SD = 107.108 seconds) spent more time searching for information than individuals assigned to the "absence of previous knowledge" group (M = 140.106 seconds, SD = 235.200), with $t(68) = 2.579$, $p < .05$, and $d = .62$ (see Graphic 1). A complementary ANCOVA showed that the effect was resilient when controlling for the participants' experience with the game. The item in which the participants reported their experience with the options available was nonsignificant, with $F(1, 66) = .326$, *n.s*, as well as the item in which they reported their experience with the chosen game, with $F(1, 66) = .013$, *n.s*. An ANCOVA also showed that involvement did not exert any effect, with $F(1, 67) = .013$, *n.s*.

Graphic 1. **Bars with means per condition**



Errors bars represent ±1 SEM

PK: Prior Knowledge

Discussion

The results suggest that, even after a final decision was made (and could not be changed), participants exposed to previous knowledge dedicated more time to search for additional information after deciding than individuals who were not exposed to this knowledge. This result supports H1. A positive relationship between previous knowledge and post-decision information search may exist because individuals with knowledge about a focal domain can formulate more questions about a topic and can process new information using less effort (Brucks, 1985).

It is important to note that the study was conducted in a controlled setting, wherein the participants' decision-making involved purchases they had not desired in reality. Therefore, investigating the effect in a more realistic setting is important to validate the findings of Study 1. To address this and test H2, we conduct Study 2A and Study 2B, where we asked participants to recall a real purchase. Additionally, cognitive dissonance arises in specific situations, such as when individuals are responsible for their decisions and when a decision is important to them. This may, in turn, explain post-decision information search (Jones, 2002).

In Study 1, although the participants were responsible for their choices, accounting for cognitive dissonance effects would be inadequate as the participants' decision would not have been as important to them as a real purchase, for example. Importantly, we did not investigate their satisfaction with the decision because the participants did not played the game. Satisfaction may affect consumers' information search behavior (Shani & Zeelenberg, 2007) as well.

Thus, Studies 2A and 2B cover the potential effect of the interaction between consumer's previous knowledge and maximizing tendencies and the role of cognitive dissonance. Study 2B also addresses satisfaction as a covariate. Additionally, in the following studies, we investigated consumers' subjective previous knowledge to determine whether the effect we found in Study 1 occurs when consumers report the knowledge they think they had before purchasing a product.

STUDY 2A: STUDY WITH A REAL PURCHASE, BEFORE EXPERIENCING THE PRODUCT

Procedure

One hundred and fifty-one participants were recruited from Amazon Mechanical Turk. They recalled a recent, planned purchase they had made online, but had not had the opportunity to experience it yet. We asked them to complete the survey with the recalled purchase in mind. As the participants had not experienced the product, their post-decision information search behavior might have been higher than if they had already experienced it (Oliver, 2014). This allowed us to investigate the information search behavior in a more "extreme condition."

We explicitly asked the participants not to think of an everyday purchase (e.g., milk, bread, etc.), because such products tend to be purchased routinely. This way, everyday purchases might attenuate information search behavior regardless of previous knowledge and maximizing tendencies. In fact, they might not even generate experiences of strong cognitive dissonance. In this study, we did not investigate

CC BY

ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

consumers' satisfaction as they had not experienced their purchases.

A single item measured consumers' subjective previous knowledge ("*I had a lot of knowledge about this purchase before making my final decision*"—1: "I strongly disagree" and 7: "I strongly agree") (Hadar et al., 2013). To measure post-decision information search, the participants used a slider scale to report how intensely they used specific approaches to find information about their purchase (where 0: "I did not use this approach" and 100: "I used this approach very intensely"). We show some approaches (e.g., browsing websites or talking to friends/relatives) to them according with previous research on information search behavior. The sum of the scores that the participants assigned to the items served as our measure for information search. The maximizing tendencies were measured using 13 items from Schwartz et al. (2002) (1 = "I strongly disagree" and 7 = "I strongly agree," with $a = .737$). The cognitive dissonance was measured through an adapted scale from Montgomery and Barnes (1993) with 11 items (1 = "I strongly disagree" and 7 = "I strongly agree," with $a = .843$).

Sample

As in Study 1, an attention-check item served as the filter and led 50 cases to be removed from the sample. We also checked whether participants thought of an everyday purchase, but no further case removal was necessary for this criterion. The final sample included 101 participants (53 females, $M_{age} = 36.86$).

Results

We conducted a hierarchical regression to determine how the introduction of different variables affected the results in the model (Field, 2013). In the full model, previous knowledge, maximizing tendencies, the interaction term, and cognitive dissonance were included as predictors. The data met the assumption of non-collinearity (previous knowledge: *Tolerance* = .939, *VIF* = 1.065; maximizing tendencies: *Tolerance* = .887 and *VIF* = 1.127; cognitive dissonance: *Tolerance* = .862 and *VIF* = 1.160) (Field, 2013). Post-decision information search was included as the dependent variable. Table 1 reports the order in which we included the variables.

Table 1. **Summary of hierarchical regression analysis for variables predicting post-decision information search (Study 2A)**

Variable	B	T	R	R^2	ΔR^2
Level 1			.095	.009	-.001
Previous Knowledge (PK)	6.826	.949			
Level 2			.295	.087	.059
Previous Knowledge (PK)	7.010	.999			
Maximizing Tendency (MT)	25.561	1.879			
MT*PK	13.712	1.809			
Level 3			.454	.206	.173
Previous Knowledge (PK)	12.707	1.883[1]			
Maximizing Tendency (MT)	11.414	.856			
MT*PK	17.301	2.413*			
Cognitive Dissonance	47.489	3.769**			

Note: [1] $p = .063$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

 CC BY © RAE | São Paulo | **60(1)** | **January-February 2020** | 20-32 ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

At level 1, previous knowledge was a nonsignificant predictor, with F (1,99) = .900, *n.s*; it accounted only for 0.9% of the variation in the degree of information search. Introducing maximizing tendencies and the interaction term explained an additional 7.8% of the variation. This change in R^2 was significant, with F (2,97) = 4.134 and $p < .05$. The last addition, cognitive dissonance, explained an additional 11.8% of variation. Again, the R^2 change was significant, with F (1,96) = 1.756 and $p < .001$.

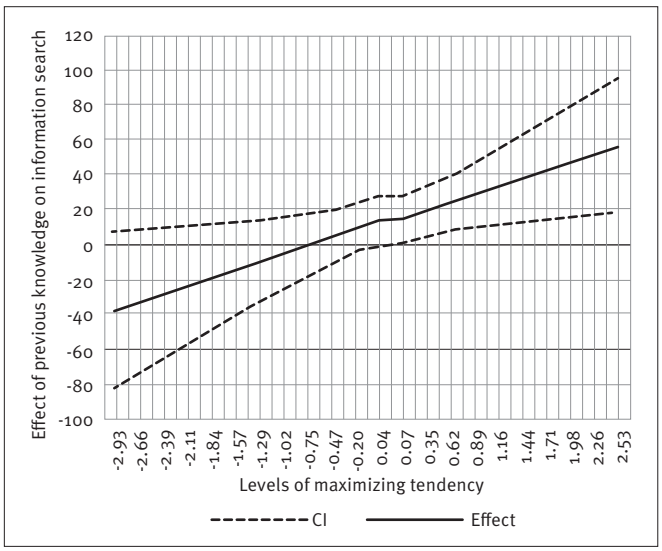
The full model (level 3) was significant, with F (4,96) = 6.228 and $p < .001$, explaining 20.6% of information search. This model revealed a marginal significance effect of previous knowledge (β = 12.707, t = 1.883, and $p = .063$). The result had the same direction as the result from Study 1 and was in tune with H1.

The models entered at levels 1 and 2 of the hierarchical regression analysis indicated nonsignificant effects of previous knowledge. This raises the possibility that previous knowledge might be sensitive to suppressors (Mackinnon, Krull, & Lockwood, 2000). As this survey used a real purchase, the effect of previous knowledge might compete with that of several other factors that influence consumers' post-decision behavior (e.g., cognitive dissonance), which might be relevant for better adjustment of the regression. Not surprisingly, the effect of previous knowledge achieved its best significance level when the model included more predictors. The proposed interaction was statistically significant (β = 17.301, t = 2.413, and $p < .05$) as well as the effect of cognitive dissonance (β = 47.489, t = 3.796, and $p < .01$).

To estimate the effects of previous knowledge according to the maximizing tendencies values, we used the Johnson–Neyman technique to conduct a floodlight analysis (Spiller et al., 2013). We used model 1-PROCESS (Hayes, 2013) for this procedure. The results suggest that previous knowledge did not affect post-decision information search at the lowest levels of maximization. For maximization levels closer to the sample mean (maximizing tendencies > .039, mean-centered), the effects of previous knowledge were significant and positive, increasing in size as a function of maximizing tendencies. That is, the positive effects of previous knowledge tend to increase with the maximization tendencies (see Graphic 2).

We replicated the above study in Study 2B. However, this time, the participants were asked to recall a planned purchase they had already experienced. This way, we could explore the influence of satisfaction on information search behavior, and further determine whether the findings from Study 2A are replicable.

Graphic 2. **Floodlight graphic: The effect of the interaction on post-decision information search (Study 2A)**



Note: Confidence Interval (CI) bands represent the "range" for 95% CI.

STUDY 2B: STUDY WITH A REAL PURCHASE, AFTER EXPERIENCING THE PRODUCT

Procedures

One hundred and sixty participants from Amazon Mechanical Turk were recruited. The participants recalled a recent, planned purchase they had made and experienced. They accordingly completed a survey about their purchase. We measured previous knowledge, maximizing tendencies, and the post-decision information search as in Study 2A. However, to measure the participants' cognitive dissonance after their final decision, we used 21 items from Sweeney et al. (2000) (1: "I strongly disagree" and 7: "I strongly agree," with a = .972) because these authors presented an alternative to Montgomery and Barnes' (1993) scale (used in Study 2A). Satisfaction with the purchase was measured through 4 items adapted from Oliver (2014) (1: "I strongly disagree" and 7: "I strongly agree," with a = .960).

Sample

We used the same filters from Study 2A and removed eight cases from the sample for not following the instructions regarding the purchase to be recalled. We also filtered out participants who failed on the attention check (47 cases) by following the same procedure used in the previous studies. Fifty-five cases were removed, and the final sample consisted of 105 participants (65 females; M_{age} = 36.96).

CC BY

ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

Results

A correlation analysis tested the relationship between satisfaction and post-decision information search ($r = .068$, *n.s*). The same procedure used in Study 2A was conducted to investigate the effect of previous knowledge, maximizing tendency, their interaction and cognitive dissonance on post-decision information search. Table 2 reports the results from the hierarchical multiple regression analysis.

Table 2. **Summary of hierarchical regression analysis for variables predicting post-decision information search (Study 2B)**

Variable	B	t		R	R^2	ΔR^2
Level 1				.156	.024	.015
Previous Knowledge (PK)	14.478	1.605				
Level 2				.376	.141	.116
Previous Knowledge (PK)	15.551	1.804				
Maximizing Tendency (MT)	27.088	1.537				
MT*PK	29.533	2.919**				
Level 3				.460	.212	.181
Previous Knowledge (PK)	16.982	2.044[1]				
Maximizing Tendency (MT)	25.608	1.509				
MT*PK	25.862	2.635**				
Cognitive Dissonance	25.231	3.002**				

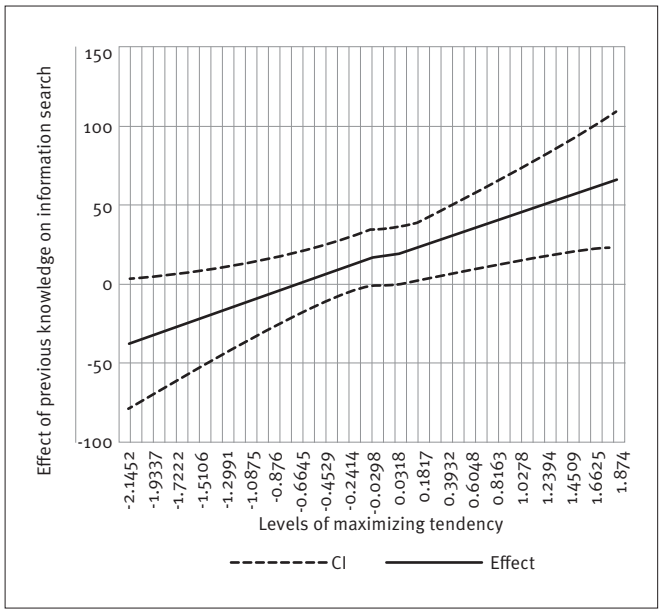
Note: [1] = .0591; ** p < .01.

Previous knowledge alone did not contribute significantly to the model, with $F(1,103) = 2.577$, *n.s* (see level 1). The maximizing tendencies and the interaction term explained an additional 11.7% of variation in the information search, where the change in R^2 was statistically significant, with $F(2,101) = 6.856$ and $p < .01$. The introduction of cognitive dissonance explained an additional 7.1% of variation. This change was also significant, with $F(1,100) = 9.014$ and $p < .01$. According with the results from the hierarchical regression, the level 3 model is statistically significant, with $F(4,100) = 6.728$ and $p < .001$, explaining 21.2% of the dependent variable. This model indicated a positive effect of previous knowledge with moderate significance ($\beta = 16.982$, $t = 2.044$, and $p = .0591$) and a statistically nonsignificant effect of maximizing tendencies ($\beta = 25.608$ and $t = 1.509$, *n.s*). The proposed interaction had a statistically significant effect ($\beta = 25.862$, $t = 2.635$, and $p < .01$), which is in tune with the findings from Study 2A.

A floodlight analysis using the Johnson -Neyman technique (Spiller et al., 2013) revealed that, for high levels of maximization (maximizing tendencies >.032, mean centered), the effects of previous knowledge were positive and increased as a function of the maximizing tendencies (see Graphic 3). This is in tune with the results from Study 2A. Conversely, the negative effects of previous knowledge on post-decision information search achieved moderate levels of significance at the lowest levels of maximization (maximizing tendencies < -1.934, mean centered).

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

Graphic 3. **Floodlight graphic: The effect of the interaction on post-decision information search (Study 2B)**



Note: Confidence Interval (CI) bands represent the "range" for 95% CI.

Finally, since the participants indicated how intensely they searched for post-decision information in different sources, we explored the levels of intensity reported by them for each search of information we presented. Consumers searched by browsing online stores (M = 41.89); talking to friends/relatives (M = 36.00); reading online reviews (M = 33.31); visiting brick-and-mortar stores (M = 32.43); comparing the purchased option to equivalent choices of other consumers (M = 29.57); attending to product information on social media (M = 18.00); browsing shopping windows (M = 14.51); and clicking on online ads related to the chosen product (M = 10.19).

Discussion

Studies 2A and 2B show a positive and moderately significant effect of previous knowledge on post-decision information search when other variables were included in the model. The direction of the effect of previous knowledge was in tune with the findings from Study 1 and supported H1 as well. However, in a less controlled setting, previous knowledge alone did not affect post-decision information search because other variables, such as the interaction term and cognitive dissonance, might have suppressed its effect. It is important to note that the maximizing tendencies alone did not exert any effect on post-decision information search, but its interaction with previous knowledge does affect the dependent variable. This effect is supported by Studies 2A and 2B.

In Study 2A, we found no significant effect for the lowest levels of the maximizing tendencies as we did in Study 2B. In Study 2B, the floodlight analysis showed when the main effect changes its sign. For satisficers, the effect of previous knowledge on information search was negative, yielding marginally significant effects at the lowest levels of maximization. Thus, post-experience information search is reduced for knowledgeable participants with low maximizing tendency (i.e, the satisficers). For satisficers, their choices are usually in tune with their expectations (Schwartz et al., 2002). Thus, when they find an option that conforms to their parameters, they settle for it and are unlikely to engage in post-purchase behaviors (Ma & Roese, 2014), such as information search. To the extent that satisficers held knowledge about their purchases and can experience their purchased product, as in Study 2B, they might be unlikely to search for more information about their purchases.

Furthermore, cognitive dissonance significantly increased the explanatory capacity of the model in Study 2A. In Study 2B, we replicated this finding with a different scale for cognitive dissonance. This result is in tune with previous studies (e.g., Ehrlich et al., 1957 Sweeney et al., 2002), even though such studies did not empirically investigate the effect of cognitive dissonance on post-decision information search. Thus, Studies 2A and 2B contribute to the preliminary understanding of the real effects of cognitive dissonance on post-decision information search. It is worth noting that satisfaction did not have a significant effect on the dependent variable. However, this result is not conclusive because we tested this variable in only one study.

CONCLUSION

In this study, we investigated the effects of consumers' previous knowledge, its interaction with maximizing tendencies, and the effects of cognitive dissonance and satisfaction on post-decision information search. In Study 1, we showed that individuals holding objective previous knowledge before making a choice searched for more information related to the available options after they made their decision and could not change it anymore. Studies 2A and 2B reinforced findings from Study 1 with a new type of previous knowledge (subjective knowledge) and explored the moderation effect of the maximizing tendencies and influence of cognitive dissonance. We found that, in non-controlled settings, previous knowledge had a significant effect when additional predictors were introduced into the regression model. The results showed

CC BY

ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

an interaction wherein maximizers were more likely to search for information after making their final choice as a function of their previous knowledge.

This research has several theoretical contributions. First, it sheds light on consumers' previous knowledge as a new predictor of information search behavior. Hence, it advances the literature on post-decision information search. Second, to the best of our knowledge, this study is the first to show the effect of the interaction between previous knowledge and maximizing tendencies on post-decision information search. Thus, it also contributes to the literature on maximizing tendencies, especially considering that only few studies have explored the effects of this trait on behaviors elicited at the post-decision stage (Ma & Roese, 2014). Third, the research advances the theory on the empirical effect of cognitive dissonance on post-decision information search. Again, to the best of knowledge, previous studies have not tested this effect. Fourth, we holistically analyzed consumer behavior, following suggestions from Lemon and Verhoef (2016), as we linked different stages of the customer journey by investigating a variable elicited at the pre-purchase stage (i.e., consumers' previous knowledge) that in affects consumer behavior at the post-purchase stage (i.e., information search).

Our study presents managerial implications as well. Consumers' knowledge may be a concern for business companies because consumers seek more information about goods and services before purchasing, being more knowledgeable than the sales person as well as more empowered by the knowledge they have (Gensler, Neslin, & Verhoef, 2017). Through three studies, we show that knowledgeable consumers continue searching for more information about the products they have purchased. This way, marketers should assist consumers in this task. For instance, companies can provide more information about the purchased product (e.g., reinforce consumers' decision and give tips about how to use the purchased product, which may improve their experience with it) a few hours or days after the consumer has made a purchase. Furthermore, the information consumers find after a choice may serve as a "calibrating element" for their judgements. This may exert further influence on variables that are important for marketing performance, such as satisfaction and repurchase intentions (Shani & Zeelenberg, 2007). If business companies provide to consumers more information at the post-purchase stage, they might have more control under the information consumers are accessing.

We also present approaches used by consumers to search for information at the post-purchase phase. If retailers know where consumers search for information, they can choose the best approach to reinforce consumers' decision, and, consequently, diminish back-out behaviors (Donelly & Ivancevich, 1970) and feelings of regret (Shani & Zeelenberg, 2007).

Finally, our study is not without limitations. First, we could not replicate the findings from Study 1 across Studies 2A and 2B. Nevertheless, we found a marginal significant effect of previous knowledge in the model at level 3 after introducing the maximizing tendencies, the interaction term, and cognitive dissonance. This may indicate the suppression effect of other variables (Mackinnon et al., 2000) when we investigate consumers' previous knowledge in a more naturalistic condition. Across the three studies, the effect of previous knowledge has the same direction as we proposed in H1. Second, in Study 2B, we did not measure feelings of regret, which may increase or decrease information search behavior (Shani & Zeleenberg, 2007). We used a scale to measure satisfaction, which may be an indicator of individuals' feelings of regret, but it is not a measure of it. Finally, we did not explore the effects of post-decision information search on participants' satisfaction with the decision and their repurchase intentions. Further studies should investigate these variables because they are important to improve marketing performance (Brega, 2018).

This research amplifies the understanding of consumers' post-decision experience, diverging from previous marketing literature that focuses mainly on variables such as satisfaction, repurchase intention, and service failures topics (e.g., Bach & Kim, 2012; Wirtz et al., 2007). Differently from this literature, we investigated the post-decision information search behavior, which may strongly affect consumers' actions toward brands, goods, and services (Oliver, 2014).

NOTE OF APPRECIATION

We would like to thank CAPES for the financial support to research.

REFERENCES

Alba, J. W., & Hutchinson, J. W. (2000). Knowledge calibration: What consumers know and what they think they know. *Journal of Consumer Research, 27*(2), 123-156. doi: doi.org/10.1086/314317

Ali, F. (2019). U.S sales grow 15.0% in 2018. Recuperado de https://www.digitalcommerce360.com/article/us-ecommerce-sales/

Bach, S. B., & Kim, S. (2012). Online consumer complaint behaviors: The dynamics of service failures, consumers' word of mouth, and organization-consumerrelationships. *International Journal of Strategic Communication*, *6*(1), 59-76. doi: 10.1080/1553118X.2011.634871

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

Bettman, J. R, & Park, C. W. (1980). Effects of prior knowledge and experience and phase of the choice process on consumer decision processes: a protocol analysis. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *7*, 234-248. doi: 10.1086/208812

Brega, J. (2018). O sucesso da Whirlpool crescendo em qualquer contexto. Retrieved from: https://www.mckinsey.com.br/our-insights/blog-made-in-brazil/o-sucesso-da-whirlpool-crescendo-em-qualquer-contexto/

Brucks, M. (1985). The effects of product class knowledge on information search behavior. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *12*, 1-16. doi: 10.1086/209031

Carlson, J. P., Vincent, L. H., Hardesty, D. M., & Bearden, W. O. (2009). Objective and subjective knowledge relationships: a quantitative analysis of consumer research findings. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *35*, 864-876. doi: 10.1086/593688

Chu, S. C., & Kim, Y. (2011). Determinants of consumer engagement in electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) in social networking sites. *International Journal of Advertising*, *30*(1), 47-75. doi: 10.2501/ija-30-1-047-075

Delloite. (2017). 2017 Global Mobile Consumer Survey: US edition. Retrieved from https://www2.deloitte.com/content/dam/Deloitte/us/Documents/technology-media-telecommunications/us-tmt-2017-global-mobile-consumer-survey-executive-summary.pdf

Dholakia, N., Zwick, D., & Denegri-Knott, J. (2013), Technology, consumers and marketing theory. In P. Maclaran, M. Saren, B. Stern, & M. Tadajewski (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of marketing theory* (pp. 494-511). London, UK: Sage.

Donelly, J. H., & Ivancevich, J. M. (1970). Post-purchase reinforcement and back-out behavior. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *7*, 399-400. doi: 10.2307/3150746

Ehrlich, D., Guttman, I., Schönbach, P., & Mills, J. (1957). Postdecision exposure to relevant information. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, *54*(1), 98. doi: 10.1037/h0042740

Field, A. & Graham, H. (2003). *How to design and report experiments*. London, UK: Sage.

Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS*. London, UK: Sage.

Gensler, S., Neslin, S. A., & Verhoef, P.C. (2017). The showrooming phenomenon: It's more than just about price. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, *38*, 29-43. doi: 10.1016/j.intmar.2017.01.003

Goldsmith, K., Roux, C., & Ma, J. (2018). When seeking the best brings out the worst in consumers: Understanding the relationship between a maximizing mindset and immoral behavior. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *28*(2), 293-309. doi: 0.1002/jcpy.1017

Hadar, L., Sood, S., & Fox, C. R. (2013). Subjective knowledge in consumer financial decisions. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *50*(3), 303-316. doi: 10.1509/jmr.10.0518

Hayes, A. (2013). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach*. New York City, NY: The Guilford Press New York.

Hennig-Thurau, T., Gwinner, K. P., Walsh, G., & Gremler, D. D. (2004). Electronic word-of-mouth via consumer-opinion platforms: What motivates consumers to articulate themselves on the Internet? *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, *18*(1), 38-52. doi: 10.1002/dir.10073

Iyengar, S. S, Wells, R. E., & Schwartz, B. (2006). Doing better but feeling worse. *Psychological Science*, *17*, 143-150. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9280.2006.01677.x

Jones, E. H. (2002). A cognitive dissonance theory perspective on persuasion. In J. Dillard, M. Pfau (Eds.), *The persuasion handbook*: *Developments in theory and practice* (pp. 99-117). CA: SAGE Publications.

Kemp, S. (2018). Digital in 2018: World's internet users pass the 4 billion mark. Retrieved from https://wearesocial.com/blog/2018/01/global-digital-report-2018/

Kiel, G. C., & Layton, R. A. (1981). Dimensions of consumer information seeking. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *18*, 233-239. doi: 10.1177/002224378101800210

Lee, H. H., & Kim, J. (2008). The effects of shopping orientations on consumers' satisfaction with product search and purchases in a multi-channel environment. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International Journal*, *12*(2), 193–216. doi: 10.1108/09590550910934272

Lemon, K.N., & Verhoef, P. C. (2016). Understanding customer experience throughout the customer journey. *Journal of Marketing*, *80*(6), 69-96. doi: 10.1509/jm.15.0420

Luan, M., & Li, H, (2017). Maximization paradox: result of believing in an objective best. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *43*(5), 652-661. doi: 10.1177/0146167217695552

Ma, J., & Roese, N. J. (2014). The maximizing mind-set. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *41*, 71-92. doi: 10.1086/674977

MacKinnon, D. P., Krull, J. L., & Lockwood, C. M. (2000). Equivalence of the mediation, confounding and suppression effect. *Prevention Science*, *1*(4), 173-181.

Mehra, A., Kumar, S., & Raju, J. S. (2017). Competitive strategies for brick-and-mortar stores to counter "showrooming." *Management Science*, *64*(7), 3076-3090. doi: 10.1287/mnsc.2017.2764

Mittal, B. (1989). Measuring purchase-decision involvement. *Psychology & Marketing*, *6*(2), 147-162. doi: 10.1002/mar.4220060206

Montgomery, C., & Barnes, J. H. (1993). POSTDIS: A short rating scale for measuring postpurchase dissonance. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior*, *6*, 204-216.

Oliver, R. L. (2014). *Satisfaction: A behavioral perspective on the consumer*. New York City, NY: Routledge.

Park, C. W., Monthersbaugh, D. L., & Feick, L. (1994). Consumer knowledge assessment. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *21*(1), 71-82. doi: 10.1086/209383

Punj, G. N., & Staelin, R. (1983). A model of consumer information search behavior for new automobiles. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *9*(4), 366-380. doi: 10.1086/208931

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

Raju, P. S., Lonial, S. C., & Mangold, W. G. (1995). Differential effects of subjective knowledge, objective knowledge, and usage experience on decision making: An exploratory investigation. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 4(2), 153-180. doi: 10.1207/s15327663jcp0402_04

Redação Forbes (2018). Compras online somaram R$ 166.2 bi no Brasil. Retrieved from https://forbes.uol.com.br/colunas/2018/09/compras-online-somaram-r-1662-bi-no-brasil/

Schwartz, B., Ward, A., Monterosso, J., Lyubomirsky, S., White, K., & Lehman, D. R. (2002). Maximizing versus satisficing: Happiness is a matter of choice. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *83*(5), 1178-1197. doi: 10.1037//0022-3514.83.5.1178

Shani, Y., & Zeelenberg, M. (2007). When and why do we want to know? Experienced regret promotes post-decision information search. *Journal of Behavioral Decision Making*, *20*(3), 207-222. doi: 10.1002/bdm.550

Simon, H. A. (1956). Rational choice and the structure of the environment. *Psychological Review*, *63*(2), 129. doi: 10.1037/h0042769

Spiller, S. A., Fitzsimons, G. J., Lynch, J. R., & McClelland, G. H. (2013). Spotlights, floodlights, and the magic number zero: Simple effects tests in moderated regression. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *50*(2), 277-288. doi: 10.1509/jmr.12.0420

Sweeney, J. C., Hausknecht, D., & Soutar, G. N. (2000). Cognitive dissonance after purchase: A multidimensional scale. *Psychology and Marketing*, *17*, 369-385. doi: 10.1002/(SICI)1520-6793(200005)17:5<369::AID-MAR1>3.0.CO;2-G

Teodorescu, K., Sang, K., & Todd, P. M. (2018). Post-decision search in repeated and variable environments. *Judgment & Decision Making*, *13*(5). doi: 18/18202/jdm18202

Wirtz, J., Mattila, A. S., & Tan, R. L. (2007). The role of arousal congruency in influencing consumers' satisfaction evaluations and in-store behaviors. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, *18*(1), 6-24. doi: 10.1108/09564230710732876

AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

The authors declare that they contributed equally in the paper development, conceptualization and theoretical-methodological construction, theoretical revision, writing and finally, revising the manuscript. The theoretical review (literature survey) was conducted by first author and supervised by the second author.

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

FORUM

Submitted 01.09.2019. Approved 08.02.2019
Evaluated through a double-blind review process. Guest Scientific Editors: Delane Botelho and Leandro Angotti Guissoni
Translated version
DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/S0034-759020200105

INVESTIGATING ONLINE RESPONSE STRATEGIES FOR ADDRESSING NEGATIVE WORD OF MOUTH

Investigando as estratégias de respostas quanto ao boca a boca negativo on-line

Investigando las estrategias de respuestas respecto al boca a boca negativo online

ABSTRACT

The digital age has transformed how brands communicate and interact with their customers. One consequence is that the effect of negative word of mouth on a brand's reputation has intensified. This study investigates various response strategies employed to protect organizations' reputations in the online environment. Accordingly, it collected data through two methods. First, 10 semi-structured interviews were conducted with brand managers to identify the strategies that they used to minimize negative word of mouth in social media. Second, the social media interventions of different brands under management by agencies were collected to complement the interviews, and determine whether any additional strategies could be identified. The results showed that, when negative word of mouth events occurred, companies preferred to either apologize, hide the original message, respond in private rather than in public, or simply ignore the negative comments from customers.

KEYWORDS | Social media, brand management, word of mouth, response strategy, consumer

RESUMO

A era digital modificou a forma como as empresas se comunicam e interagem com seus consumidores e intensificou a influência do boca a boca negativo na reputação das marcas. O presente artigo investiga quais estratégias de respostas estão sendo empregadas pelas empresas para proteger a reputação organizacional no ambiente on-line. Para atingir o objetivo do estudo, duas coletas de dados foram realizadas. A primeira consistiu na realização de 10 entrevistas semiestruturadas com gestores de marcas para levantar as estratégias utilizadas para minimizar o boca a boca negativo nas mídias sociais. A segunda foi feita com a coleta de conteúdo das marcas geridas pelas agências disponível nas mídias sociais com o intuito de verificar a presença de outras estratégias além das comentadas. Como principal resultado, observam-se situações em que as empresas preferem se desculpar, ocultar a mensagem, responder inbox ou simplesmente ignorar os comentários negativos dos consumidores.

PALAVRAS-CHAVE | *Mídias sociais, gestão de marcas, boca a boca, estratégia de resposta, consumidor*

RESUMEN

La era digital resultó en cambios en la forma en que las marcas se comunican y intejarem con sus consumidores, y intensifico in la influencia del boca a boca negativo en la reputación de la marca. El presente artículo investiga qué estrategias de respuestas se están empleando para proteger la reputación organizativa en el entorno online. Para alcanzar el objetivo del estudio se realizaron dos colectas de datos. La primera consistió en la realización de diez entrevistas semiestructuradas con gestores de marcas para averiguar las estrategias utilizadas para minimizar el boca a boca negativo en los medios sociales. La segunda se llevó a cabo mediante la recolección de contenido de las marcas administradas por las agencias disponibles en los medios sociales, con el objetivo de verificar si otras estrategias, además de las comentadas, se están poniendo en práctica. Como resultado, se observa que, dependiendo de la situación, las empresas prefieren disculparse, ocultar el mensaje, responder inbox, o simplemente ignorar los comentarios negativos.

PALABRAS CLAVE | *Medios sociales, Gestión de marcas, Boca a boca, estrategia de respuesta, consumidor*

ROBERTA DUARTE FERNANDES[1]
robertadf@al.insper.edu.br
ORCID: 0000-0002-7057-4056

GIULIANA ISABELLA[1]
giulianai@insper.edu.br
ORCID: 0000-0002-4502-4327

[1]Insper Instituto de Ensino e Pesquisa, Programa de Mestrado Profissional em Administração, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

CC BY

INTRODUCTION

The reputation of a company relates to its ability to create brand value. As an intangible asset that is difficult to replicate, reputation affects a company's financial results (Gensler, Völckner, Liu-Thompkins, & Wiertz, 2013). Managing a brand's reputation is a complex operation that involves analyzing the company's internal resources and establishing constant dialogue between the company and its stakeholders (Roberts & Dowling, 2002).

Social media has become an important cultural and social phenomenon, transforming the way millions of people and companies communicate and connect (VanMeter, Grisaffe, & Chonko, 2015). Brand-related communication occurs outside of company control. However, companies determine whether and how they interact with their customers (Kietzmann, Hermkens, Mccarth, & Silvestre, 2011). Customer interactions can add value to companies, as content generation and electronic word of mouth (eWOM) can have a positive influence on the buying behavior of other customers (Bruhn, Schoenmueller, & Schäfer, 2012; Wilson, Giebelhausen, & Brady, 2017).

Customers commonly use eWOM to research a product, service, or brand's evaluations (Krishnamurthy & Kumar, 2018). According to the Mintel.com report (2015), approximately 70% of American customers sought the opinions of online customers about the products or services they considered to purchase. In Brazil, more than 50% of online customers trusted other customers' opinions about products and services (E-commerce Brasil, 2018).

The challenges and difficulties that marketing professionals face when managing eWOM (Kumar, Choi, & Greene, 2017; Munzel, Jahn, & Kunz, 2012; Wilson et al., 2017) have prompted researchers and managers to better understand social media while they find the best ways to deal with this new cultural and social phenomenon (Islam & Rahman, 2016; VanMeter et al., 2015). Some studies address eWOM by focusing on how communication influences the behaviors of potential customers (East, Romaniul, Chawdhary, & Uncles, 2017; Wilson et al., 2017). Other studies try to understand what motivates customers to use social media to interact with brands (Hennig-Thurau, Gwinner, Walsh, & Gremler, 2004; VanMeter et al., 2015; Zhu & Chen, 2015). Quantitative studies have measured the effect of company responses on buying behavior, customer satisfaction (Kim, Wang, Maslowks, & Malthouse, 2016; Lee & Song, 2010) and potential customers (Manika, Papagiannidis, & Bourlakis, 2017). Most studies have analyzed the effects of eWOM on customer perception, but have not examined how companies dealt with negative eWOM.

Almost all existing studies that have addressed word of mouth response strategies concerned brand crises (e.g., Lee & Song, 2010; Marcus & Goodman, 1991; Munzel et al., 2012; Siomkos & Kurzbard, 1994). Studies in the eWOM field have used experiments to evaluate company response strategies (e.g., Crijns, Cauberghe, Hudders, & Claeys, 2017; Noort & Willemsen, 2012). There is a substantive gap in the literature analyzing the various existing response strategies. The majority of existing research focuses on customer perception of the companies' response strategies (e.g., Li, Cui, & Peng, 2018; Munzel, Kunz, & Jahn, 2017), and not on the companies' strategies or vision.

The objective of this study is to discover the strategies being used by brand managers in response to the content posted by customers on social networks, particularly in cases of negative content related to their brands. This supplements the eWOM literature by identifying strategies that published research has not thoroughly explored. In addition, this article provides a systematic overview of how companies currently employ existing social media strategies in response to negative eWOM.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with brand managers from 10 digital marketing agencies. In order to compare the results of these interviews with actions taken in response to complaints, a content analysis of the Facebook and Instagram profiles managed by these agencies was performed. One brand from each agency was analyzed, including more than 4,000 comments or posts.

The following section presents a literature review with an emphasis on strategies for responding to negative comments.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A reputable brand can attract customers, generate investors' interest, lure the best employees, motivate existing workers, increase job satisfaction, generate positive media coverage, and elicit positive feedback from financial analysts (Davies & Chun, 2003). On the other hand, crises and harm to a brand can lead to serious negative consequences for a company, particularly in the online environment where information spreads quickly (Laufer & Coombs, 2006).

The online presence of all companies includes, or potentially includes, eWOM, defined as any positive or negative statement made by current, past, or potential customers about a product, service, or company that is publicly available on the internet (Henning-Thurau et al., 2004). eWOM differs from traditional word of mouth due to its transmission medium, which is based on the internet (Krishnamurthy & Kumar, 2018). eWOM

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

typically takes the form of a written message. It is posted on public forums for customers or businesses and stored electronically, and can be searched for and accessed in the future (Andreassen & Streukens, 2009; Eisingerich, Chun, Liu, He, & Bell, 2015). eWOM requires that participants communicate with a network of people in online communities, where conversations are publicly visible and often impersonal. The individuals who comprise these communities come together through a shared interest in specific products, services, topics, or activities (King, Racherla, & Bush, 2014).

Given the multidirectional nature of the internet, the volume and reach of eWOM is greater than face to face word of mouth (Islam & Rahman, 2016). eWOM is characterized by its unimaginable reach, although it is measurable and mappable (Noort & Willemsen, 2012), and the communication flows from one customer to many (Eisingerich et al., 2015). In general, eWOM is persistent and remains publicly stored (Dellarocas, 2003). The information thus created is available to other customers seeking opinions on products and services (Hennig-Thurau & Wash, 2010). Given the textual nature of eWOM opinions, both the content of the message and the characteristics of the source effect the credibility and usefulness of the broadcast content (King et al., 2014).

In the online world, social media establishes a virtual relationship channel. Over it, people interact and exchange content through the internet. Also, they can disseminate spontaneous information directly to companies and brands. Social media has allowed a new and efficient means of communication between companies and customers. However, this same means of communication has enabled customers to comment online and, therefore, affect a company's reputation (Wilson et al., 2017). Online channels make the transmission of complaints to companies and other potential customers much easier. Customers can compose a complaint in the digital environment in just a few minutes (Gregoire, Salle, & Tripp, 2015).

Customers engage in eWOM for several reasons. They include: preventing others from experiencing the same problems; seeking advice on how to solve problems; expressing anger as a way to reduce cognitive dissonance; or retaliation against the company that supplied the product or service (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004; Sundaram, Mitra, & Webster, 1998). Negative complaints affect companies for two reasons: first, due to the spread of the negative information to many other online customers (Noort & Willemsen, 2012); and second, because individuals always seek information before making purchase decisions. eWOM is used by customers to develop expectations for a brand, product, or service (Krishnamurthy & Kumar, 2018; Munzel et al., 2012). Thus, a concordant opinion can lead to more positive attitudes and greater intents to purchase. On the other hand, negative opinions can create attitudes of rejection and lower intents to purchase on the part of customers (Liu, Wang, & Wu, 2010).

Strategies for responding to negative word of mouth

Although customers are more cautious about complaining on social media than in face-to-face situations (Eisingerich et al., 2015), online venting or complaining can significantly and negatively influence a brand's image (Wilson et al., 2017). In order to minimize this negative impact and protect their brands, companies have begun to respond. A study by Xie, Zhang, Zhang, Singh, and Lee (2016) examined hotel companies' responses to complaints on the TripAdvisor website, and discovered that companies that responded to complaints had higher rankings than companies that did not respond. Although responding to complaints appears to be a promising technique for customer communication, this strategy can have disastrous consequences if poorly implemented (Lee & Song, 2010; Noort & Willemsen, 2012). Consequently, companies should carefully define their response strategies for dealing with complaints made by dissatisfied customers about a problem with a service or product.

In the context of corporate crises, Marcus and Goodman (1991) classified response strategies into two types: accommodative and defensive. Accommodative strategies refer to strategies where companies recognize and accept the existence of problems and take action, including providing explanations, compensation, and recovery. Defensive strategies are those that deny the problem by insisting that there is no problem, claiming that the company is not responsible for what occurred, accusing the complainant of causing the situation, and even shifting the blame to other companies (Marcus & Goodman, 1991). Griffin, Babin, and Darden (1992) explained that proactive companies, through apologies, refunds, or other corrective actions, helped reconstruct their positive images. Coombs (1999) added that defensive strategies could be useful when the origin of the problem is difficult to identify.

Siomkos and Kurzbard (1994) defined four strategic responses to product crises: legally mandated recall, voluntary recall, super effort, and denial. A mandated recall involves a response by the company that is (usually) provoked by an external agent – for example, a judicial order requiring the recall of a product. A voluntary recall consists of remedying a failure without judicial obligation – for example, by exchanging a defective

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

product. Super effort goes beyond simple remedies and offers additional benefits. Laufer and Coombs (2006) promoted the idea that consumer-based cues such as gender and nationality could potentially be utilized in the corporate strategy responses. With social media, an online complaint can become a brand crisis. Consequently, many companies treat complaints on social media as if they are already a crisis (Manika et al., 2017).

An organization's acceptance of a crisis's existence may seem honorable, and sometimes manages to reduce the probability of negative responses. In addition, accepting responsibility for a negative event can inspire sympathy and forgiveness (Griffin et al., 1992).

In the context of social media, Munzel et al. (2012) used experimental studies to demonstrate the importance to companies of responding to comments and apologizing to their customers. According to the accommodation strategies they analyzed, the authors argued that a social media response increased positive attitudes and customer benevolence towards the brand or company. The authors also showed that apologies strengthened company/customer relationships. People expected a response from the company, especially when they understood that the company was responsible for the negative event (Coombs, 1999). A company's assumption of responsibility in response to a negative event facilitates the development of customer confidence, which, in turn, affects their assessment of the company and increases their intent to purchase. Attempting to deny organizational responsibility for negative events created unfavorable perceptions with respect to the company (Lee, 2005).

Lee and Song (2010) proposed three eWOM response strategies: accommodation, no action, and defensive. That is, in addition to the accommodation strategies, in which responsibility is accepted (accepting responsibility, compensation, corrective action), and the defensive strategies, in which responsibility is denied (transferring blame, minimization), the authors included "no action," in which the comment is treated as insubstantial, thus making it essentially a strategy of silence (Lee, 2004). This strategy simply tries to separate the negative events from the company, opting for the permanence of silence on social networks (Lee, 2004).

According to Lee and Song (2010), organizations commonly used six responses. These were (a) shifting the guilt: a claim that others were responsible for the crisis; (b) minimization: a claim that the consequences of the crisis were not as bad as they were portrayed; (c) no comment: a refusal to comment; (d) apology: a verbal statement of apology, i.e. a defensive statement; (e) compensation: monetary compensation to the victim(s); and (f) corrective action: taking action to prevent a recurrence of the problem.

Transferring blame involves admitting that a crisis occurred while claiming that others were responsible. Thus, it reflects the greatest denial of responsibility among the six possible responses to a crisis. Minimization involves the second-most significant denial of responsibility, because the organization tries to reduce the perceived severity of the crisis by diminishing its significance. An organization that refuses to comment usually finds itself in a situation in which it cannot mitigate the crisis, and tries to dissociate itself from the crisis by remaining silent. This "no comment" response represents the third-most significant denial of responsibility. It can be useful when a company feels less responsible for the negative event, when there is no explicit guilt, or when there is a high potential for inappropriate responses that could cause offence (Mclaughlin, Cody, & O'Hair, 1983).

Finally, corrective action represents the greatest acceptance of responsibility for a problem because, by identifying the source of the problem, the organization has taken responsibility for the event, attempted to correct the problem, and tried to avoid a recurrence (Laufer & Coombs, 2006). When the organization's employees apologize, they accept responsibility for the crisis (Manika et al., 2017). In addition, compensation extends the organization's acceptance of its responsibility by offering monetary reparations.

Noort and Willensen (2012) argued that companies should perform interventions, preferably proactive ones, on web pages with complaints – including in cases of brand defamation by customers, since they result in more positive assessments from the customers who visit those pages. The authors also demonstrated that customers preferred a more humanized and less robotic response. Crijns et al. (2017) later supported this finding.

Following an investigation of guest complaints on TripAdvisor, Sparks and Bradley (2014) developed a response strategy called "Triple A" (Acknowledge, Account, Action). According to this strategy, there are three categories of responses. The first, Acknowledgement, involves thanking, appreciation, apology, recognition, admission, and acceptance. The second, Account, relates to explanations, such as providing an excuse, justifying the error, offering another point of view, or denying the incident. The third, Action, means the company investigates the incident, changes the product (repair, exchange, or improvement), changes the company's process, or forms a relationship with the customer. Regardless of the strategy used, or the company's level of involvement in solving the problem, it is crucial that the explanation offered to the customer is honest, sincere, transparent (Sparks & Bradley, 2014) and fast. According to Istanbulluoglu (2017), customers on Facebook expected a response within 3 to 6 hours.

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

Exhibit 1 summarizes the principal components of the response strategies. It presents the key research that investigated eWOM response strategies on social media in chronological order. None of the studies investigated the response strategies from the perspective of the companies involved; published research focused almost exclusively on customers. In addition, the existing literature has a theoretical or conclusive character. In contrast, this study investigates eWOM response strategies by integrating data gathered in semi-structured interviews with brand management agencies and adding observations and analysis of the companies' responses on social media platforms.

Exhibit 1. **The existing research on negative word-of-mouth internet response strategies**

RESEARCH FOCUS	STRATEGIES INVESTIGATED	AGENTS	METHODOLOGY	AUTHORS
The impact of consensus and authenticity of the message on the allocation and evaluation of the companies	Accommodation Defensive No action	M-turkers	Experiment	Lee & Song (2010)
How companies should respond to the effects of eWOM	Apologies	Students	Experiment	Munzel, Jahn, & Kunz (2012)
Investigating complaint response strategies on websites/blogs via experiments	Proactive vs. Passive Customer vs. Brand platforms	Participants	Experiment	Noort & Willemsen (2012)
Investigating responses to online complaints from hotel guests	"*Triple A*" Accommodation Acknowledge, Account, Action	Consumers	*On-line* TripAdvisor Examination	Sparks & Bradley (2014)
The factors that influence the perception and impact of various response strategies on hotel reviews	Response by the company or a company representative	Participants	Experiment	Waiguny, Kniesel, & Diehl (2014)
Effect of social media apologies on a company's customer and non-customer behavior	Apologies, compensation	Customers and potential customers	Questionnaire	Manika, Papagiannidis, & Bourlakis (2015)
How companies should respond to positive and negative comments	Company response or personalized – *human voice*	Participants	Experiment	Crijns, Cauberghe, Hudders, & Claeys (2017)
The effect of negative response strategies on customer perceptions	Apologies (pretext, excuse)	Participants	Experiment	Munzel, Jahn, & Kunz (2017)
Investigating the semantics and impact of responses to complaints	Accommodation Defensive	Consumers	Field Experiment	Li, Cui, & Peng (2018)

METHODOLOGY

The methodology chosen for this research is qualitative, and seeks to interpret the meanings and intentions of the social actors involved. Thus, the gathered data is best understood as representations of human acts and expressions (Godoi & Balsini, 2010).

The research utilized two complementary strategies and studies. First, it conducted semi-structured, in-depth interviews with brand management agencies. Then, it collected secondary data by analyzing the social media pages of the companies managed by those agencies. It then completed a systematic analysis of the documents and records on the relevant websites.

Study 1

Ten advertising agencies that focused on communication and brand management in social media were selected for the sample using non-probability methodology. This is a valid technique when a selected set of information is necessary in order to study a chosen phenomenon (Flick, 2009).

The selection criteria for the agencies included accessibility by the researcher, having at least one year of experience in social media content and brand management, conducting business in several Brazilian states, and having customers in different sectors. The respondent selection criteria included experience in

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

marketing, as well as content and brand management in a digital environment. Table 1 presents the information on each company and the respondent's profiles.

Table 1. **Profiles of the agencies in the sample**

AGENCY	COMPANY AGE	NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES	CLIENT SECTORS	STATE	POSITION OF RESPONDENT
A	5 years	12	Events, politics, retail	RN	Executive director
B	4 years	12	Construction, education, retail	MG, PE, RJ, RN, SP	Director & founding partner
C	2 years	10	Food, real estate, retail	RN	Content director
D	15 years	40	Communication, education, retail, technology	AM, CE, MG, PB, RJ, RN, SC, SP	Executive director
E	19 years	63	Food, education, politics, retail	AL, CE, DF, PB, RN, SP	Technology director
F	8 years	34	Communication, education, pharmaceutical, technology	SP	Senior Copywriter
G	1 year	6	Food, events, health	PB, RN, RS	Director & founding partner
H	6 years	6	Education, politics, retail	DF, MT, RN	Director & founding partner
I	15 years	105	Food, technology, retail	ES, MG, RJ, SP	Social media analyst
J	50 years	400	Food, health, retail	CE, RJ, SP	Copywriter

Information collection was completed during the months of March, April, and May of 2018. For the majority of participants, the in-person interviews were conducted at their workplaces. Two interviews were conducted using Skype (teleconferencing). Participants received consent forms prior to all interviews that allowed for the recording and transcription of their content. The interview script contained 18 questions, and interviews lasted an average of 40 minutes. At the end of the conversation, respondents specified at least one brand that their company managed.

Interview Analysis

All interviews were transcribed, resulting in 44 pages of text (using Microsoft Word, in 10-point Times New Roman font) that was inputted into QSR NVivo 8.0 software in order to categorize the material. Based on the literature review, a predefined list of codes was used to analyze the interview contents. These codes consisted of labels attached to portions of the text that the researcher identified as important for interpretation (Cassell & Symon, 2004), and that helped categorize the text. The primary codes created for the analysis were complaint channels, types of negative comments, identifying negative comments, the relationship with the customer, accommodation strategies, defensive strategies, and non-action strategies. Excerpts of the texts that did not relate to any category were discarded during the analysis process.

Results

The differences, similarities, and information summaries that emerged from the respondents' reports were summarized in the categories presented below. The text presents excerpts from interviews (with sources and agencies indicated) to exemplify specific themes.

Driving customers towards closed complaint channels

According to the respondents, the customers who contact them are predisposed towards negative comments and complaints. Most criticisms are made publicly, in posts on the brands' web pages, and often tag the companies in order to stand out. Agency J commented that, "The vast majority use open channels, especially when [our] customer is a brand with a large number of followers, and when the subject is controversial. Customers want their complaint to be seen by the company and other customers, with the intention of arriving at a solution."

One of the respondents believed that a lack of intimacy with technology influenced the choice of social networks users

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

to comment openly. "Most people have little intimacy with technology, or have limited intimacy, so they don't know exactly how the tool works and end up using the easiest method, the open comment" (AGENCY B).

However, a consensus existed among the agencies that brands preferred customers to use closed means of communication that did not exposure the content to the public, thus minimizing possible damage to the brands. Thus, companies employed specific strategies to promote the use of closed channels such as email and chat. "We have a movement to try to take the customer to closed channels to try to understand the situation, but most customers prefer to complain openly and publicly" (AGENCY A). "Already, in our first public contact, we explained that the communication will be in a closed environment like an email" (AGENCY F). "Depending on the situation, we request a private point of contact (telephone, e-mail, chat) to talk" (AGENCY D).

Characteristics of the claimants/customers and their claims

The ability to influence the complainant's public is a peculiarity of social networks that alters how agencies act. "I think that what will influence the complaint, and have more or less repercussion, is the complainant's power of influence" (AGENCY B). "The measure of the greatest repercussion of a negative comment is the number of followers and friends that the user has" (AGENCY J). "In general, we use automatic responses to respond to some complaint patterns, but sometimes our staff takes extra care when dealing with people with a lot of influence" (AGENCY A).

Images tend to influence readers more than text comments. Thus, Agency F commented on the need to be careful when the complaints include photos. "The repercussions are greater when photos are included in the publication. We avoid requesting images or proof in the open channels" (AGENCY F).

Acting while acknowledging

eWOM in social media comments can affect brand reputations and even decrease the number of potential customers. The possible lack of response to customer complaints had an influence on the creation of eWOM. "The customer needs to know that someone has heard and will handle that information" (AGENCY B). "When complaints reach viral potential, it is usually a consequence of the brand's neglect of its public, so we always respond to the customer" (AGENCY F). "The only certainty is that, if the interaction is not quick and the brand is not willing to assist the customer, customers will continue broadcasting their negative comments until they are heard" (AGENCY I).

Personalizing the response

According to most agencies, there were no standards for responding to complaints. The agencies worked on each case to understand the problem and avoid losing the brand's "personalization." "Each case is different because it depends on the focus of the problem, it depends on the situation" (AGENCY A). "For complaints, we prefer to analyze each case" (AGENCY C). "Many times we create a `script' related to each situation, but we do not like to close the script, leaving space to respond in a more `human' way" (AGENCY H).

The interaction between the agencies that manage the websites and profiles of the brands, and the companies that own the brands, is part of the creative process. "So we make the first contact, as we say, and then we pass the situation to the company, which will take the initiative in more critical cases" (AGENCY B). The agencies admitted that, due to volume, complaint recurrence, or the need for agility, often a more automatized response is given. "To create the answer, we follow a step-by-step [process] that begins with the identification of the problem, investigation of the facts with the company, and creation of the best response strategy" (AGENCY C). "Since we hold weekly meetings with the companies, we can automatically respond up to a certain point, so the customer knows that their complaint is being dealt with" (AGENCY E).

Accommodation: Acceptance of responsibility

Prevalent in respondents' testimonials were accommodation strategies that involved accepting responsibility for the problem through an apology, a retraction, a corrective action, and sometimes compensation. The responses related to these strategies were made in several ways, including direct responses in the form of comments, contacts via closed channels, or through public posts. "The company admitted guilt and made a public statement. The statements were placed on social networks and, depending on the client, they were also obliged to place them in large circulation media such as newspapers" (AGENCY D). "In the answers that we already have authorization to give, we try to understand the reason for the complaint; for example, poor

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

service, and we have already apologized. Sometimes we offer a gift or a discount" (AGENCY E).

Silence as a strategy

All respondents reported having used the strategy of non-action, or silence, at some point. Some participants affirmed they employed this type of response due to directions from the company that owned the brand, or because of strategic questions: "Depending on the situation, it is best not to answer" (AGENCY G). "There are nonsense or relatively negligible complaints where it is ideal not to answer" (AGENCY H).

There were also those who stated that silence was the best strategy for containing the expansion of eWOM. "The internet is interesting. You have the peak of the complaint, but it can quickly fall off. You have to consider very carefully whether the complaint is worth defending against; if so, defend. But when you don't think so, don't – as in the shopping mall case, where everything you were going to say was going to come back at you, then you [had] better let it go and shut up" (AGENCY E).

Denial and information "hiding"

Although not commented on openly as a utilized strategy, the interviews subtly identified some indicators of defensive strategies. "Often, the problem did not exist; the customer was not always the victim" (AGENCY A).

Sometimes, concealing and excluding comments from the brand's website developed more clearly into a strategy. "Hiding was used when we saw that the person wanted to cause a riot. So, we hid it from the other users, but the complainant and their followers kept seeing it" (AGENCY C). "We hide information when the comments involve cursing, when there are rude slang terms, and when the situation is more complex" (AGENCY B).

Discussion of interview results

Based on the interviews, and in accordance with the literature, a company's foremost interest is to minimize the negative effects on a brand's image (Xie et al., 2016). To accomplish that, companies managed by the agencies avoid the spread of the negative message, steer the customer into closed channels of communication, and use silence when the goal is to reduce the problematization and propagation of complaints (Lee, 2004). Companies also give priority to more humanized communication (Crijns et al., 2017), choose the effort they dedicate to each complaint based on the complainant's level of influence, and have "automatic" or scripted responses at their disposal.

Respondents routinely commented on accommodation strategies used by brands in times of crisis (Marcus & Goodman, 1991), especially in the context of accepting the problem and issuing apologies (Munzel et al., 2012). During the interviews, respondents rarely commented on the use of forced or voluntary complacency strategies, including publications in mass media (Siomkos & Kurzbard, 1994). The brand managers shared very little regarding strategies that involved financial compensation (Lee & Song, 2010). Their proactivity and agility in responding to a complaint were clear, and reinforced Istanbulluoglu's (2017) work on customers expected response time on Facebook.

One strategy that emerged that was not present in the literature was the hiding of information, where companies chose to delete, or partially delete, the complainant's comment from their profile or web page, allowing only both sides (complainant and company) to see the original message and responses. Implementing this strategy results in a controlled brand environment (brand website, blog, Facebook page) that only includes positive information.

As indicated above, the respondents (brand managers) were asked to specify at least one brand that they were currently managing. Study 2 is an analysis of these social media strategies in action.

Study 2

Facebook and Instagram were chosen for collecting secondary data, as these two platforms were most frequently mentioned in Study 1. Social networks are composed of actors (e.g., customer complainants) and connections linked through electronic devices and websites. Facebook stands out as the largest social media operation in the world (Islam & Rahman, 2016), with two billion users. It was the first platform to exceed one billion users (Eisingerich et al., 2015). Brazil has the third-largest number of Facebook users in the world, after the United States (230 million) and India (250 million), with about 130 million users (Statista, 2018).

Brands mentioned by an agency in Study 1 were analyzed. Only agency H chose not to disclose a brand under its management. Table 2 displays the brand and sector from each agency that was analyzed, and the number of posts published on Facebook and Instagram about the brand in Brazil from January 1, 2018 to May 31, 2018.

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

Table 2. **Agency, sector, and number of posts/comments**

AGENCY	SECTOR	NUMBER OF POSTS
A	Entertainment	1113
B	Retail	1176
C	Restaurant	296
D	Education	611
E	Education	512
F	Retail	116
G	Restaurant	142
I	Telecommunications	131
J	Retail	1215

Only the public comments available on the brands' social media pages and profiles were analyzed.

Analysis of the social media content

Social networks are systems open to the general public that allow interaction through comments. Many of these posts and comments are visible and archived on the internet, making it is possible to analyze older posts. To analyze the content on the social networks, the relevant information (the complainants' posts and their comments) was downloaded onto an off-line system. Then, the data was cleaned by removing many comments, leaving only the complaints that received responses from the companies. Images included in the posts were also removed. The remaining information was then manually categorized according to the strategies established by the theoretical framework. Supporting analysis and context was developed by researching the web pages of the nine brands, in order to better understand the way they functioned. The following is an analysis of the most relevant response strategies taken from the brands' social network pages.

It is important to emphasize that the responses were reproduced exactly, but the names of the users (customers) and the brands, products, or phones were replaced by XXX. During transcription of the complaints and negative comments, grammar adjustments, without loss of meaning, were made to improve clarity.

Results

Consistent with the analysis of the respondents' contributions included above, the strategies for the most common complains on the brands' social media profiles or web pages were as follows:

Towards closed complaint channels

Some brands made an effort to take complaints out of public view (out of sight of other customers) in cases of systemic and operational problems, such as system failure or delivery delays. Customers were directed to private means of communication, including email or direct messages. "My signal is terrible; XXX's internet never works when one needs it. I've tried everything, and nothing solves it" (AGENCY CLAIM I); "Oh, XXX! What happened? Do you need support? Come chat on facebook.com/XXX email. I'll be happy to serve you!" (RESPONSE AGENCY I)

Accommodation: Acceptance of responsibility

Accommodation strategies identified in the responses included apologies, guidance/orientation, and displaying a concern towards understanding the problem identified in the customer's comments. During the period under analysis, an exceptional event that closed roads throughout Brazil directly impacted some of the brands handled by this study's agencies. One of the brands in question had to cancel a musical show because equipment had not arrived. A popular site called The Buzz, which aggregates negative reviews and questions, received over 1000 comments on Instagram, and 200 on Facebook, in less than a month. Clarifications were given in the form of posts with information on how customers could either obtain refunds for the ticket value or tickets for a new date. This is a concrete example of an accommodation strategy, as identified in the interviews that were part of Study 1.

Using proper names and emojis

Many companies used emojis (graphic symbols of emotions or words), most likely with the aim of humanizing their responses. They were regularly used to complement company apologies. For example, "I'm very upset, I registered the coupon and I didn't get a refund for the promotion, I've already tried contacting and nothing" (CLAIMANT AGENCY B) received the response, "Hello XXX . Good afternoon. After receiving the validation email, the refund of the amount paid for XXX product will be made by bank transfer within 10 working days, limited to a maximum of $60.00. You should be receiving it shortly" (AGENCY B).

Defensive strategy

A small number of companies opted for defensive strategies. They responded in a generic manner, and transferred responsibility to

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

the complainant. "This institution doesn't care about students, have you thought about how many students live away from campus? Many depend on public transportation. Where's the respect? It's the students who support this college. You are hurting us directly. Yesterday, we were warned that there would be no exams for the law course, in the morning we agreed with the news that the constitutional exam will be held, how will I arrive on time? So you think I ride a jet?" (CLAIMANT AGENCY E); "XXX students who feel harmed should contact their course administrators and report the situation" (AGENCY E).

Silence as strategy

Despite the importance of being proactive and responding to customer complaints (Noort & Willemsen, 2012), there were companies that, according to the complainants, chose to respond with total silence. "Lack of respect for students who live far from college, lack of sensitivity. They communicate that there will be no evaluation, but it is not just a matter of missing an exam, but of missing class and losing content when I am paying for it" (CLAIMANT AGENCY E).

Information "hiding"

Five of the companies identified in the interviews disabled customers' abilities to evaluate their brands on Facebook. Thus, customers had no ability to evaluate the companies with a ranking (stars). The ranking was visible on the brand's page, but the link for evaluating was not, indicating that the company was protecting itself against bad evaluations.

Results

Observations and content analysis of company websites confirmed the use of several strategies described by the managers in Study 1. As reinforced in the literature, the accommodation strategy – apologizing, accepting the error, reimbursing for the error (Lee & Song, 2010; Munzel et al., 2012, 2017) – was widely employed. Also, commonly adopted was humanized personalization (Crijns et al., 2017). While not identified by the interview participants as a strategy, companies regularly referred to customers by their names, referring and tagging their names on the website, and also using emojis. All three elements of the Triple A approach (Acknowledge, Account, Action) detailed in the TripAdvisor study by Sparks and Bradley (2014) were also part of these companies' social media strategies.

A defensive strategy that stands out is the concealment of the customer response field. This strategy makes it difficult for customers to evaluate or complain about brands publicly. This strategy deserves attention, because it minimizes customer contact with the company and prevents them from making a public complaint. It is important to emphasize that this defensive strategy also limits this study, because it is not possible to verify this type of contact between the customer and the company, or to analyze comments and responses that were excluded or hidden from public view.

CONCLUSION

This study investigated the response strategies that brand managers have employed to protect organizational reputations in the online environment. The research on the subject of eWOM is fragmented, usually aimed at investigating the consequences of specific actions on customer perceptions through experiments. The present study makes a novel contribution to the literature by providing an integrated and current overview of the various strategies and responses employed by brand managers working in social media. This research offers marketers and other professionals insights into what strategies can be, and currently are, used by brands managers while reinforcing the importance of brand management. This paper carried out two complementary studies. Exhibit 2 summarizes the key results of the interviews and the analysis of online comments.

These studies reinforce the importance of eWOM, as previously identified by Chebat, Codjove, and Davidow (2005) and Gregoire and Tripp (2011). According to the respondents, they give greater attention to eWOM because of the understanding that social media users are willing to generate negative comments and complaints. The respondents also indicated that the majority of users make open (public) comments instead of sending private emails and direct messages.

Based on a combination of the interview data (Study 1), and collection and analysis of information from the social media pages of the specific brands mentioned by the respondents (Study 2), it is possible to conclude that a significant gap exists between the response strategies implemented by different agencies in cases of complaints, negative comments, and expected outcomes. This disparity may be due to the volume of complaints, brand restrictions on resources (time, money), a lack of knowledge regarding existing strategies, or even the substantial diversity of complaints.

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

Exhibit 2. **Principal customer response strategies**

PRINCIPAL RESPONSE STRATEGY	CONCEPTS/ACTIONS/PRIMARY CHARACTERISTICS OF THE STRATEGY
Accommodation	Concept: The brand accepts responsibility for possible errors and seeks solutions, including an apology. Actions: Apologizing, showing interest in understanding and solving the problem, ready-made solutions, offering a financial or other benefit to the customer, and notes on guidance and clarification.
	This strategy is the response: customers most expected; brands felt most comfortable admitting to using; most advisable, according to the agencies interviewed; that most employed techniques such as "humanization." To develop a conversation with the customer, companies may use programs with automatic messages, inbox messages (on Facebook), or direct messages, solving the problem privately and out of sight of other customers. When this strategy was applied, one could observe the exercise of the Triple A strategy through online comments.
No Action	Concept: In this strategy, the brand offers either a superficial (non-substantial) response, or complete silence.
	Actions: None.
	This strategy is recommended when: the customer's comment/complaint is an opinion that lacks strong arguments; there are no satisfactory response options; the negative comment is related to a strategic decision taken by the company, such as raising prices; the comment is related to a controversial or sensitive issue. In an analysis of comments made on Facebook and Instagram, accommodation and no action were the most common response strategies. Respondents indicated that they did not employ the "no action" strategy.
Defensive	Concept: In this strategy, the brand denies the problem, claims that the company is not responsible for the problem, and may even accuse the complainant or another company for the situation.
	Actions: Excluding and hiding comments, generic responses, transferring responsibility to the complainant.
	This strategy is: the least expected by customers; perceived negatively by customers; often used when the customer uses inappropriate language, such as cursing; employed when the brand wants to explain itself in private (without fuss); recommended for clarifying any misunderstood or dubious fact that may have been misinterpreted by the customer. This strategy is easily identified in the explanatory notes submitted by companies, mainly regarding events or problems that have reached a large number of customers.

 CC BY © RAE | São Paulo | **60(1)** | **January-February 2020** | 33-46 ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

Despite the rigor provided by combining two complementary studies that produced an overview of complaint response strategies, some limitations must be considered. This study was limited to only 10 agencies operating in Brazil. These companies may use different strategies than those operating in other countries. Companies that managed customer responses internally were not approached. Finally, this study was restricted to the two most popular social media platforms, Facebook and Instagram.

A gap in the literature remains, related to which response strategies minimize the weakening of, or damage to, brands. Thus, future investigations could address: (i), which strategic response actions generate the most positive responses from customers; (ii), how customers react to strategic response actions that include concealing or deactivating the brand ranking system; (iii), how customers perceive and interpret differentiated strategic response actions (variations that are based on the number of followers the customer has on social media); (iv), the motivations that lead customers to engage in eWOM; (v), the impact of eWOM on internal company structures and marketing in general; (vi), how companies identify and prioritize customers with more or less social media influence; (vii) the best times for a company to respond to customer complaints; (viii) the differences in the strategies of internal versus external (agency) brand managers; and finally (ix), whether companies of different sizes employ similar strategies, and whether those strategies have identical impacts on their customers.

REFERENCES

Andreassen, T. W., & Streukens, S. (2009). Service innovation and electronic word- of-mouth: Is it worth listening to?. *Managing Service Quality*, *19*(3), 249-265. doi: 10.1108/09604520910955294

Bruhn, M., Schoenmueller, V., & Schäfer, D. B. (2012). Are social media replacing traditional media in terms of brand equity creation? *Management Research Review*, *35*(9), 770-790.

Cassell, C. & Symon, G. (Eds.) (2004). Essential guide to qualitative methods in organizational research London: SAGE Publications Ltd. doi: 10.4135/9781446280119

Collis, J., & Hussey, R. (2005). *Business research: A practical guide for undergraduate and postgraduate students* (2nd ed.). Porto Alegre, RS: Bookman.

Chebat, J. C., Davidow, M., & Codjovi, I. (2005). Silent voices: why some dissatisfied consumers fail to complain. *Journal of Service Research*, *7*(4), 328-342. doi: 10.1177/1094670504273965

Coombs, W. T. (1999). Information and compassion in crisis responses: A test of their effects. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, *11*, 125-142. doi: 10.1207/s1532754xjprr1102_02

Crijns H., Cauberghe V., Hudders L., & Claeys, A. S. (2017, October). How to deal with online consumer comments during a crisis? The impact of personalized organizational responses on organizational reputation. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *75*, 619-631. doi: 10.1016/j.chb.2017.05.046

Davies, G., & Chun, R. (2003). The use of metaphor in the exploration of the brand concept. *Journal of Marketing Management*, *19*(1/2), 45-71. doi: 10.1080/0267257X.2003.9728201

Dellarocas, C. (2003). The digitization of word of mouth: Promise and challenges of online feedback mechanisms. *Management Science*, *49*(10), 1275-1444. doi: 10.1287/mnsc.49.10.1407.17308

East, R., Romaniul, J., Chawdhary, R., & Uncles, M. (2017). The impact of word of mouth on intention to purchase currently used and other brands. *International Journal of Market Research*, *59*(3), 321-344. doi: 10.2501/IJMR-2017-026

E-commerce Brasil. (2018). *Estudo revela a evolução do consumidor digital no Brasil*. Retrieved from https://www.ecommercebrasil.com.br/noticias/estudo-revela-evolucao-do-consumidor-digital-no-brasil

Eisingerich, A. B., Chun, H. E. H., Liu, Y., He, J. M., & Bell, S. J. (2015). Why recommend a brand face-to-face but not on Facebook? How word-of-mouth on online social sites differs from traditional word-of-mouth. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *25*(1), 120-128. doi: 10.1016/j.jcps.2014.05.004

Flick, U. (2009). *Desenho da pesquisa qualitativa*. Porto Alegre, RS: Artmed.

Gensler, S., Völckner, F., Liu-Thompkins, Y., & Wiertz, D. (2013). Managing brands in the social media environment. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, *27*, 242-256. doi: 10.1016/j.intmar.2013.09.004

Godoi, C. K., & Balsini, C. P. V. (2010). A pesquisa qualitativa nos estudos organizacionais brasileiros: Uma análise bibliométrica. In A. B. Silva, C. K. Godoi, & R. Bandeira-De-Melo, *Pesquisa qualitativa em estudos organizacionais: Paradigmas, estratégias e métodos* (2. ed., pp. 89-113). Saraiva: São Paulo, SP.

Gregoire, Y., & Tripp, T. (2011). When unhappy customers strike back on the internet. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, *52*(3), 1-8.

Grégoire, Y., Salle, A., & Tripp, T. M. (2015). Managing social media crises with your customers: The good, the bad, and the ugly. *Business Horizons*, *58*(2), 173-182. doi: 10.1016/j.bushor.2014.11.001

Griffin, M., Babin, B. J., & Darden, W. R. (1992). Consumer assessments of responsibility for product-related injuries: The impact of regulations, warnings, and promotional policies. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *19*, 870-878.

Hennig-Thurau, T., Gwinner, K. P., Walsh, G., & Gremler, D. D. (2004). Electronic word-of-mouth via consumer-opinion platforms: What motivates consumers to articulate themselves on the Internet? *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, *18*(1), 38-52. doi: 10.1002/dir.10073

Hennig-Thurau, T., & Wash, G. (2010). Electronic word-of-mouth: Motives for and consequences of reading customer articulations on the internet. *International Journal of Electronic Commerce*, *8*(2), 51-74.

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

Islam, J. U., & Rahman, Z. (2016). Linking customer engagement to trust and word-of-mouth on Facebook brand communities: An empirical study. *Journal of Internet Commerce*, *15*(1), 40-58. doi: /10.1080/15332861.2015.1124008

Istanbulluoglu, D. (2017). Complaint handling on social media: The impact of multiple response times on consumer satisfaction. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *74*, 72-82. doi: 10.1016/j.chb.2017.04.016

Kietzmann, J. H. K., Hermkens, K., Mccarth, I. P., & Silvestre, B. S. (2011). Social media? Get serious! Understanding the functional building blocks of social media. *Business Horizons*, *54*, 241-251. doi: 10.1016/j.bushor.2011.01.005

Kim, S. J., Wang, R. J., Maslowks, E., & Malthouse, E. (2016). Understanding a fury in your words: The effects of posting and viewing electronic negative word-of-mouth on purchase behavior. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *54*, 511-521. doi: 10.1016/j.chb.2015.08.015

King, R. A., Racherla, P., & Bush, V. D. (2014). What we know and don't know about online word-of-mouth: A review and synthesis of the literature. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, *28*(3), 167-183. doi: 10.1016/j.intmar.2014.02.001

Krishnamurthy, A., & Kumar, S. R. (2018). Electronic word-of-mouth and the brand image: Exploring the moderating role of involvement through a consumer expectations lens. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *43*, 149-156. doi: 10.1016/j.jretconser.2018.03.010

Kumar, V., Choi, J. B. & Greene, M. (2017). Synergistic effects of social media and traditional marketing on brand sales: Capturing the time-varying effects. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *45*(2), 268-288. doi: 10.1007/s11747-016-0484-7

Laufer, D., & Coombs, W. T. (2006). How should a company respond to a product harm crisis? The role of corporate reputation and consumer-based cues. *Business Horizons*, *49*, 379- 385. doi: 10.1016/j.bushor.2006.01.002

Lee, B. K. (2004). Audience-oriented approach to crisis communication: A study of Hong Kong consumers' evaluation of an organizational crisis. *Communication Research*, *31*(5), 600-618. doi: 10.1177/0093650204267936

Lee, B. K. (2005). Hong Kong consumers' evaluation in an airline crash: A path model analysis. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, *17*(4), 363-391. doi: 10.1207/s1532754xjprr1704_3

Lee, B. K., & Song, S. (2010). An empirical investigation of electronic word-of-mouth: Informational motive and corporate response strategy. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *26*, 1073-1080. doi: 10.1016/j.chb.2010.03.009

Li, C., Cui, G., & Peng, L. (2018, July). Tailoring management response to negative reviews: The effectiveness of accommodative versus defensive responses. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *84*, 272-284. doi: 10.1016/j.chb.2018.03.009

Liu, T. C., Wang, C. Y., & Wu, L. W. (2010). Moderators of the negativity effect: Commitment, identification, and consumer sensitivity to corporate social performance. *Psychology and Marketing*, *27*(1), 54-70. doi: 10.1002/mar.20319

Manika, D., Papagiannidis, S., & Bourlakis, M. (2017). Understanding the effects of a social media service failure apology: A comparative study of customers vs. potential customers. *International Journal of Information Management*, *37*, 214-228.

Marcus, A. A., & Goodman, R. S. (1991). Victims and shareholders: The dilemmas of presenting corporate policy during a crisis. *Academy of Management Journal*, *34*(2), 281-305. doi: 10.2307/256443

McLaughlin, M., Cody, M., & O'Hair, H. D. (1983). The management of failure event: Some contextual determinants of accounting behavior. *Human Communication Research*, *9*, 208-224. doi: 10.1111/j.1468-2958.1983.tb00695.x

Mintel.com. (2015). *Seven in 10 Americans seek out opinions before making purchases*. Retrieved from http://www.mintel.com/press-centre/social-and-lifestyle/seven-in-10-americans-seekout-opinions-before-making-purchases

Munzel, A., Jahn, B., & Kunz, W. H. (2012). The power of saying sorry–insights on customer service in new media online channels. *12th International Research Conference in Service Management*, França.

Munzel, A., Kunz, W. H., & Jahn, B. (2017). Serving in a social media world: How to react online to negative word of mouth. *SSRN Electronic Journal*. Retrieved from https://ssrn.com/abstract=2898312. doi: 10.2139/ssrn.2898312

Noort, G. Van, & Willemsen, L. M. (2012). Online damage control: the effects of proactive versus reactive webcare interventions in consumer-generated and brand-generated platforms. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, *26*(3), 131-140. doi: 10.1016/j.intmar.2011.07.001

Roberts, P. W., & Dowling, G. R. (2002). Corporate reputation and sustained superior financial performance. *Strategic Management Journal*, *23*(12), 1077-1093. doi: 10.1002/smj.274

Statista. (2018). Number of monthly active Facebook users worldwide as of 2nd quarter 2017.

Siomkos, G. J., & Kurzbard, G. (1994). The hidden crisis in product harm crisis management. *European Journal of Marketing*, *28*(2), 30-41.

Sparks, B. A., & Bradley, G. L. (2014). A "Triple A" typology of responding to negative consumer-generated online reviews. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, *41*(6), 719-745. doi: 10.1177/1096348014538052

Sundaram, D. S., Mitra, K., & Webster, C. (1998). Word-of-Mouth Communications: A motivational analysis. In J. W Alba, & J. W. Hutchinson, Advances in consumer research. 25, eds. Joseph W. Alba & J. Wesley Hutchinson, Provo, UT : Association for Consumer Research, 527-531.

VanMeter, R. A., Grisaffe, D. B., & Chonko, L. B. (2015). Of "likes" and "pins": The effects of consumers' attachment to social media. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, *32*, 70-88. doi: 10.1016/j.intmar.2015.09.001

Waiguny, M. K., Kniesel, H., & Diehl, S. (2014). Is it worth responding? The effect of different response strategies on the attitude toward the reviewed hotel. *International Conference on Research in Advertising*, Netherlands, 1-13.

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

Wilson, A. E., Giebelhausen, M. D., & Brady, M. K. (2017). Negative word of mouth can be a positive for consumers connected to the brand. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *45*(4), 534-547. doi: 10.1007/s11747-017-0515-z

Xie, K. L., Zhang, Z., Zhang, Z., Singh, A., & Lee, S. K. (2016). Effects of managerial response on consumer eWOM and hotel performance: Evidence from TripAdvisor. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *28*(9), 2013-2034. doi: 10.1108/IJCHM-06-2015-0290

Zhu, Y., & Chen, H. (2015). Social media and human need satisfaction: Implications for social media marketing. *Business Horizons*, *58*, 335-345. doi: 10.1016/j.bushor.2015.01.006

AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

The authors declare that they contributed equally in the conceptu-alization and theoretical-methodological approach, the theoretical review (literature survey), as well as data analysis, and finally, writing and final review the article. The data collection was realized by first author.

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

ARTICLE

Submitted 02.27.2019. Approved 07.12.2019
Evaluated through a double-blind review process. Guest Scientific Editors: Maria Carolina Zanette
Translated version
DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/S0034-759020200106

CRAFT AND COMMERCIAL DIMENSION IN CONSTRUCTING A BEER MARKET

Dimensões artesanal e massificada na construção do mercado cervejeiro

Dimensiones Artesanal y Comercial en la Construcción del Mercado Cervecero

ABSTRACT

Recent studies have shown that market construction is a dynamic process involving multiple actors in hegemonic and alternative positions. To understand the interconnection of these positions, the study aims to analyze how the dynamics of configuration and reconfiguration of a market frame the hegemonic and alternative positions in a multidimensional system. Using an interpretative approach, we examine the Southern Brazil (Rio Grande do Sul state) brewing market to describe the interconnection of craft (alternative) and mass (hegemonic) dimensions. We observe a constant process of overflowing and realignment of tensions and practices that enable the coexistence of different dimensions. Results allow theorizing about a specific type of connection—covalent—between the multiple market dimensions, in which the practices of actors repel and attract both dimensions constantly, without definitive stabilization around a single dimension.

KEYWORDS | Market dynamics, market practice, market dimensions, covalent bonds, beer.

RESUMO

Estudos recentes têm evidenciado que a construção de mercados é um processo dinâmico gerado por múltiplos atores em posições hegemônicas e alternativas. Buscando compreender a interligação dessas posições, o estudo tem como objetivo analisar como as dinâmicas de configuração e reconfiguração de um mercado resultam num enquadramento das posições hegemônicas e alternativas em um sistema multidimensional. Por meio de uma abordagem interpretativa, toma-se o mercado cervejeiro do Rio Grande do Sul como contexto para analisar a interligação das dimensões artesanal (alternativa) e massificada (hegemônica). Identifica-se um processo constante de transbordamento e realinhamento das tensões e práticas capaz de preservar a coexistência das diferentes dimensões. Os resultados permitem teorizar sobre uma forma distinta de ligação entre as dimensões de um mercado, denominada covalente, na qual as práticas desempenhadas por atores repelem e atraem ambas as dimensões constantemente, sem que ocorra a estabilização definitiva em torno de uma única dimensão.

PALAVRAS-CHAVE | *Dinâmicas de mercado, práticas de mercado, dimensões do mercado, ligações covalentes, cerveja.*

RESUMEN

Estudios recientes han evidenciado que la construcción de mercados es un proceso dinámico generado por múltiples actores en posiciones hegemónicas y alternativas. Buscando comprender la interconexión de esas posiciones, esta investigación tiene como objetivo analizar cómo las dinámicas de configuración y reconfiguración de un mercado resultan en un encuadramiento de las posiciones hegemónicas y alternativas en un sistema multidimensional. Por medio de un enfoque interpretativo, se toma el mercado cervecero del sur de Brasil (estado de Rio Grande do Sul) como contexto para analizar la interconexión de las dimensiones artesanal (alternativa) y masificada (hegemónica). Se identifica un proceso constante de desbordamiento y realineamiento de tensiones y prácticas capaz de preservar la coexistencia de las diferentes dimensiones. Los resultados permitieron teorizar sobre una forma distinta de conexión entre las dimensiones de un mercado –llamada covalente– en la cual las prácticas desempeñadas por actores repelen y atraen ambas dimensiones constantemente, sin que se produzca la estabilización definitiva en torno a una sola dimensión.

PALABRAS CLAVE | *Dinámicas de mercado, Prácticas de mercado, Dimensiones del mercado, vínculos covalentes, cerveza.*

MARLON DALMORO[1]
marlon.dalmoro@univates.br
ORCID: 0000-0002-6211-0905

GUILHERME FELL[1]
gvfell@universo.univates.br
ORCID: 0000-0002-5193-0289

[1] Universidade do Vale do Taquari, Centro de Gestão Organizacional, Lajeado, RS, Brazil

 CC BY

INTRODUCTION

The construction of markets has been described as a process involving different agents (Dolbec & Fischer, 2015; Scaraboto & Fischer, 2013) who can shape a new socio-material structure (Callon, 1998; Martin & Schouten, 2014). Understanding this process involves recognizing the dynamics that constantly configure and reconfigure a market (Giesler & Fischer, 2017). For example, in their study on the organic food market, Thompson and Coskuner-Balli (2007) found that, inasmuch as these food products are an alternative option to conventional foods, they tend to be co-opted by the hegemonic market, unless the alternative dimension is reconfigured into a new market with different practices, meanings and ideologies. In turn, Martin and Schouten (2014) noted that the configuration of an alternative socio-technical structure created a new dimension in the motorcycle market, called minimotos. However, in the case described by Martin and Schouten (2014), the alternative dimension does not conflict with the hegemonic dimension, and is intentionally subsumed into it. A similar phenomenon has been identified in other studies on the fashion (Dolbec & Fischer, 2015; Scaraboto & Fischer, 2013), beer (Kjeldgaard, Askegaard, Rasmussen, & Østergaard, 2017) and restaurant (Weijo, Martin, & Arnould, 2018) markets.

These studies reveal that market construction involves emerging and hegemonic dimensions which give them a multidimensional character. Considering the demand for understanding the market as a complex relational system (Giesler & Fischer, 2017), just as important as describing the oppositions and co-optations that result in new markets or in emerging dimensions being subsumed by the hegemonic market, is recognizing processes that preserve this multidimensionality. The reason for this is that understanding about markets is based on describing either its mainstream side, its architecture (Fligstein, 2002), practices (Kjellberg & Helgesson, 2007) and actors (Callon, 1986), or the counterculture in terms of resistance (Thompson & Coskuner-Balli, 2007) and constraints (Hietanen & Rokka, 2015). Few studies describe the connection between both sides and, especially, how they can coexist and preserve their multiple dimensions.

In view of the above, the present study aims to analyze how a market's configuration and reconfiguration dynamics can result in framing hegemonic and alternative positions into a multidimensional market system. To that end, it is necessary to understand markets beyond a twofold exchange mechanism (a buyer and a seller), thereby recognizing a set of practices performed by a network of actors that result in the active modeling of supply and forms of consumption (Araujo, Finch & Kjellberg, 2010; Callon, 2016; Kjellberg & Helgesson, 2007). These practices consist of temporary and imaginary frames directly linked to the context in which they emerge. We therefore chose the beer market in the Brazilian state of Rio Grande do Sul as the context of our study. This market has relevant characteristics, given its historical construction based on a series of changes arising from the acquisition of local breweries by hegemonic business groups in the 1990's (Morado, 2009). In addition, Rio Grande do Sul is the state with the largest number of breweries in Brazil (Marcusso & Müller, 2019), which is due to the rise of a local craft beer scene (Cruz, Fonseca, & Castilhos, 2017).

This allows identifying the constitution of two distinct dimensions, one hegemonic and designated as mass production – characterized by beers produced on a large scale, using additives to reduce costs and speed up production processes – and another, alternative one called artisanal – characterized by a production process that is free of additives and slower in terms of brewing and maturation, which values the master brewer and is therefore sold on a smaller scale (Corazza, 2011). Unlike the concept of segments that predominates in the managerial marketing literature, market dimensionality is not limited to managerial practices of framing consumers within established groups; rather, it consists in a dynamic process of framing and reframing the entire market, its multiple actors and practices. Specifically, dimensionality allows identifying a particular form of connection between the multiple market dimensions which is called covalent connection, in which the dimensions coexist without stabilizing around the hegemonic dimension. In the following chapters, we detail the theoretical and empirical aspects evoked in this introduction.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Historically, market studies have sought to describe markets beyond a structural and functional model and have recognized the social and cultural aspects involved in their formation (Polanyi, 1957; Slater & Tonkiss, 2001). In spite of its difficult conceptualization, a market can be defined as a configuration of interdependent actors that dynamically and performatively shape practices and objects by means of trade (Araujo et al., 2010; Giesler & Fischer, 2017). The description of how this configuration is socially built has been more consistently sought by two main theoretical sets. The first of these, which is affiliated with the stream of studies known as Consumer Culture Theory (CCT) (for details, see Casotti & Suarez, 2016), recognizes markets as dynamic systems and highlights the role of consumers in building

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

and reconfiguring markets (Giesler & Fischer, 2017). The other one, which is known as Constructivist Market Studies (CMS), seeks to describe how actors with heterogeneous roles perform practices that constantly shape and reshape markets (Araujo et al., 2010; Harrison & Kjellberg, 2016). In common, the two perspectives recognize that different actors dynamically configure and reconfigure markets according to their hegemonic or alternative position, as detailed below.

The hegemonic and alternative sides in market building

Albeit recent, studies describing markets as dynamic systems have highlighted countercultural processes that are inherently opposed to mainstream market development (Hietanen & Rokka, 2015). Thompson and Coskuner-Balli (2007), for example, have recognized, in the case of community-supported agriculture (CSA), a trade process contrary to the one prevailing in food purchasing. By building an alternative food exchange network, consumers take on an ideological battle to escape co-optation by major retail chains. In turn, Press, Arnould, Murray and Strand (2014) expanded these findings by demonstrating that not only consumers but also producers take on alternative ideological positions.

In exploring the fashion context, Scaraboto and Fischer (2013) demonstrated a contrary process in which consumers acted to legitimize an alternative dimension (fashion standards that differ from those established by the fashion industry) within the hegemonic market. In detailing the role of consumers in forming a socio-material structure of markets, Martin and Schouten (2014) described the emergence a minimoto market in the US and how this alternative dimension was subsumed into the network of actors responsible for building it within the hegemonic dimension. In another context, Weijo et al. (2018) identified the goal of those who organize the Restaurant Day festival in Finland, i.e., to make the Nordic restaurant market rules more flexible by creating an alternative dimension. This alternative dimension has a temporary, ephemeral character that is limited to the scope of its goals.

By revealing ideological and institutionalization processes of alternative dimensions in the market, these studies reinforce markets' multidimensional character. Even if ephemerally, these dimensions are built as the result of a network of actors engaged in practices that constantly configure and reconfigure markets (Hietanen & Rokka 2015). Understanding these practices involves, according to Kjellberg and Helgesson (2007), recognizing three types: a) exchange practices – these involve conducting individual operations through economic exchanges; b) normative practices – through the formulation and reformulation of rules and norms regarding the behavior of actors in the market and how it should work; and c) representational practices – which can constitute the market's semiotic structure and the distinctions that shape a specific market..

Thus, the market practices model proposed by Kjellberg and Helgesson (2007) is useful to show how the process of constitution of this market multidimensionality occurs. This is clearly shown by the study of Hietanen and Rokka (2015), who used this model to describe the construction of an alternative dimension from constraint practices that oppose the expansion practices that predominate in the electronic music market. However, while previous studies recognize the market's multidimensionality, it is necessary to understand how these dimensions are constituted within a given market.

Translations in the dynamics of markets

The description of market interaction processes has found in Actor-Network Theory (ANT) (Latour, 2005) a powerful instrument, especially based on the studies of Callon (1986). In line with plane ontological concepts (DeLanda, 2006), ANT seeks to describe the relationship between subjects and objects within a specific field (market). Its merit lies especially in its ability to uncover social relationships and associations by describing institutions, procedures and practices. To that end, it maps controversies and boundaries in the relationship between the distinct actors forming a network of relationships and objects (Latour, 2005).

Such mapping allows describing the process of translation between groups, i.e., the way networks of relationships and objects become "stable" in the face of markets' fluidity and multiplicity (Callon, 1986, 2016). Translation consists of all displacements between actors, and in such displacements actors change, displace and translate their various, contradictory interests, in both symbolic and material terms (Tonelli, 2016). Thus, while translation involves movements generated by actors, it also transforms actors through their interactions (Callon, 1986). However, it is important to understand that translation is not limited to a connection of actors or a network of actors; rather, it is a connection that induces different elements to coexist by assigning them characteristics that can establish (more or less) stable relationships between the elements (Callon, 2016).

In this process, translations cause a flow of frames and overflows. Framing is understood as a process of establishing boundaries within which interactions between agents, objects and structures take shape (Callon, 1998). The frame is not

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

dependent on actors' instrumental and economic rationality; rather, it is a process rooted in the physical and organizational devices and laden with imperfections and failures (Araujo *et al.*, 2010; Callon, 1998). From this arise overflows, i.e., negative or positive externalities resulting from imperfections in the frames (Callon, 1998). Overflows can be involuntarily or intentionally generated in function of actors' reflexive motion (Leme & Resende, 2017).

Based on this, the theoretical proposal presented in this study recognizes markets as a dynamic system in which actors' practices (Kjellberg & Helgesson, 2007) cause constant overflowing and reframing (Callon, 1998, 2016). However, we suggest, in particular, that the translations resulting from this process do not necessarily reconfigure new markets (as Leme & Resende, 2017; Martin & Schouten, 2014, among others, have also found), but rather new dimensions that connect to each other within a single market while preserving its multidimensional character.

METHOD

The construction of this study's empirical plan started from an interpretative gaze interested in understanding the construction of the beer market in the state of Rio Grande do Sul. In line with other studies (Cruz et al., 2017; Kjeldgaard et al., 2017), the beer market is here understood as the set of meanings and practices organized around beer and involving a market conjuncture and its historical changes. Moreover, in defining this market as a study context, we took into account the possibility of delimiting symbolic boundaries and the movements occurring within them (Dalmoro & Nique, 2017). Thus, the beer market in this state has particular features, initially at the margin of the process through which the national beer market took form, then moving towards incorporation into the national market, with the creation of Companhia de Bebidas das Americas (Ambev) in 1999 (Morado, 2009). This movement is complemented by that of craft beer producers pursuing local leadership (Cruz et al., 2017). Thus, Rio Grande do Sul is characterized by being the state with the largest number of breweries in Brazil (186), which demonstrates the relevance of this market in the national scenario (Marcusso & Müller, 2019). This scenario, which involves a group of large, established companies and the emergence of numerous craft breweries, has allowed to clearly identify two distinct positions: the large national beer industry, which forms a nucleus where few actors control most of the market through large-scale distribution, and which is called in this study the mass production dimension; (b) local breweries forming a nucleus with a multitude of small-scale actors, which are here called the artisanal dimension.

In analyzing this context, we were guided by process theorization (Giesler & Thompson, 2016). More specifically, the empirical work was conducted following a transformative perspective, i.e., it involved understanding events, activities and perceptions that reveal interconnections, demands and influences in the market configuration. The transformative perspective was found to be appropriate for this study as it focuses on variations over a process which are able to break the structure's inertia, yet are not strong enough to cause a rupture in the structure (Giesler & Thompson, 2016). Such variations do not aim to provide a historical chronology, but rather understand events that bring about market transformations. This theorization derives from a set of events which can confer a narrative and symbolic contours on the process (Giesler & Thompson, 2016).

Once we defined the context and the interpretative perspective, we conducted an immersion in this cultural field by means of two steps in order to explore the two dimensions and the movements of both groups of actors within and between these dimensions. The first step took place mostly from March to June 2017 and aimed to collect netnographic data by: a) monitoring virtual spaces that address the subject, such as blogs and vlogs; b) monitoring and participating in discussions on social networks (Facebook and a WhatsApp group) of the Association of Craft Brewers of Rio Grande do Sul (ACervA Gaúcha); c) building and analyzing a database (about 300Mb) with news stories, documents, government reports, books and scientific articles about the beer market around the world and in Brazil. Netnographic data were collected by the second author, and the observations were recorded in diaries and shared between the authors. It is important to note that the first author had no prior knowledge of the subject, while the second author had an artisanal producer's viewpoint (small production for own consumption). Data obtained in this first phase had a macro character, i.e., they helped us build an analytical logic and produce meaning about the market configuration (Giesler & Thompson, 2016).

The second step involved in-depth interviews. To that end, a semi-structured script was designed with 15 questions organized around three central subjects: a) an overview of the interviewees – "grand tour" (McCracken 1988); b) perceptions about beer production and consumption practices; and c) conflicts between the industrial and artisanal production models. The selection of respondents started with a person connected to ACervA Gaúcha. We then used the "snowball sample" technique in order to reach people with different profiles (artisanal producers, managers

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

and master brewers at large breweries, and market experts). By the tenth interview, the researchers found evidence of data saturation (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) as respondents' explanations were providing similar arguments. In order to confirm this, an additional interview was conducted, thus totaling 11 interviews of about 50 minutes each. Exhibit 1 describes the profile of each interviewee.

Exhibit 1. **Description of interviewees**

Name	Time of involvement with the market	Type of involvement
Gustavo	20 years	Master Brewer, Microbrewery Owner
Olívio	35 years	Master Brewer, Microbrewery Owner
Michael	30 years	Master Brewer, Microbrewery Owner
Sandro	35 years	Consultant, Judgement Committee Member and Master Brewer
Marco	20 years	Brewery Distributor, Consumer
Bregon	25 years	Brewery Partner and Director
Mário	17 years	Member of Acerva Estrela, Craft Brewer
Djonathan	7 years	Consumer, Craft Brewer
Branco	7 years	*YouTuber* (channel on beer), Craft Brewer
Paolo	5 years	Brewery Owner
Edson	3 years	Consumer, Craft Brewery Owner

Data obtained in the second phase had a micro character, i.e., they described mostly the interviewees' perceptions and experiences in the market. Once we finished that phase, we examined articles and news stories in our database in order to check the consistency of respondents' accounts – for example: accuracy about dates and the relevance of narrated events. This procedure was also useful to confirm the interconnection between the events identified in the macro analysis (e.g., the acquisition of local breweries by Ambev) and the micro-level perceptions provided by respondents (e.g., the meanings the actors attributed to these acquisitions). According to Giesler and Thompson (2016), the combination of micro and macro data provides a rich and varied empirical basis for theorizing the process.

Data analysis and interpretation followed the premise that data not only express interviewees' views, but they also articulate the cultural system (beer market) of which interviewees are part (Thompson, 1997). To that end, we adopted the category analysis technique (Lofland & Lofland, 2015) and used the Nvivo software. The first author coded the interviews with terms that identify emerging, common narratives. The emerging codes were then reviewed in light of the netnographic data and were discussed between the authors in order to identify a sequence of key events. Later, data were grouped so as to form three categories: a) the beer market framing; b) dynamics of (re)configuration of an alternative dimension; and c) consequences of the market dynamics. Finally, we identified in each category the description of exchange, normative and representational practices (Kjellberg & Helgesson, 2007), as well as oppositions involving the multiple dimensions identified in the market.

DATA ANALYSIS

The first step in analyzing data involved identifying the frame that shapes the market. Starting from a historical construction, the beer market has been characterized by multinational companies associating with national companies to form large conglomerates (Ambev, Heineken and Cervejaria Petrópolis) that account for producing and selling 98% of the beer consumed in the country (Cervieri, 2017). This production is predominantly formed by Pilsen beer, following an international standard of light beers with less malt complemented by unmalted cereals which, besides reducing production costs, results in a product that is lighter and more suitable to the taste of the population at large (Oliver, 2012). In addition, large brewers have a wide distribution and promotion system that can reach about 1.2 million points of sale, thereby marketing 13.3 billion liters of beer per year (Cervieri, 2017). These figures make Brazil the third largest beer market in the world in terms of volume and revenues (Marcusso & Müller, 2019) and this underscores a mass production, hegemonic dimension in the beer market.

However, this scenario involves boundaries and controversies (Latour, 2005) due to the creation of new breweries. According to Marcusso and Müller (2019), in 2010, there were 266 breweries registered in Brazil; by 2018, that number had grown to 889. These are basically microbreweries, brewpubs and regional breweries targeting local markets, producing different types of beer than Pilsen and focusing on the experience of consumption and quality (Lapoli, 2019). These characteristics allow establishing a clear boundary between the mass production dimension and this emergent one which is recognized as artisanal (Lapoli, 2019). The artisanal dimension shows an average growth

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

of 15% per year, while mass production beer consumption has remained stable or seen some decrease (Instituto da Cerveja, 2016; Lapoli, 2019). The explanation for this may be found in the emergence of a particular type of consumer called the "artisanal consumer", who can apply skills and passions in the search for products developed and made by the same person as a form of reaction to the standardization of those mass-produced ones (Campbell, 2005).

Therefore, the beer market can be described as comprehending an evident hegemonic dimension associated with large, mass production companies, and an alternative dimension associated to the emergent artisanal production. Based on this multidimensional framing, we will next detail the process of configuration and reconfiguration of both dimensions in the beer market in the state of Rio Grande do Sul.

Dynamics of configuration of a new dimension in the market

Commercial beer production in Rio Grande do Sul was marked by the influence of German immigration on recipes and inputs. Regional companies valued malt, which resulted in full-bodied beers, such as SerraMalte, which was characterized by an extra amount of malt, and high-fermentation Estrela Stout, produced by Cervejaria Polar. These characteristics resulted in a distinction from the rest of the country where low-fermentation beers predominated and were produced on a larger scale with unmalted cereals by national-level players such as Brahma and Antartica (Limberger, 2013). This scenario lasted until the 1990's, when the creation of Ambev reconfigured the local market, starting with the acquisition or merger of different regional brands, as interviewee Olivio describes:

> I worked for 20 years at Polar, in Estrela. It was a company whose essence was to produce quality beer. Not just Polar, we used to have very good beers in our state. There was Serramalte, from Feliz, and Original, in Montenegro. We used to have a lot of options of beer to pick from. When Ambev appeared, that was over... They bought and shut them all. Now, in Viamão, Ambev makes them all: Skol, Polar, Antartica. That changed the scene a lot at the time, because such a unification ended the natural competition between brands (Olívio, a master brewer and microbrewery owner).

The movement of acquisition of local breweries by Ambev as described by interviewee Olivio culminated in the market concentrating around one hegemonic player. The closure of factories also affected consumers in that they ceased to prefer the local production. Interviewee Marco describes this process from this viewpoint as a consumer:

> In the old days, with Polar, people used to say that good beer was produced at Rua Pinheiro Machado, 347 [Polar's address]. We used to be strongly connected to the brand and the product. When that was over, I ended up trying to continue to value local beer, with just a few small factories in the area. Of course, at first, I'd still consume commercial products due to the lack of labels and information. A few years later, my brother started an artisanal brewery and, from then on, I've always consumed artisanal beer (Marco, a beer distributor manager and artisanal beer consumer).

The imperfections and limitations left by the closure of local breweries and the introduction of mass offer caused an overflow, leading local players to seek alternative ways of production and consumption. Interviewee Michael, who works in the beer industry for about 30 years, comments that there was the desire to do something different, of higher quality compared to the standardized product that large breweries began to impose. A network of artisanal brewers was formed whose members were willing to rebuild the established offer standard: "We started the factory initially so we wouldn't have to consume Ambev products anymore. I felt we could once again have good beer around" (Olívio, a master brewer and microbrewery owner).

The interviewers' accounts show that the overflow involved, in this case, rather a willingness to make their own beer within expected quality standards than market conditions per se. The explanation for this may be in the fact that building alternative spaces involves cooperation and activism efforts capable of creating an infrastructure to support and solidify an identity that benefits such spaces (Rao, Morrill, & Zald, 2000). In addition, another relevant characteristic in this process was that the producer and consumer roles were broken (Humphreys & Grayson, 2008), since the interviewees report they were commercial beer consumers, but began to take on the role of producers.

The transformation of such oppositions and overflows into a new dimension involved different practices (Kjellberg & Helgesson, 2007). The first group involved building new exchange

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

practices. Gustavo reports that consumers were not used to consuming any other type of beer than Pilsen:

> In the beginning, we weren't selling any Ale-type beer. The consumer thought that beer was stale as it was bitterer, more full-bodied. We gradually started to launch beer that was more full-bodied such as Brown or Vienna so the consumer would gradually get used to different beer profiles. Over time, the demand for stronger beer increased, and we followed that demand and eventually fostered it (Gustavo, a master brewer and microbrewer owner).

Such lack of knowledge on the consumer's side drove Michael to develop a package that would get consumers' attention, and he bottled his beer into what resembled a medicine bottle. In addition, because it was a product with living yeast in it, when people opened the bottle, they would hear it pop: "I believe it was the first beer that sold through audition... Besides its quality, of course, which has always been superior" (Michael, a master brewer and microbrewery owner). Thus, one can see representational practices being used as a complement to exchange practices as a way of distinguishing artisanal from mass production beer.

In addition, interviewees report that the representational practices performed by both producers and consumers earned estimation for local beer. Master brewer Gustavo stresses that, in the artisanal dimension, brand is not so relevant as a symbolic element, since consumption is guided by a local character. The interviewee sees local as an element that represents superior quality, since it allows knowing where the beverage is produced and having a closer contact with the brewer. In line with the accounts of other interviewees, Gustavo reinforces the master brewer's role in testing raw material, combinations and processes in search of new styles and quality production. Therefore, they are in a position to establish distinct representations for their products in relation to mass production ones.

The interviewees' accounts also refer to normative aspects involved in the practices of artisanal brewers. For them, artisanal production is characterized by following the "law of purity", which means producing pure malt beer, i.e., beer produced from water, malt, hop and yeasts only (Morado, 2009). The interviewees explain that even though Brazilian legislation allows including other inputs – especially unmalted cereals which are largely used in the production of mass-distribution beer – following the "pure malt" rule was necessary to reach a superior quality product. That rule eventually took on the position of mediator (as described by Latour 2005), i.e., it makes it possible for invisible aspects to be named and take on a social meaning, making them "visible" and capable of being disseminated. By following the rule and spreading it in the products' labels, the brewers distinguished themselves from the large breweries that did not follow it.

According to Ebner and Beck (2008), configuring a market involves exchanges between different agents with different interests and perceptions. Thus, in addition to consumers' efforts to support the craft beer market (Koch & Sauerbronn, 2019), the configuration of the craft dimension within the beer market in the state of Rio Grande do Sul involved an overflow and a reframing into two distinct dimensions. In this process, we highlight the practices of local brewers in building this distinction between beer types recognized as mass production and craft beer.

Consequences of the market's multidimensionality

Just like the food market, the construction of an alternative dimension did not configure a change in the hegemonic dimension (Press et al, 2014; Thompson e Coskuner-Balli, 2007). However, while for Press et al. (2014) the explanation lies in the ideological orientation of products, in the case of the market under analysis, the explanation lies in the dominance of the market by a few mass production breweries (Brazilian Micro and Small Business Support Service [Sebrae], 2015). The consequence of that is not an ideological dispute, but rather a re-alignment of different actors around the two dimensions:

> The craft beer market grows exponentially. It develops a lot in the South due to the colder climate and easy access to inputs, and it has bothered large corporations a lot. You see new companies appearing each day with high quality beer. The large corporations have spotted this niche and they bought a few microbreweries (Bregon, a brewery partner and director).

As the interviewee stressed, mass production breweries began to follow the artisanal dimension's dynamics. Two key events related to that occurred when microbreweries Baden and Eisenbahn were bought by the Schincariol group and when Colorado and Wäls, two symbols of the craft scene, were bought by AmBev. However, unlike the cooptation processes which tend to re-align the alternative dimension to the hegemonic one

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

(Thompson e Coskuner-Balli, 2007), in these cases, efforts were made to conceal that connection between the large breweries and the small firms. For Corazza (2011), the purpose of concealing that connection is to keep the acquired companies' frame within the artisanal dimension. To that end, when Cervejaria Colorado's acquisition by Ambev was disclosed, the report stressed that the brewery's founder and recognized master brewer in the craft scene would continue to work in creating new products and ensuring their quality and differentiation. At the same time, the report stressed that Ambev's distribution capacity would expand access to the products, therefore benefiting consumers. As described by Chapman, Lellock and Lippard (2017), the common narrative about artisanal producers is that they do not produce for profit, but rather for the pleasure of making beer, thus becoming symbols of the alternative dimension and capable of lending their trajectories in keeping an alternative discourse.

For the interviewees, the efforts made by large companies to preserve the alternative dimension are explained by their financial gains:

> We (craft beer producers) gave them commercial ones (mass production) the market on a tray. Brahma Extra, Bohemia, Original, those used to sell at 2 reais, along with all the others (Skol, Kaiser, Antarctica, among others). The premium beer niche didn't exist. They all sold at 2 reais. We were selling craft at 7 reais. And we were selling it! So what those guys did, they created a premium beer niche, in between craft and commercial ones. They put into it those Brhamas, Bohemias at 4 reais, making twice as much as they used to. We gave them that possibility. With that difference, Ambev bought Colorado, Wählls. Just with that 2-real variation. That's a terrific deal, isn't it? (Michael, a master brewer and mircrobrewery owner).

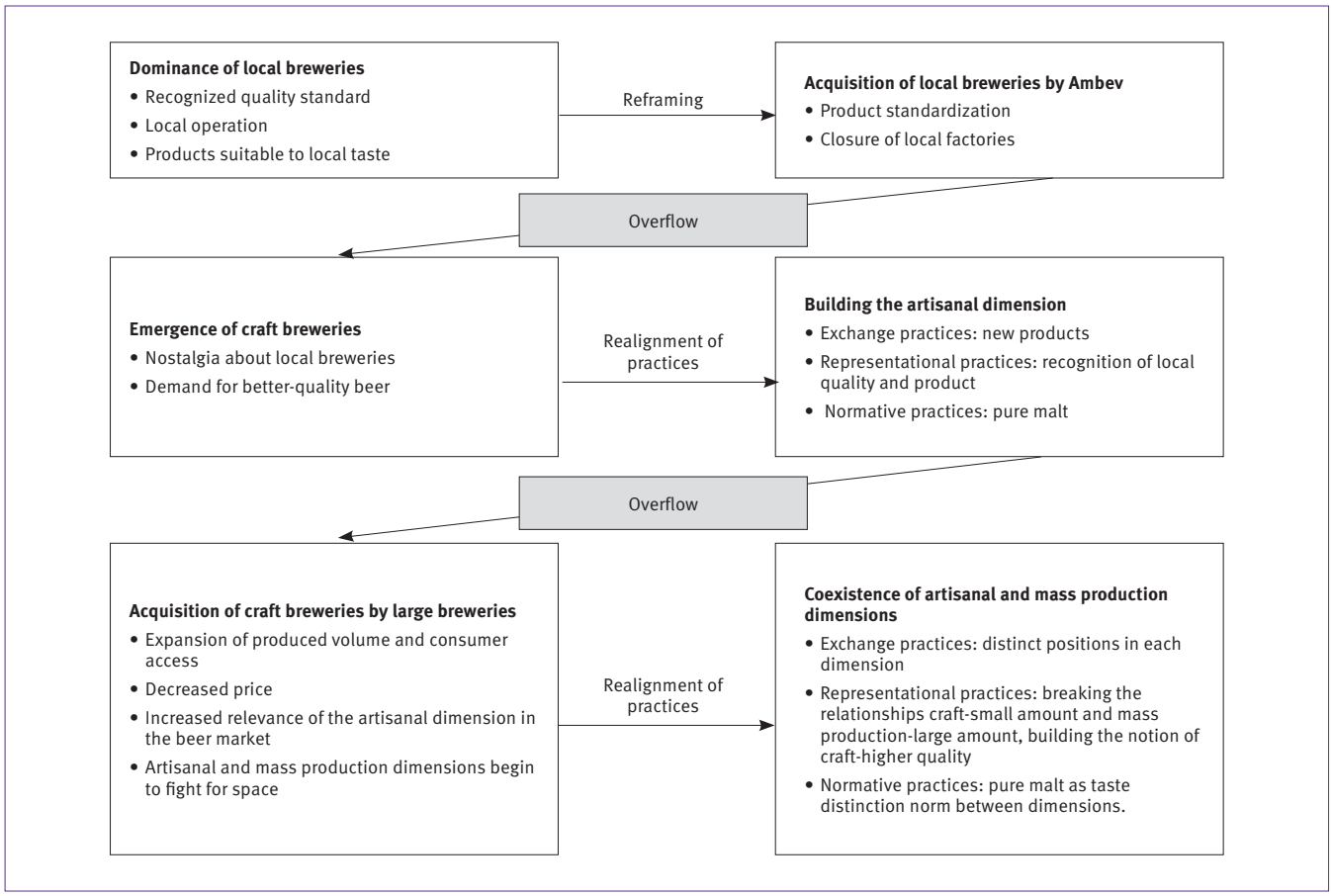
By analyzing industry data, one can see that while the volume of beer sold drops, companies' revenues increase due to the sale of premium and craft beer (Cervieri, 2017). Consumption indicators point that consumers are drinking less – a decrease in per capita consumption – but they are drinking better quality, higher-price products (Koch & Sauerbronn, 2019; Marcusso & Müller, 2019). By aligning their exchange practices within an artisanal dimension, the major breweries end up expanding it by means of price reduction and greater distribution capacity. This exchange expansion process via price reduction and increased competition is evaluated differently among interviewees. While some manifest concern about local breweries' competitiveness, others see a win-win for all actors involved: "Now in the supermarkets, you'll find higher-quality beer at lower prices than a few years ago. I see this popularization of craft beer in a positive way for all market players" (Bregon, a brewery partner and director).

To the interviewees, the central point about preserving the artisanal dimension resides in the representational practices: "The word 'craft' is not clear for either the consumer or the producer. You don't have a clear distinction of what craft beer is, and that makes it difficult to segment the market" (Mário, a craft brewer). In their search for a definition of what "craft beer" stands for, the interviewees evoke the following notion: "It's a lot about the beer maker's soul. Craft is about how you see beer. I think that to be craft, the brewer must be more important than the business department" (Michael, a master brewer and microbrewery owner). Thus, brewery consultant Sandro thinks the entry of large breweries into the artisanal dimension does not represent the end of it, since artisanal is not associated with production volume, but rather with perceived quality and the importance of the master brewer in its production. To him, if large breweries keep the quality standard of craft beers, they will just reinforce the dimension. As Thompson (2004) described, representation is shaped according to a market's competitive characteristics, and it provides meanings and metaphors that serve the agendas of the different actors involved. Thus, the threat of losing the meanings attached to craft beer does not lie in large breweries acquiring craft ones, but in the artisanal dimension's ability to occupy a relevant space in the market's competitive dynamics.

Market space occupation by the artisanal dimension also involves normative practices of consumption of craft beer via taste adequation. To microbrewery owner Michael, consumers have changed their habits especially due to the dissemination of the "pure malt" rule and the quality standard resulting from it. By having contact with craft beer, they were instigated into a transformation of the taste, as stressed by craft brewer Djonathan: "The first time I consumed it (craft beer), I was automatically comparing it with the beer I had been consuming. I felt great quality difference, and now I consume craft beer only". As Carroll and Swaminathan (2000) observed, in the beer market, mass and craft producers act in establishing quality markers by mobilizing resources of taste. The "pure malt" rule is mobilized to educate the consumer and defy the perceptions formed in the mass production dimension; it is mobilized both by craft breweries and large breweries as they launch new products that comply with that rule. By way of summary, Figure 1 represents the practices identified within a flow of overflow and realignment.

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

Figure 1. **Configuration and reconfiguration dynamics of the beer market in the state of Rio Grande do Sul**



DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

Firstly, our results allow understanding the overflow of the beer market in the state of Rio Grande do Sul based on key events related to the acquisition and closure of local breweries by Ambev. These events worked like forces that caused market structures to move towards a multidimensional market scenario. However, the re-alignment of market practices did not result in the emergence of a new market, as described by Martin and Schouten (2014), or in these practices being subsumed by the market's hegemonic side, as described by Dolbec e Fischer (2015). What stands out in this case is that the overflows and re-framings which, according to previous studies (Callon, 2016; Leme & Resende, 2017), should cause market destabilization caused instead coexistence by means of representational and normative exchange practices capable of ensuring a distinction between the alternative and the hegemonic dimension. Thus, this multidimensionality is not due to market stabilization, but rather to the set of practices which can preserve that characteristic, even in presence of the constant reconfigurations that define the markets' dynamic character.

Based on the above, our results reveal how multiple market dimensions can coexist without necessarily being co-opted by the hegemonic dimension. Recent studies observed that actors' efforts to build a countercultural dimension tend to run out of steam as it becomes legitimized in hegemonic groups (Scaraboto & Fischer, 2013; Weijo et al., 2018). In rare cases, these actors need to develop an ideological battle to avoid co-optation and create a new market based on completely distinct exchange mechanisms, as with community-supported agriculture (Thompson e Coskuner-Balli, 2007). With the beer market under analysis, the multiple dimensions operate in a process of attraction and repulsion: while the emergence of an alternative dimension attracts hegemonic actors' attention, the configuration of the artisanal dimension requires them to change a few practices in order to enter the artisanal dimension. That generates repulsion between both dimensions due to the realignment of practices in a specific way in each dimension, thus reinforcing their differences.

The explanation for this lies primarily in the gains that the coexistence of multiple dimensions provides both for the actors

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

originally linked to the hegemonic dimension and for the actors linked to the alternative dimension. In addition, unlike the food market described by Press et al. (2014), which requires actors to take on an ideological position in one or the other dimension, in the beer market, actors can circulate in both dimensions by adopting specific practices in each of them. That is because the distinction operates in the market's non-human sphere, i.e., in its materiality – craft beer versus mass production beer – rather than at the level of human and organizational actors and their ideology.

Based on these findings, we propose a new metaphor to describe the connection between market dimensions. Using the notion of covalent bond – which describes a particular bond between electrons in exact sciences (Lewis, 1916), we propose to describe a connection process in which one market can share a few practices while preserving other distinct ones. This differs from the previously observed form connection in which the realignment of practices causes them to be subsumed by hegemonic market producers (Thompson & Coskuner-Balli, 2007), consumers (Scaraboto & Fischer, 2013) and organizations (Martin & Schouten, 2014; Kjeldgaard et al., 2017), thus eliminating the initial distinction.

In line with Callon's (2016) view, the covalent bond between different dimensions configures a common market by sharing the same platform, which is identified through the beer product. The translation processes (Tonelli, 2016) between dimensions causes the connection of elements that produce market reality. Each actor, even though operating in more than one dimension, is responsible for bringing these elements in a distinct manner into each dimension with their own practices. These practices, albeit capable of ensuring the distinction between the markets, are not capable of changing the reality of the market as a whole.

The covalent bond metaphor can be observed in other markets that have an emerging dimension built from differentiation through quality, rather than quantity. We can use as an example the hamburger market in which companies operating in the mass production dimension have been trying to move around the artisanal dimension as seen with McDonald's, which has been recently trying to develop products closer to those offered by craft burger shops (Dearo, 2019). However, in the case of markets where distinction in production processes is not possible – e.g., organic food sold in street markets or in large supermarket chains – there is a tendency to present forms of traditional connection, thus resulting in the conventionalizaton of alternative products and brands (Lockie & Halpin, 2005) and their co-optation by the hegemonic dimension (Thompson & Coskuner-Balli, 2007).

FINAL CONSIDERATIONS

By proposing a new way of understanding the dynamics of market framing and reframing within a logic of multidimensionality, this study contributes to the notion of a dynamic market system (Giesler & Fischer, 2017) and to the constructivist perspective to markets (Araujo et al., 2010). Thus, at the same time as it identifies actors' role and agency in configuring multiple dimensions, it recognizes the consequences thereof in structuring markets. Therefore, it contributes to the complex task of understanding markets while opening avenues for new studies.

As we reveal the boundaries and controversies that shape market multidimensionality, doubts remain about the sharing between dimensions. It also becomes important to detail the relationship between the human and non-human elements that form each of these dimensions. Thus, the idea of entanglement – a concept from exact sciences which recognizes an interconnection between objects and people so that each of these cannot be correctly described without mentioning its counterpart (Hodder, 2012) – could help describe objects' description and influence on the formation of each dimension. In the case of the beer market, material elements such as malt and label configure distinct positions within the network. Future studies can emphasize these elements in understanding market multidimensionality.

From the viewpoint of context, the consequences of the process of acquisition of craft breweries by large breweries still require clarification, especially in describing how craft breweries can remain competitive, considering large breweries' ability to incorporate practices from the artisanal dimension. The construction of discourses disseminated in the artisanal dimension can also be detailed to involve especially the construction of craft beer identity. This allows recognizing not only the dynamic processes of market construction, but also the concrete elements that establish, sustain and change these market shaping dimensions.

NOTE

This article was presented at the VIII Encontro de Marketing in 2018, promoted by the National Association of Postgraduation and Research in Administration (Associação Nacional de Pós-Graduação e Pesquisa em Administração [ANPAD]), Brazil, and under the responsibility of the Academic Marketing Division.

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

REFERENCES

Araujo, L., Finch, J., & Kjellberg, H. (2010). *Reconnecting marketing to markets*. London, UK: Oxford University Press.

Callon, M. (1986). The sociology of an actor-network: The case of the electric vehicle. In M. Callon, Law. J., & Rip, A. (Eds.), *Mapping the dynamics of science and technology* (pp. 19-34). London, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Callon, M. (1998). Introduction: The embeddedness of economic markets in economics. *The Sociological Review*, *46*(1), 1-57. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-954X.1998.tb03468.x

Callon, M. (2016). Revisiting marketizations: From interface-markets to market-agencements. *Consumption Markets & Culture*, *1*(19), 17-37. doi: 10.1080/10253866.2015.1067002

Campbell, C. (2005). The craft consumer: Culture, craft and consumption in a postmodern society. *Journal of Consumer Culture*, *5*(1), 23-42. doi: 10.1177/1469540505049843

Carroll, G. R., & Swaminathan, A. (2000). Why the microbrewery movement? Organizational dynamics of resource partitioning in the US brewing industry. *American Journal of Sociology*, *106*(3), 715-762. doi: 10.1086/318962

Casotti, L. M., & Suarez, M. C. (2016). Dez anos de consumer culture theory: Delimitações e aberturas. *RAE-Revista de Administração de Empresas*, *56*(3), 353-359. doi: 10.1590/S0034-759020160308

Cervieri, O., Jr. (2017). Panoramas setoriais 2030: Bebidas. *Panoramas Setoriais 2030: Desafios e oportunidades para o Brasil* (pp. 69-78). Rio de Janeiro, RJ: Banco Nacional de Desenvolvimento Econômico e Social.

Chapman, N. G., Lellock, J. S., & Lippard, C. D. (2017). *Untapped: Exploring the cultural dimensions of craft beer*. Morgantown, USA: West Virginia University Press.

Corazza, R. M. (2011). *A expansão recente das cervejarias artesanais no contexto de alta concentração de mercado de cerveja no Brasil*. Campinas, SP: Instituto de Economia-Unicamp.

Cruz, R. C., Fonseca, M. J., & Castilhos, R. B. (2017). Consumption and market formation: A study about the microbreweries of Porto Alegre. *XLI EnANPAD*, São Paulo, SP.

Dalmoro, M., & Nique, W. M. (2017). Tradição mercantilizada: Construção de mercados baseados na tradição. *Revista de Administração Contemporânea*, *21*(3), 327-346. doi: 10.1590/1982-7849rac2017160047

Dearo, G. (2019). *McDonald's lança cinco novas versões do Big Mac no mercado brasileiro*. Recuperado de https://exame.abril.com.br/marketing/mcdonalds-lanca-cinco-novas-versoes-do-big-mac-no-mercado-brasileiro/

DeLanda, M. (2006). *A new philosophy of society: Assemblage theory and social complexity*. London, UK: Continuum.

Dolbec, P., & Fischer, E. (2015). Refashioning a field? Connected consumers and institutional dynamics in markets. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *41*(6), 1447-1468. doi: 10.1086/680671

Ebner, A., & Beck, N. (2008). *The institutions of market: Organizations, social systems and governance*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Giesler, M., & Fischer, E. (2017). Market system dynamics. *Marketing Theory*, *17*(1), 3-8. doi: /10.1177/1470593116657908

Giesler, M., & Thompson, C. J. (2016). A tutorial in consumer research: Process theorization in cultural consumer research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *43*(4), 497-508. doi: 10.1093/jcr/ucw047

Fligstein, N. (2002). *The architecture of markets: An economic sociology of twenty-first-century capitalist societies*. Princeton, USA: Princeton University Press.

Harrison, D., & Kjellberg, H. (2016). How users shape markets. *Marketing Theory*, *16*(4), 445-468. doi: 10.1177/1470593116652004

Hietanen, J., & Rokka, J. (2015). Market practices in countercultural market emergence. *European Journal of Marketing*, *49*(9/10), 1563-1588. doi: 10.1108/EJM-02-2014-0066

Hodder, I. (2012). *Entangled: An archaeology of the relationships between humans and things*. Chichester, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.

Humphreys, A., & Grayson, K. (2008). The intersecting roles of consumer and producer: A critical perspective on co–production, co–creation and prosumption. *Sociology Compass*, *2*(3), 963-980. doi: 10.1111/j.1751-9020.2008.00112.x

Instituto da Cerveja. (2016). *Cervejarias artesanais no Brasil*. Recuperado de https://www.institutodacerveja.com.br/blog/n113/novidades/cervejarias-artesanais-no-brasil

Kjeldgaard, D., Askegaard, S., Rasmussen, J. Ø., & Østergaard, P. (2017). Consumers' collective action in market system dynamics: A case of beer. *Marketing Theory*, *17*(1), 51-70. doi: 10.1177/1470593116658197

Kjellberg, H., & Helgesson, C. (2007). On the nature of markets and their practices. *Marketing Theory*, *7*(2), 137-162. doi: 10.1177/1470593107076862

Koch, E. S., & Sauerbronn, J. F. (2019). To love beer above all things: An analysis of Brazilian craft beer subculture of consumption. *Journal of Food Products Marketing*, *25*(1), 1-25.

Lapoli, C. (2019). *Mercado da cerveja*. Recuperado de http://pages.abracerva.com.br/documento-mercado-da-cerveja

Latour, B. (2005). *Reassembling the social: An introduction to actor-network-theory*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Leme, P. H. M. V., & Resende, D. C. (2017). Práticas de mercado e a construção de mercados: Análise dos cafés certificados e sustentáveis da Utz Certified no Brasil. *XLI EnANPAD*, São Paulo, SP.

Lewis, G. N. (1916). The atom and the molecule. *Journal of the American Chemical Society*, *38*(4), 762-785.

Limberger, S. C. (2013). O setor cervejeiro no Brasil: Gênese e evolução. *CaderNAU*, *6*(1), 1-17.

Lockie, S., & Halpin, D. (2005). The 'conventionalisation'thesis reconsidered: Structural and ideological transformation of Australian organic agriculture. *Sociologia Ruralis*, *45*(4), 284-307. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9523.2005.00306.x

Lofland, J., & Lofland, L. H. (2015). *Analyzing social settings* (3a ed.). Belmont, USA: Wadsworth.

Marcusso, E. F., & Müller, C. V. (2019). *Anuário da cerveja no Brasil 2018: Crescimento e inovação*. Recuperado de http://www.agricultura.gov.br/assuntos/inspecao/produtos-vegetal/pasta-publicacoes-DIPOV/anuario-da-cerveja-no-brasil-2018/view

Martin, D., & Schouten, M. (2014). Consumption-driven market emergence. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *40*(5), 855-887. doi: 10.1086/673196

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

McCracken, G. (1988). *The long interview*. London, UK: Sage.

Morado, R. (2009). *Larousse da cerveja*. São Paulo, SP: Larousse.

Oliver, G. (2012). *A mesa do mestre cervejeiro*. São Paulo, Sp: Senac.

Polanyi, K. (1957). *The great transformation: The political and economic origins of our time*. Massachusetts, USA: Beacon Press.

Press, M., Arnould, E. J., Murray, J. B., & Strand, K. (2014). Ideological challenges to changing strategic orientation in commodity agriculture. *Journal of Marketing*, *78*(6), 103-119. doi: 10.1509/jm.13.0280

Rao, H., Morrill, C., & Zald, M. N. (2000). Power plays: How social movements and collective action create new organizational forms. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, *22*(1), 237-281. doi: 10.1016/S0191-3085(00)22007-8

Scaraboto, D., & Fischer, E. (2013). Frustrated fatshionistas: An institucional theory perspective on consumer quests for greater choice in mainstream markets. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *39*(6), 1234-1257. doi: 10.1086/668298

Serviço Brasileiro de Apoio às Micro e Pequenas Empresas. (2015). *Potencial de consumo de cervejas no Brasil*. Porto Alegre, RS: Sebrae.

Slater, D., & Tonkiss, F. (2001). *Market society: Markets and modern social theory*. Oxford, UK: Blackwell Publishers Ltd.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). Basics of qualitative research. London, UK: Sage Publications.

Thompson, C. J. (1997). Interpreting consumers: A hermeneutical framework for deriving marketing insights from the texts of consumers' consumption stories. *Journal of Marketing Research, 34*(4), 438-455. doi: 10.2307/3151963

Thompson, C. J. (2004). Marketplace mythology and discourses of power. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *31*(1), 162-180. doi: 10.1086/383432

Thompson, C. J., & Coskuner-Balli, G. (2007). Enchanting ethical consumerism: The case of community supported agriculture. *Journal of Consumer Culture, 7*(3), 275-303. doi: 10.1177/1469540507081631

Tonelli, D. F. (2016). Origens e afiliações epistemológicas da teoria ator-rede: Implicações para a análise organizacional. *Cadernos EBAPE.BR*, *14*(2), 377-390. doi: 10.1590/1679-395141596

Weijo, H. A., Martin, D. M., & Arnould, E. J. (2018). Consumer movements and collective creativity: The case of Restaurant Day. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *45*(2), 251-274. doi: 10.1093/jcr/ucy003

AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

The authors declare that they contributed equally in the paper development. The first author coordinated the conceptualization and theoretical-methodological construction, as well as conducted the theoretical revision. The second author coordinated data collection and preliminary data analysis. Final data analysis was performed jointly. Both authors combine efforts in writing and revising the manuscript.

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

PERSPECTIVES

Invited article
Translated version
DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/S0034-759020200107

ORGANIZATIONAL STUDIES IN BRAZIL: BUILDING ACCESS OR REPLICATING EXCLUSION?

This article reflects on teaching and research in Organizational Studies (OS) in the Brazilian context. The notes worked on here are just a few among many, reinforcing the plurality of views, perspectives, and epistemological foundations that comprise the field. In this sense, we are not looking for a definition of what teaching and research are or should be; rather, we are moving towards a diverse construction of reflexive directions in the hope that these processes can become more inclusive in the face of the unequal Brazilian reality.

In our field of activity, Administration, it is important to reinforce the existence of political subjects and practices whose positioning and construction are determined by structures. A part of Administration must involve the construction of diverse knowledge that enables the know-how and the knowledge-power of the social relations of production (Carrieri, 2014; Faria, 2004; França-Filho, 2009). Understanding that we are political beings allows us to be aware of our positions of power in the scientific construction so that we can question and challenge our own teaching, influence, research, and consulting practices. As teachers, students, researchers, and consultants, are we working on expanding knowledge beyond the already established academic boundaries and helping to compose other ways of knowing the world, or are we just getting our jobs done in an infinite circular movement among ourselves, merely as knowledge replicants, which, as in the film *Blade Runner* (Deeley, Fancher, Peoples, & Scott, 1982), have expiration dates.

The position we seek to rupture in relation to management studies is one that hermetically constructs knowledge which is inaccessible to a large part of the Brazilian population. We consider a scenario in which 6.8% of people over the age of 15, a total of 11.3 million, are illiterate, according to the 2018 Continuous National Household Sample Survey (PNAD Contínua) (Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística, 2019). The same survey indicates that Brazilians who have completed higher education degrees comprise only 16.5% of the population aged 25 or over. The "Functional Illiteracy Indicator" report, released in 2018 by Ação Educativa together with the Instituto Paulo Montenegro, states that 29% of people aged between 15 and 64 are functional illiterates (Ação Educativa & Instituto Paulo Montenegro, 2018). Considering these numbers, we must question how accessible our scientific OS work is or how much it seeks to be.

After all, what knowledge are we producing? What, why, and for whom are we researching? Is our criticism of the mainstream in Administration accessible to the 83.5% of the Brazilian population who do not possess higher education degrees? Are we researching for ourselves and perpetuating a kind of knowledge that we then criticize as being exclusionary? If our role is to assist in the

ALEXANDRE DE PÁDUA CARRIERI[1]
alexandre@face.ufmg.br
ORCID: 0000-0001-8552-8717

GABRIEL FARIAS ALVES CORREIA[1]
correiagfa@gmail.com
ORCID: 0000-0002-8534-0543

[1]Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais, Centro de Pós-Graduação e Pesquisas em Administração/ Mestrado, Belo Horizonte, Minas Gerais, Brazil.

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

process of questioning the existing power structures, how are we accomplishing this? Are we simply transmitters of the knowledge that we produce (or replicate) in our universities, or are we carrying out a process of constructing knowledge for a group, in an incessant exchange with the unequal environment that surrounds us?

Ibarra-Colado (2006) and Souza, Costa, and Pereira (2015) state that administrative processes of management and organizational phenomena are naturalized within the traditional theories of Administration. The authors also consider that this process excludes the socio-historical circumstances from their construction. Furthermore, the twentieth-century administrative knowledge unilaterally builds an organizational reality and falsifies reality through the prism of scientific and natural reason.

According to Misoczky, Flores, and Böhm (2008); Carrieri, Perdigão, and Aguiar (2014); Barros and Carrieri (2015); and Wanderley and Barros (2018), the traditional theoretical knowledge on Administration is Anglocentric and Eurocentric, which inhibits the possibility of us being subjects of our own management history, based on the local context. For many of these authors, these administrative theories are based on a kind of "epistemic racism," disregarding the knowledge that is not produced in "central" locations, due to the inability to generalize and universalize the management models.

Research and theories developed in a manner peripheral to European and American dominance are limited by one's understanding of what an organization is. The basis of this knowledge was obtained from the comparison between the features that are common to the analyzed object and the one constructed by Max Weber as an ideal type. Thus, almost any human group can be understood as an organization. Simultaneously, the supremacy of liberal capitalism provides that there are optimal ways to manage these organizations and that they are very close to the hegemonic elaborations in the United States, as described by Grey (2010). In effect, it is common to consider that the American way of managing capitalist companies assumes the appearance of a neutral set of techniques that can be adopted by any "organization." Thus, a management model that was created in the specific context of capitalist companies now serves as the foundation for the conduct of each and every human enterprise.

Grey (2010) explains questioning North-American hegemony in knowledge production in the OS field (as well as others) opens space for works produced elsewhere. For this author, the flourishing of other research reveals the multiplicity of socio-historical contexts in which OS have developed. In complement, it is up to (local) researchers to question the hegemonic construction in this field, which is reproduced daily in specialized media, in the editorials of the journals, in the knowledge produced, in the universities, in research, and even in the writing of the encountered empirical results.

The obligation we have as researchers immersed in a system that preaches, propagates, and replicates inequality is to bring our research closer to the popular, to our reality. This "popular," or even the "small" from a historical point of view, and the movements that connect to the "lesser" literature (Deleuze & Guattarri, 2014) resist the impositions of the subjects of greater power who insist on prescribing and establishing the paths for the organization of life. Our OS research must be involved with this popular that resists and suffers, but also plays with oppression through tactics (Certeau, 2012). With such exclusion from formal means of knowledge, we disengage from maintaining mainstream Administration; and this is the least we can do. Studying through process and dialogue will assist the field on a path towards understanding alternative ways of management; similarly, it will establish our role within the hierarchy of knowledge and power so as not to replicate the exclusionary system that we seek to criticize.

The impacts on current societies, such as global economic crises, development of production units that foster slavery and child labor, fires instigated by land developers in places that are considered the lungs of the planet, constant development of science and technology, increasingly rational and mechanized production, political pursuit of knowledge, and resurgence of ideals that value hatred and intolerance, can be represented by elements such as:

> [...] relativism and cultural pluralism—which in turn would be characterized by the dissipation of objectivity and rationality; by the spectacularization of society; by mass culture; by the naturalization of the ephemeral and transitory character of all things; by the commodification of knowledge (Carrieri et al., 2014, p. 699).

In view of this social scenario, OS seem to naturalize organizations and their processes, seeking rational effectiveness and performance in organizational management, with no interest in the various determinations of practical life. In many studies, the abstract concept of organization is transformed into a real object, into reality. According to Berger and Luckmann (1998) and Souza et al. (2015), it is naturalized and becomes an entity, not a creation. In discourse, "organization-abstraction" receives a name, a personal pronoun, and becomes an actor. The organizational life of human beings, such as life in society, is no longer important, diluted in discourses, and ceases to exist.

 CC BY © RAE | São Paulo | **60(1)** | **January-February 2020** | 59-63 ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

When discussing OS, we must keep in mind that we are dealing with a field that has several epistemologies and worldviews. According to Thiollent (2014), we are faced with research in organizations, as well as their cultural, economic, political, and social specificities. The research covers not only companies and public, political, or social institutions but also organized social life and diverse organizational practices. Therefore, it perceives organizations as composed of subjects, thereby not dislocating the organization from the practices of these same subjects. This conception also helps us rethink what management is, and manage and administer without a totalizing perspective.

The scope of the study of the ordinary must be considered as a work of lesser literature confronting the dominant mainstream of Administration. For Deleuze and Guattari (2014), the lesser literature opposes the dominant literature, not for reduction or for its size, but because of the value it receives from the writing of what is taken for granted, the everyday, the daily. The lesser literature speaks of the daily activities of people who do not occupy important positions or differentiated power, and who belong to the non-privileged classes and backgrounds. The lesser talks about the ordinary life of the common person. It talks about the passion for small and insignificant things in which possibilities for resistance still survive (Benjamin, 1987).

OS, as an interdisciplinary area, has an important ally, the field of history, in the process of reflection that seeks to build pertinent and accessible knowledge at the local and ordinary levels and moves away from a generalizing perspective. The path we propose here involves the historicization of research and teaching in and of OS. It is necessary to rethink the sources, the subjects with whom we are working, and our practices to focus our intentions on the broad and accessible debate on the knowledge of organization for society.

The historical perspective within the scope of OS can help approach daily life and the knowledge developed without the excluding logic of academia. In this sense, we highlight the value of locally constructed and disseminated knowledge, focusing on investigations that elevate the ordinary, in contrast to the hegemonic view of Administration that seeks to silence knowledge arising from experiences which it considers less valuable. The choice of the historical point of view helps us understand the anonymous actions that compose Brazilian diversity, as opposed to the predominant studies that deal with the "magnificent" and "grandiose" but ahistorical subjects and events.

OS can adopt the understanding that history is dynamic and reconstructed in the present time (Neves, 2010). It serves the interests of the most powerful subjects who, under a justification of neutrality, impose and perpetuate the exclusive prescriptions of what should or should not be considered legitimate knowledge. The path of ontological and epistemological questioning of research in Administration was followed by Joaquim and Carrieri (2018) in a critique of so-called sociological functionalism. In our research, rethinking management techniques different from those taught by Brazilian business schools, that is, imported from North America, reconstructs and questions the regimes of truth for organizational phenomena, which have been unquestionable until recently.

The joint study of history and OS can assist us in researching marginalized practices, investigating multiple forms of meaning, moving away from deterministic patterns, and highlighting the expansion of knowledge in alternative perspectives (Barros & Carrieri, 2015). In this sense, the historical perspective helps to recognize the inconsistencies of totalizing narratives and to demonstrate the narratives that do not meet the dominant logic. Thus, we can research and teach practices that historically went "unnoticed" in the eyes of management. The "unnoticed" has been the repressed, violated, silenced, marginalized, and demarcated as the "other." Therefore, it had lesser scientific value. Historicizing Administration turns our eyes to social practices, popular knowledge, experiences, affectivities, etc. that do not agree with instrumental rationality and instead focus on diversity.

With views influenced by the historical perspective, great achievements, theories, monuments, subjects, and practices are placed in the background to highlight the singular ways of thinking about organizations. In this sense, local stories and memories become protagonists, and local forms of management and theories are erected and adapted. This trend, as suggested by Wanderley and Barros (2018), considers social and cultural contexts in OS research.

Wanderley and Barros (2018) encourage the possibility of reconciling the debates on history with studies that avoid the large centers, by mobilizing management and organizational knowledge for more diverse issues. The authors support international studies that recognize the knowledge produced in Latin America, diversifying historical knowledge and fostering investigations that can create decolonial possibilities. The authors question whether the historical turning-point has achieved the proposed objectives, bearing in mind that other possibilities were not opened for debate outside a United States or European hegemonic position. Thus, the knowledge at the margins remains underestimated and plays a supporting role, causing the authors to move towards "a geographic turn" that includes other spaces for discussion and challenges dominant knowledge.

Gouvêa, Cabana, and Ichikawa (2018) present the relevance of articulation in the fields of History and Administration

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

to reveal new ways of performing research, of considering historical contexts, and of conceiving previously disregarded subjects. Furthermore, we believe that this stance as highlighted by the authors is also connected with the forms of teaching and studying OS. Listening to the views that are brought to life for being excluded by mainstream studies can stimulate actions that review and re-frame works related to management. They emphasize the following:

Therefore, it becomes essential to understand history, based on the multiple voices that make up the organizational environment. Not just the reality of the numbers but of the subjects who are part of the organization and who, through their daily practices, build the organizational routine. In view of this, we understand that the dialogue between history and administration is an important tool in order to enable new voices to be heard within the scope of management (Gouvêa et al., 2018, p. 300).

In the same line of research, teaching related to history can reconsider the way in which knowledge about management is discussed, questioning the influence of the most powerful subjects and the locations considered "central" that control the transmission of knowledge. Thus, selected discourses and memories should be perpetuated while certain knowledge should be forgotten, as developed by Pollak (1989). Why do most Brazilian business schools adopt general management theory discussions with Weber, bureaucracy with Taylor, scientific administration with Fayol, and classic administration with Ford and his "prosperity principles," but fall silent on works that discuss the degrading conditions of workers in each of these periods? Why do we not discuss and teach the specifics of Brazilian management and the influence of Portuguese colonial exploitation on the country? For what reason does the environmental devastation that annihilated our native forests not appear in the problematizations about Brazilian management? Why are forced labor and the extermination of indigenous tribes not even mentioned? Why not historicize Administration based on our slave heritage and reflect on OS from the perversity and cruelty that were naturalized in our territory against the population of African origin?

Management education needs to consider that our history is full of silences and repressions that influenced the specific character of the research work in our territory. Unlike the great narrative and the official history that portrays our people as peaceful, Brazil is and has always been full of tensions, wars, and repressions that influence, even now, our labor regimes, social practices, ways of relating to others, and ways of managing. We must keep in mind that the majority of people in our country, that is, women, the poor, people of color, and the working classes, have been silenced by a powerful minority, occupying the forms of communication considered legitimate (media or scientific). Therefore, taking the opposite view is important. Instead of remaining aloof in our academic bubble, we should go out into the streets and attempt to know, to speak, to build new paths together "with" society, not "about" society.

Our main contribution to the field is reflected in our title: Are we making our research and teaching methods accessible? Are we replicating exclusion, reinforcing inequality of opportunities through our production or even our classes, and ignoring what is considered important in our localities? Far from establishing a path, we believe that it is an opportunity to perform self-criticism in relation to the breadth of our practices and our field of knowledge. In this way, we can continue to consistently question our actions and increasingly dissolve the structures and hierarchies of knowledge and power. Finally, our ways of teaching and researching in OS must focus on the absence of barriers. Replicating exclusion, and inaccessibility to knowledge, through language, practices, and objects that are distant from local realities contributes nothing to an uncomplicated management.

REFERENCES

Ação Educativa & Instituto Paulo Montenegro. (2018). *Indicador de analfabetismo funcional (INAF)*. São Paulo, SP: Ação Educativa, IPM. Recuperado de https://bit.ly/2M5UFVs

Barros, A., & Carrieri, A. P. (2015). O cotidiano e a história: Construindo novos olhares na administração. *RAE-Revista de Administração de Empresas*, *55*(2), 151-161. doi: 10.1590/S0034-759020150205

Benjamin, W. (1987). O narrador: Considerações sobre a obra de Nikolai Leskov. In Benjamin, W (Org.), *Magia e técnica, arte e política: Ensaios sobre literatura e história da cultura* (Obras escolhidas). São Paulo, SP: Editora Brasiliense, 197-221.

Berger, P. L., & Luckmann, T. (1998). *A construção social da realidade: Tratado de sociologia do conhecimento*. Petrópolis, RJ: Editora Vozes.

Carrieri, A. P. (2014). As gestões e as sociedades. *Farol – Revista de Estudos Organizacionais e Sociedade*, *1*, 19-57. doi: 10.25113/farol.v1i1.2592

Carrieri, A. P., Perdigão, D., & Aguiar, A. R. (2014). A gestão ordinária dos pequenos negócios: Outro olhar sobre a gestão em estudos organizacionais. *Revista de Administração*, *49*(4), 698-713. doi: 10.5700/rausp1178

Certeau, M. (2012). *A invenção do cotidiano 1: Artes de fazer* (18ª ed.). Petrópolis, RJ: Editora Vozes.

Deeley, M., Fancher H., Peoples, D. (Produtores), & Scott R. (Diretor). (1982). *Blade runner* [Filme]. USA: The Ladd Company.

Deleuze, G., & Guattari, F. (2014). *Kafka: Por uma literatura menor*. Belo Horizonte: Autêntica.

Faria, J. H. (2004). *Economia política do poder*. Curitiba, PR: Juruá.

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

França-Filho, G. C. (2009). Para um olhar epistemológico da administração: Problematizando seu objeto. In R. S. Santos (Org.), *A administração política como campo do conhecimento*. Salvador, BA: UFBA, 119-143.

Gouvêa, J. B., Cabana, R. P. L., & Ichikawa, E. Y. (2018). As histórias e o cotidiano das organizações: Uma possibilidade de dar ouvidos àqueles que o discurso hegemônico cala. *Farol – Revista de Estudos Organizacionais e Sociedade*, *5*(12), 297-347. doi: 10.25113/farol.v5i12.3668

Grey, C. (2010). Organization studies: Publications, politics, and economics. *Organization Studies*, *31*(6), 677-694. doi: 10.1177/0170840610372575

Ibarra-Colado, E. (2006). Organization studies and epistemic coloniality in Latin America: Thinking otherness from margins. *Organization*, *13*(4), 463-488. doi: 10.1177/1350508406065851

Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística. (2019). Pesquisa nacional por amostra de domicílios contínua. *Estatísticas sociais*. Recuperado de https://bit.ly/2MY3t45

Joaquim. N. F., & Carrieri, A. P. (2018). Construção e desenvolvimento de um projeto de história oral em estudos sobre gestão. *Organizações & Sociedade*, *25*(85), 303-319. doi: 10.1590/1984-9250857

Misoczky, M. C., Flores, R. K., & Böhm, S. (2008). A práxis da resistência e a hegemonia da organização. *Organizações & Sociedade*, *15*(45), 181-193.

Neves, L. A. (2010). *História oral: Memória, tempo, identidades* (2ª ed.). Belo Horizonte, MG: Autêntica.

Pollak, M. (1989). Memória, esquecimento, silêncio. *Estudos Históricos*, *2*(3), 3-15.

Souza, E. M., Costa, A. S. M., & Pereira, S. J. (2015). A organização (in)corporada: Ontologia organizacional, poder e corpo em evidência. *Cadernos EBAPE.BR*, *13*(4), 727-742. doi: 10.1590/1679-395118624

Thiollent, M. (2014). Estudos organizacionais: Possível quadro referencial e interfaces. *Revista Brasileira de Estudos Organizacionais*, *1*(1), 1-14. doi: 10.21583/2447-4851.rbeo.2014.v1n1.28

Wanderley, S., & Barros, A. (2018). Decoloniality, geopolitics of knowledge, and historic turn: Towards a Latin American agenda. *Management & Organizational History*, *13*, 1-19. doi: 10.1080/17449359.2018.1431551

AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

The authors declare that they participated in all stages of development of the manuscript. From the conceptualization and theoretical-methodological approach, the theoretical review (literature survey), data collection, as well as data analysis, and finally, writing and final review the article.

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

PERSPECTIVES

Invited article
Original version
DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/S0034-759020200108

REFLEXIVITY IN TEACHING AND RESEARCHING ORGANIZATIONAL STUDIES

INTRODUCTION

We live in a world where we are experiencing an increasing number of environmental disasters, social injustice, corporate scandals, and questionable leadership ethics. The issue I would like to address in this article is how we, as educators and researchers, might respond to or engage proactively with these issues. One approach is encouraging our students to become more reflexive, and to become more reflexive ourselves as researchers. I believe that reflexivity is becoming an increasingly important resource in organization studies. Defined as questioning taken-for-granted assumptions, practices, policies, and so on, reflexivity offers a way of developing more critical and responsible approaches to our intellectual strategies and to practical activities within the academic and corporate world. I will begin by summarizing some of the criticisms of business school education and the challenges we face as researchers and go on to define and discuss how reflexivity can help us engage with these criticisms in a productive manner.

Criticism

Moral and political philosopher, Alasdair MacIntyre (1981) argued that managers are generally perceived as engaging in value-neutral activities that are concerned with rational and efficient means rather than in any moral debate about the ends. This idea was taken up in criticisms of the inability of business schools to produce socially responsible leaders (Bennis & O'Toole, 2005; Khurana, 2007) and for propagating ideologically-inspired amoral theories that absolve students from any sense of moral responsibility (Ghoshal, 2005).

In the 1990s, based on a need to challenge the "neutrality or virtue of management as self-evident or unproblematical" (Alvesson & Willmott, 1992, p. 1) and the inequalities in social and organizational life, management educators in the UK, Europe, and Australasia started to engage with the principles of Critical Management Education (CME), which can incorporate reflexivity. As educators, we are facing the challenge of developing more responsible approaches to management education (Perriton & Reynolds, 2018) that counter the techno-rational managerialist pedagogies so prevalent in the USA. While many business schools across the world have adopted the United Nations' *Principles of Responsible Management Education (PRME)*, the question remains to what extent the principles are truly embedded in programs. In a recent UK study, Millar and Price (2018) turn the reflexive gaze inward as educators, arguing that while PRME has introduced a moral focus in the classroom, it has not encouraged critical reflexivity around the "individualist and self-interested nature of business" (p. 360).

ANN L. CUNLIFFE[1]
ann.cunliffe@fgv.br
ORCID: 0000-0001-9399-7716

[1]Fundação Getulio Vargas, Escola de Administração de Empresas de São Paulo, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

In her Presidential Address to the Academy of Management, Anne Tsui not only argued that business schools do more harm than good in society, but addressed the research gap between theory and practice, and the "terrible life" (2013, p. 175) faced by young scholars forced towards the homogenization of their work due to the drive to publish in top journals, which are North American. Given the lack of criticality in US education, it is unsurprising that research follows the same frame, that is, a focus on generalization, developing abstract theories, and following a narrow research and writing protocol rather than engaging with real problems in real contexts (Cunliffe, 2018).

Given these criticisms and the plethora of corporate scandals in recent years, which are often linked to questionable work practices, irresponsible decision making, and unethical leadership, how might we re-think how we research, theorize, and teach these issues? I propose that one way is helping our students become more reflexive, and becoming more reflexive ourselves as educators and researchers. Before I define reflexivity, I will first differentiate reflexivity and reflection, which are very different approaches.

REFLECTION AND REFLEXIVITY: DEFINITIONS

Reflection

Much of what we teach in Business Schools is based on encouraging our students to become "reflective practitioners." As Dewey (1997) notes, reflection is an "ability to 'turn things over,' to look at matters deliberately, to judge whether the amount and kind of evidence requisite for decision is at hand," (pp. 66-67) that is, a balance between analysis and synthesis, concrete and abstract, experiential and experimental (empirical and scientific) thinking. Reflection is conceptualized and enacted as a cognitive process in which we apply logical thinking to analyze a situation and/or ourselves in order to achieve an end result.

Donald Schön (1983) drew on the work of Dewey in his book *The Reflective Practitioner*, which has been influential in shaping westernized conceptions of a key professional and leadership skill, reflection. He differentiated between reflection-*on*-action and reflection-*in*-action. Reflection-on-action involves a retrospective evaluation of a decision, event, or behavior considering what happened, why it happened, and how improvements can be made. Schön argued that practitioners rely on a tacit knowing-in-action, which involves spontaneous actions, decisions, and talk; a knowing that we may not be able to articulate. This knowing-in-action may involve a type of thinking commonly referred to as "thinking on your feet," in which we somehow construct an understanding of the situation and function within it. Schön calls this process of construction *reflecting-in-action,* which involves professionals drawing on cumulative organizational and personal knowledge and practices and using them in "a reflective conversation with the situation" (1983, p. 242). As such, reflection involves learning in and from experience, and in doing so gaining insights into ourselves.

Schön's work is a useful stimulus for viewing professional and management knowledge as an active and contextual practice based on self-awareness and an ongoing review of our experience. It forms a cornerstone of many undergraduate, graduate, and Doctorate programs (Anderson, Gold, Stewart, & Thorpe, 2015). Pedagogies using case studies, self-assessment questionnaires, problem-based learning, action learning, and so on are oriented towards helping students become more reflective practitioners.

Reflexivity

Sociological theorists take a broad view of reflexivity as an inevitable condition of our ever-changing uncertain contemporary society. Reflexivity is construed as an ability to examine the relationship between the broader social "field" (in Bourdieu's [2004] terms, structure, networks, relationships) and how knowledge, practices and perceptions, and dispositions and identities are reflexively constructed and contested. Reflexivity goes deeper than reflection in terms of questioning what is or could be taken for granted, what ideologies, assumptions, norms, and so on, underpin practices, policies, texts, actions, and our ability as researchers to represent reality accurately. I argue that there is a fundamental ontological difference between reflection and reflexivity. Reflection is based on the objectivist assumption that there is a world out there, which we are separate from, and that through reflection we can identify the structures, patterns, roles, and principles that impact what goes on and how things work. For example, we give our students self-assessment questionnaires to complete so that they can identify what type of leadership style they have and then compare that to the style they should have, that is, they reflect *on* themselves and compare themselves to objective social categories. Reflexivity embraces a more subjectivist social constructionist ontology, which assumes that we shape and maintain our social and organizational "realities" in our everyday interactions and

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

conversations and in the texts we write. We therefore need to question how we do so: what our assumptions are and how they might impact our behavior, relationships, the language that we use, the way we manage organizations, and conduct our research. Reflexivity is about understanding that we live *in* a social and natural world, we shape it in intended and unintended ways and we therefore need to accept responsibility for what we do and say (Cunliffe, 2016).

I argue that reflexivity can take both critically and self-reflexive forms. Self-reflexivity involves "a dialogue with self about our fundamental assumptions, values, and ways of interacting. In this dialogue, we question our core beliefs and our understanding of particular events" (Cunliffe & Jun, 2005, p. 229). Self-reflexivity helps us to recognize how our own practices and ways of relating impact how we and others construct social and organizational "realities." Critical reflexivity examines normalizing, disciplining, hegemonic, and exclusionary ideologies, practices, policies, and language in organizations. In doing so, we can change systemic control structures that reproduce themselves in our discourse and practices. Archer (2007) discusses reflexivity as an internal conversation in which we evaluate our social and institutional contexts as a means of circumventing structural constraints.

To summarize, reflection is conceptualized and enacted as a cognitive process in which we apply logical thinking to an analysis of a situation and/or to ourselves in order to achieve an end result. It requires us to reflect *on* an external world. Reflexivity requires us to recognize that we are embedded in and shape, with others, our lived organizational and social experience and therefore need to question how we do so. It involves *turning our gaze on ourselves* as educators, researchers, students, managers, and leaders. Therefore, while reflection moves us from perplexity to equilibrium/certainty, reflexivity moves us from equilibrium/certainty to doubt to new possibilities.

Reflexivity and organization studies research

Over the last 30 years, Organization studies scholars have been researching ways to bring reflexivity into research. Its development can be traced within two main fields: sociologically oriented work (mainly US based), and philosophically oriented work, in particular, poststructuralism (mainly Europe based). Each orientation leads to different approaches to reflexivity; sociologically oriented work leads to constructionist approaches, and philosophically oriented work leads to deconstructionist approaches.

The sociological (and later phenomenological) reflexive turn was inspired by Clifford and Marcus's (1986) book, *Writing Culture,* in which a number of authors challenged conventional conceptions of social reality and knowledge and the core values, epistemological principles, and aim of mainstream social science to provide an absolute, objective view of the world. In particular, they argued that we need to acknowledge that science is a historical, political, and linguistic process, that research accounts are allegorical and "true fictions," and that researchers should no longer speak with authority about the lives of others.

The philosophical roots of reflexivity are often linked with the "postmodern" crisis of representation and draws upon philosophers such as Derrida (1976) and Foucault (1970, 1972) to deconstruct texts, the relationship between knowledge and power, and challenge normalizing discourses and practices (Chia, 1996) and the need to critique ideologies. Furthermore, it also aims to question knowledge, truth claims, and knowledge/power relationships, to surface normalizing and potentially colonizing processes within society and its institutions, and to interrogate the performativity of language with the aim of examining intended and unintended consequences.

The sociological approach inspires us to be more reflexive about the assumptions underpinning our research strategies, practices, and our identity as researchers (e.g., Alvesson, Hardy, & Harley, 2008; Cunliffe, 2003; Thomas, Tienari, Davies, & Meriläinen, 2009). This has led to the development of more reflexive and ethical research methodologies and methods. Organization studies researchers have examined a range of reflexive methodologies including narrative and action research methodologies (e.g., Hibbert, Sillince, Diefenbach, & Cunliffe, 2014; Ripamonti, Galuppo, Gorli, Scaratti, & Cunliffe, 2016). They have also explored the relationship between researchers and research subjects as political and co-constructed, requiring a researcher to be self-reflexive about their positioning and relationships in the field (e.g., Cunliffe & Karunanayake, 2013; McDonald, 2013). There are also studies on how managers and leaders enact reflexivity in practice. For example, Maclean, Harvey, and Chia (2012) draw on Bourdieu's (1990) work around reflexivity to examine how elite business leaders in the UK engage in reflexive practices to recreate themselves. They propose two forms of reflexive practice: accumulative (accumulating capital, positions, and perspectives) and re-constructive (re-creating themselves).

Critical management studies scholars utilize postmodern and poststructuralist forms of reflexivity in their work, recognizing that knowledge is neither politically or ideologically neutral because it can be complicit with what can be experienced as an

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

oppressive status quo (Haraway, 1988). Examples of organizational research drawing on this form of reflexivity include Foucauldian studies of power, governmentality, and disciplinary practices in organizations. A recent example by Vidaillet and Bousalham (2018) builds on Foucault's notion of heterotopia to reconfigure coworking spaces as synotopias. Dallyn (2014) develops an ideological reflexivity arguing that ideological critiques often position the researcher as an objective expert and that the political views of the researcher need to be made explicit when naming what is ideological. Furthermore, Ahl and Marlow (2012) bring reflexive critique in the form of a poststructural feminist analysis of the heteronormative assumptions underpinning entrepreneurship theories.

Reflexivity and teaching in organization studies

The aim of reflexive management and business education is to help students become *reflexive* practitioners that are able to examine themselves, their actions, interactions, and the nature of their relationships and to act in more ethical and responsive ways (Hibbert, Callagher, Siedlok, Windahl, & Kim, 2019). The issue of making reflexivity relevant to students can be challenging at both the undergraduate and graduate level. At the Executive MBA level, students are often senior managers in positions of influence in their organizations and deeply enmeshed in prevailing managerial ideologies, structures of control, and systems of power. Undergraduate students often do not have experience of working in organizations but are familiar with hierarchical structures. Questioning these taken-for-granted systems can often be perceived as threatening and needless and one of the major challenges therefore lies in persuading students of the need to think differently, that is, more critically, about their role and their place in society. The challenge can become particularly acute if students expect to be given tools to simplify their lives.

Reflexivity is not about giving students tools and techniques, but about engaging them in both self- and critical reflexivity. A number of management educators have explored how we might do this (e.g., Cunliffe, Aguiar, Góes, & Carreira, in press; Eriksen, 2012). Dehler (2009) moves towards reflexivity explaining how he develops students as "critical beings" through an experiment in critical action. In doing so, he practices reflexivity in the classroom by creating "a learning space that was genuinely open to the student voice; raise student consciousness to the problematics of globalization and then create the potential for the classroom as a site for social change" (p. 39). Vu and Burton (2019) examine how spiritual practice and moral reflexivity encourage transformative learning. Finally, Allen, Cunliffe and Easterby-Smith (2019) draw on radical reflexivity in relation to sustainability as a means of understanding how "business, communities, and people exist interdependently through their social-material relations" (p. 788) and the implications for management education.

At the undergraduate level we can engage students in reflexivity by encouraging them to explore moments in which they are "struck" (Cunliffe, 2002), a process of reflexive learning by both researcher and research participants that Corlett (2013) extended to learning in research. She defined being struck as "a spontaneous sensation, which occurs in a sticky or striking moment, which triggers an individual to make sense of an experience" (p. 456). Such moments can help students engage in a reflexive conversation with themselves.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, I argue that reflexivity is important to organization studies because it helps us, as researchers, to generate rich, complex, and potentially transformational explanations of organizations and organizational life by embracing more pluralistic forms of knowledge. Reflexivity encourages us to think about the impact of our assumptions on research and knowledge production; who we may be privileging and who we may be excluding, what voices we may be silencing, and what impact our theories may have. We can facilitate alternative ways of seeing, being, and acting as managers and leaders by encouraging our students to become more reflexive. Reflexivity is therefore important in addressing the critiques of business schools by helping shape responsible and ethical practice in knowledge generation, education, research, and management practice. Importantly, it can alert us to the need to create and maintain ethical relationships.

REFERENCES

Ahl, H., & Marlow, S. (2012). Exploring the dynamics of gender, feminism, and entrepreneurship: advancing debate to escape a dead end? *Organization*, *19*(5), 543-562. doi: 10.1177/1350508412448695

Allen, S., Cunliffe, A. L., & Easterby-Smith, M. (2019). Understanding sustainability through the lens of radical-reflexivity. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *154*(3), 781-795. doi: 10.1007/s10551-016-3420-3

Alvesson, M., Hardy, C., & Harley, B. (2008). Reflecting on reflexivity: Reflexive textual practices in organization and management theory. *Journal of Management Studies*, *45*(3), 481-498. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-6486.2007.00765.x

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

Alvesson, M., & Willmott, H. (Eds.) (1992). *Critical management studies*. London, UK: Sage

Anderson, L., Gold, J., Stewart, J., & Thorpe, R. (Eds.). (2015). *A guide to professional doctorates in business and management*. London, UK: Sage.

Archer, M. S. (2007). *Making our way through the world: Human reflexivity and social mobility*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Bennis, W. G., & O'Toole, J. (2005). How business schools lost their way. *Harvard Business Review*, *83*, 96-104.

Bourdieu, P (1990) *In other words: Essay toward a reflexive sociology*. Palo Alto, CA: Stanford University Press.

Chia, R. (1996). The problem of reflexivity in organizational research: Towards a postmodern science of organization. *Organization*, *3*(1), 31-59. doi: 10.1177/135050849631003

Clifford, J., & Marcus, G. (Eds.). (1986). *Writing culture: The poetics and politics of ethnography*. Berkeley, USA: University of California. Press.

Corlett, S. (2013). Participant learning in and through research as reflexive dialogue: Being 'struck' and the effects of recall. *Management Learning*, *44*(5), 453-469. doi: 10.1177/1350507612453429

Cunliffe, A. L. (2002). Reflexive dialogical practice in management learning. *Management Learning*, *33*(1), 35-61. doi: 10.1177/1350507602331002

Cunliffe, A. L. (2003). Reflexive inquiry in organization research: Questions and possibilities. *Human Relations*, *56*(8), 983-1003. doi: 10.1177/00187267030568004

Cunliffe, A. L. (2016). Republication of 'On becoming a critically reflexive practitioner'. *Journal of Management Education*, *40*(6), 747-768. doi: 10.1177/1052562916674465

Cunliffe, A. L. (2018). Wayfaring: A scholarship of possibilities. Or let's not get drunk on abstraction. *M@n@gement*, *21*, 1429-1439.

Cunliffe, A. L., Aguiar, A. C., Góes, V., & Carreira, F. (forthcoming, 2020). Reflexivity and transdisciplinarity as paths to developing responsible management education. In D. C. Moosemayer, O. Laasch, C. Parkes, & K. Brown. (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of responsible management learning and education*. London, UK: Sage.

Cunliffe, A. L., & Jun, J. (2005). The need for reflexivity in public administration. *Administration and Society*, *37*(2), 225-242. doi: 10.1177/0095399704273209

Cunliffe, A. L., & Karunanayake, G. (2013). Working within hyphen-spaces in ethnographic research: Implications for research identities and practice. *Organizational Research Methods*, *16*(3), 364-392. doi: 10.1177/1094428113489353

Dallyn, S. (2014). Naming the ideological reflexively: Contesting organizational norms and practices. *Organization*, *21*(2), 244-265. doi: 10.1177/1350508413475494

Dehler, G. (2009). Prospects and possibilities of critical management education: Critical beings and a pedagogy of critical action. *Management Learning*, *40*(1), 31-49. doi: 10.1177/1350507608099312

Derrida, J. (1976). *Of grammatology*. Baltimore, USA: John Hopkins University Press.

Dewey, J. (1997). *How we think*. Mineola, USA: Dover Publications, Inc. (originally published 1910).

Eriksen, M. (2012). Facilitating authentic becoming. *Journal of Management Education*, *36*(5), 698-736. doi: 10.1177/1052562911423883

Foucault, M. (1970). *The order of things: An archaeology of the human sciences*. London, UK: Routledge.

Foucault, M. (1972). *The archaeology of knowledge*. Trans. by A. M. Sheridan Smith. New York, USA: Pantheon Books.

Ghoshal, S. (2005). Bad management theories are destroying good management practices. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, *4*(1), 75-91.

Haraway, D. (1988). Situated knowledges: The science question in feminism and the privilege of partial perspective. *Feminist Studies*, *14*, 575-599. doi: 10.2307/3178066

Hibbert, P., Callagher, L., Siedlok, F., Windahl, C., & Kim, H. S. (2019). (Engaging or avoiding) Change through reflexive practices. *Journal of Management Inquiry*, *28*(2), 187-203. doi: 10.1177/1056492617718089

Hibbert, P., Sillince, J., Diefenbach, T., & Cunliffe, A. L. (2014). Relationally reflexive practice: A generative approach to theory development in qualitative research. *Organizational Research Methods*, *17*(3), 278-298. doi: 10.1177/1094428114524829

Khurana, R. (2007). *From higher aims to hired hands, the social transformation of American business schools and the unfulfilled promise of management as a profession*. Princeton, USA: Princeton University Press.

MacIntyre, A. (1981). *After virtue: A study in moral theory*. Notre Dame, USA: University of Notre Dame Press.

Maclean, M., Harvey, C., & Chia, R. (2012). Reflexive practice and the making of elite business careers. *Management Learning*, *43*(4), 385-404. doi: 10.1177/1350507612449680

McDonald, J. (2013). Coming out in the field: A queer reflexive account of shifting researcher identity. *Management Learning*, *44*(2), 127-143. doi: 10.1177/1350507612473711

Millar, J., & Price, M. (2018). Imagining management education: A critique of the contribution of the United Nations PRME to critical reflexivity and rethinking management education. *Management Learning*, *49*(3), 346-362. doi: 10.1177/1350507618759828

Perriton, L., & Reynolds, M. (2018). Critical management education in challenging times. *Management Learning*, *49*(5), 521-536. doi: 10.1177/1350507618795090

Ripamonti, S., Galuppo, L., Gorli, M., Scaratti, G., & Cunliffe, A. L. (2016). Pushing action research towards reflexive practice. *Journal of Management Inquiry*, *25*(1), 55-68. doi: 10.1177/1056492615584972

Schön, D. A. (1983). *The reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action*. New York, USA: Basic Books.

Thomas, R., Tienari, J., Davies, A., & Meriläinen, S. (2009). Let's talk about "us" a reflexive account of a cross-cultural research collaboration. *Journal of Management Inquiry*, *18*(4), 313-324. doi: 10.1177/1056492608324457

Tsui, A. S. (2013). On compassion in scholarship: Why should we care? *Academy of Management Review*, *38*(2), 167-180.

Vu, M. C., & Burton, N. (2019). Mindful reflexivity: Unpacking the process of transformative learning in mindfulness and discernment. *Management Learning*. doi: 10.1177/1350507619888751

Vidaillet, B., & Bousalham, Y. (2018). Coworking spaces as places where economic diversity can be articulated: Towards a theory of syntopia. *Organization*. doi: 10.1177/1350508418794003

AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

The author declare that they participated in all stages of development of the manuscript. From the conceptualization and theoretical-methodological approach, as well the theoretical review (literature survey), and finally, writing and final review the article.

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

BOOK REVIEW

Translated Version
http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/S0034-759020200109

THE ENERGY EMANATING FROM NEOS

ENERGIA, ORGANIZAÇÕES E SOCIEDADE (ENERGY, ORGANIZATIONS AND SOCIETY)

Luiz Alex Silva Saraiva e Adriana Vinholi Rampazo (Orgs.). Recife, PE: Editora Massangana-Fundaj, 2017. 284 p.



By

MARCIO SÁ
marciodesa@gmail.com

ORCID: 0000-0002-1001-8381

Universidade Federal da Paraíba, Departamento de Ciências Sociais, João Pessoa, Paraíba, Brazil

Through 15 years of research, The Core of Organizational Studies and Society (named, in Portuguese, as Núcleo de Estudos Organizacionais e Sociedade, or NEOS) has already been consolidated as one of the main centers related to the area in Brazil. Energy, *Organizations and Society* is a volume that encompasses the mark of productivity and creativity that emanates from NEOS.

In its' organizers' words, the book aims to "debate the confluence between energy, organizations, and society in an interdisciplinary and necessarily critical way" (p. 9). The relevance of this type of debate stems from the fact that the Brazilian energy sector was structured on hydroelectric foundations, based on a type of calculation that highlighted that this is the least costly way—strictly in financial terms—to generate energy in a country with geoclimatic characteristics such as ours. Giving ideological support to this viewpoint—which has historically been unable to address the risks involved in actions based on the modern way of proceeding without reflexivity (Beck, 1992)—developmentalism places the rapid increase in electricity supply as imperative, as well as the economic growth that may occur. What is not explicit in this discourse is the direct side effects in specific and socially constituted territories (Santos, 2005). It is precisely in the sense of explaining and problematizing what such hegemonic discourse does not account for or address—the local socio-environmental developments of such an energy matrix—that this work offers significant contribution.

In addition to the presentation, the volume includes nine chapters prepared by specialists from different disciplines that problematize the energy issue in an articulated way with the various organizations involved and their most diverse social developments. The intertwining of the themes addressed in the chapters (cN) can be noted as a virtue in a book composed by numerous and diverse hands. It begins from the composition and (re)ordering of Brazilian electric systems (c1), passing through the hydro / hydroelectric technocentrism's pitfalls and class interests in sector decisions (c2). The discourse supporting the alleged condition of hydroelectricity clean energy is problematized (c3). It proceeds to discuss the premises of national planning for the sector and associated conflicts (c4), environmental licensing as a national policy instrument of the area (c5), and a case of licensing marked by great asymmetry in a process the authors called, "pain-concentrating," such as the suffering imposed on the places (c6). Continuing vigorously, the work seeks to address the change-oriented coping promoted by large hydroelectric projects in communities that (de)territorialized, can no longer recognize themselves on the ground where they step (c7), the marks

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

of hydroelectricity in the capitalist space production (c8), and, finally, an experience of mobilizing minorities threatened by another sector venture documentary analysis (c9). Furthermore, some reflections may be conjectured when we consider the possible global and local developments regarding to the themes synthesized above.

On one hand, the Chernobyl nuclear plant disaster in 1986 can be considered a landmark of the global dimensions that disasters related to the choice of certain energy production means can take. Undoubtedly, that event contributed to the ideas of Ulrich Beck (1992) to gain greater repercussion. He defends the idea that in a risk society, "society becomes reflexive (in the narrowest sense of the word), which means that it becomes a theme and a problem for itself" (Beck, 1997, p. 19). In the conventional modern paradigm, the German sociologist proposed a "reflexive" alternative, because we would be living in the "age of side effects." The energy issues addressed in the book reviewed here challenge us to incorporate the greater reflexivity necessary for intelligent life in our time; after all, energy production with a significantly lower socio-environmental impact—wind and solar, for example—needs much more growth throughout production. Finally, how much more global, social, and environmental damage will the planet and its inhabitants bear?

On the other hand, it was Milton Santos's conviction—considered revolutionary because he treated the geographical space as a "social instance, such as economy, culture and politics" (Souza, 2005, p. 252)—that "it is the territorial use, and not the territory itself, which makes it the object of social analysis" (Santos, 2005, p. 255). The reading of geographical space as a social instance is projected in the way Santos (2006) observed territory as a socio-historical construction—a phenomenon that imposes itself on nature. Territory would not be "just a set of natural systems and overlapping systems of things, territory can be understood as used territory, not the territory itself. The territory used is the ground plus the identity. Identity is the feeling of belonging to what belongs to us" (Santos, 2002, p. 15, author's griffin). The "belonging" to a place (and vice versa), as a shared sociocultural condition, allows us to highlight the identity dimension affected by enterprises such as hydroelectric ones. In other words, the social fabric implications of various communities and member's intimacy, deterritorialized because of the developmental paradigm still in vogue in Brazil, also have devastating potential on the social and intimate levels of those who cohabitate under a specific localism. Thus, it is necessary to add the losses of the various localized minorities that objectively suffer the collateral effects of models, such as the hydroelectric—still implemented today in a rather thoughtless way, to the threats on a global scale.

Overly necessary, these debates and their developments are also legacies of the last century and still need more force in the public scene of our country in the 21st century. In other words, we are not discussing "news," but something that unfortunately remains increasingly urgent.

Lastly, like other titles by Massangana-Fundaj Publishing House, the book is available for free download through its website: https://www.fundaj.gov.br/images/stories/editora/livros/livro_energia.pdf. Good reading!

REFERENCES

Beck, U. (1992). *Risk society: Towards a new modernity*. Londres, UK: Sage.

Beck, U. (1997). A reinvenção da política: Rumo a uma teoria da modernidade reflexiva. In A. Giddens, U. Beck, & S. Lash, *Modernização reflexiva*: *Política, tradição e estética na ordem social moderna* (pp. 11-79). São Paulo, SP: Editora Unesp.

Santos, M. (2002). *O Brasil: Território e sociedade no início do século XXI* (4a ed.). Rio de Janeiro, RJ: Record.

Santos, M. (2005). O retorno do território. *OSAL: Observatório Social de América Latina*, *CLACSO*, *6*(16), 255-261.

Santos, M. (2006). *A natureza do espaço: Técnica e tempo – Razão e emoção* (4a ed.). São Paulo, SP: Editora da Universidade de São Paulo.

Souza, M. A. (2005). Apresentação: Milton Santos, um revolucionário. *OSAL: Observatório Social de América Latina*, *CLACSO*, *6*(16), 251-254.

AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

The author declare that they participated in all stages of development of the manuscript. From the conceptualization and theoretical-methodological approach, as well the theoretical review (literature survey), and finally, writing and final review the article.

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

EDITORIAL INFORMATION 2019

ARTICLE STATUS		2018	%	2019[1]	%
	Submitted	786	100%	841	100%
Editorial (Format evaluation)	Inapropriate[2]	284	36%	326	39%
	Withdrawn before the blind review process	45	6%	36	4%
	Sent for desk review	457	58%	479	57%
Editor (desk review)	Rejected	211	46%	214	45%
	Rejected and resubmission	35	8%	44	9%
	Awaiting for desk review	29	6%	18	4%
	Sent to Scientific Editors	182	40%	203	42%
Scientific editorial board (preliminary review)	Rejected	79	17%	67	14%
	Rejected and resubmission	3	1%	12	3%
	In preliminary review stage	23	5%	19	4%
	Sent to Evaluators	77	17%	105	22%
Reviewers	Rejected	36	8%	37	8%
	Rejected and resubmission	7	2%	9	2%
	In double blind review	12	3%	23	5%
	Sent to authors for improving	22	5%	36	8%
	Articles accepted for publication	7	2%	19	4%

[1] Status on 01.17.2020 of the articles submitted this year.

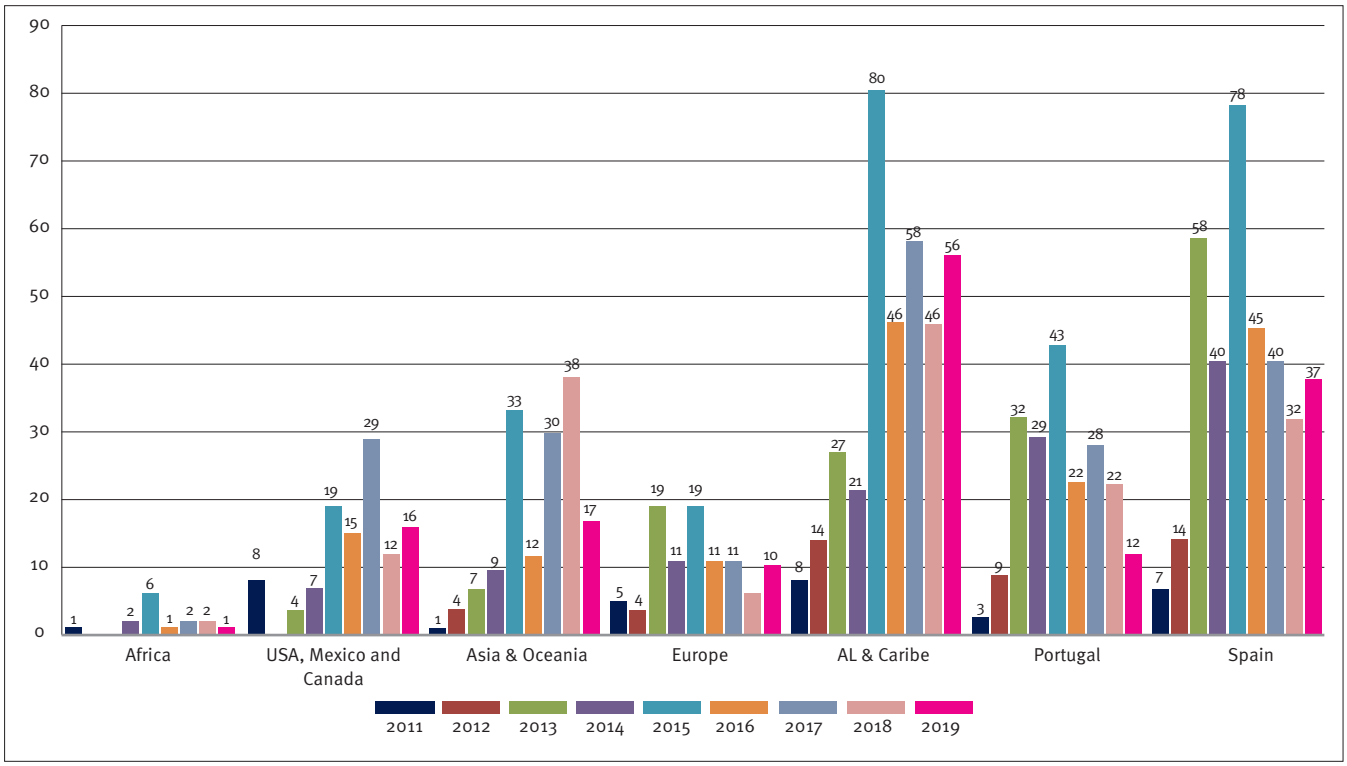
[2] The articles undergo format evaluation and detection of plagiarism through the iThenticate® software; the evaluation is carried out by the editorial staff, according to the norms established by the RAE Manual.

Note: The percentages do not consider articles inappropriate reject and withdrawn before the blind review process.

CC BY

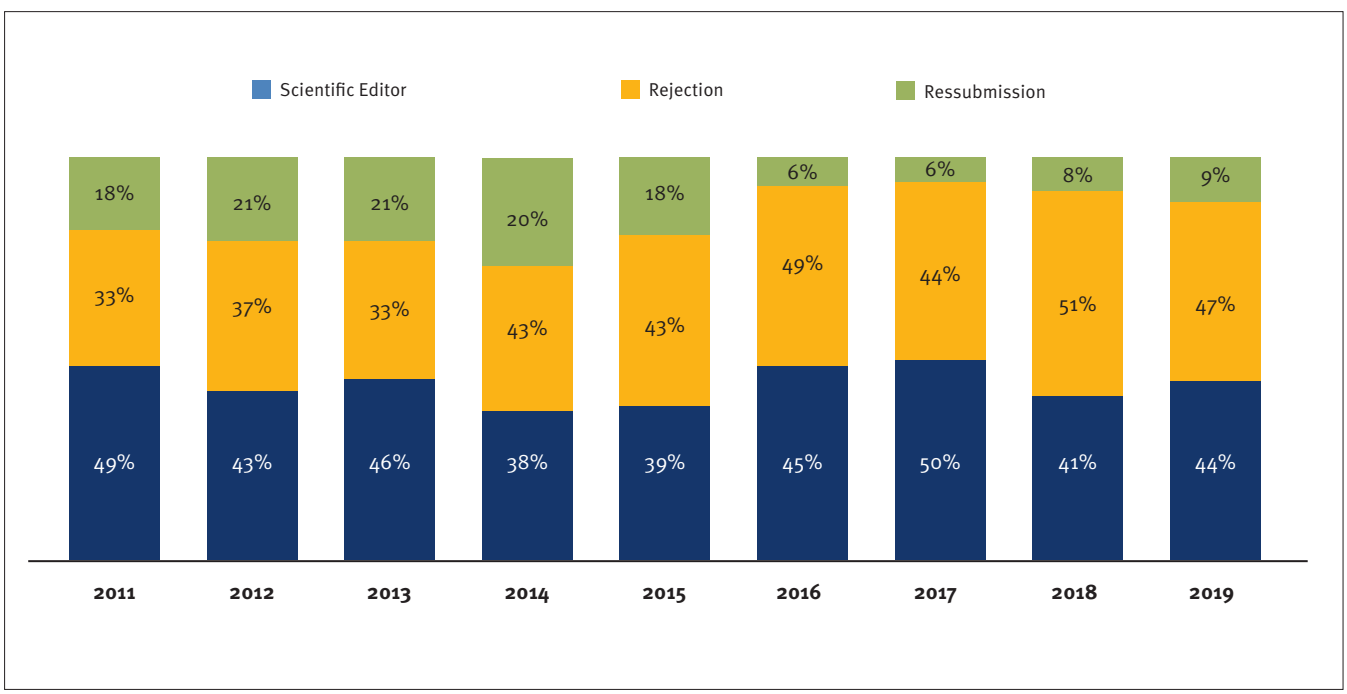
ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

SUBMISSIONS BY INTERNATIONAL AUTHORS



Note: Articles sent for desk review, after format evaluation and plagiarism check; and 2) It was considered the institution of the submitting author the article.

DESK REVIEW EVALUATION (ANNUAL)



Note: The percentages presented in the table refer to the total number of articles sent for desk review by the Editor-in-Chief.

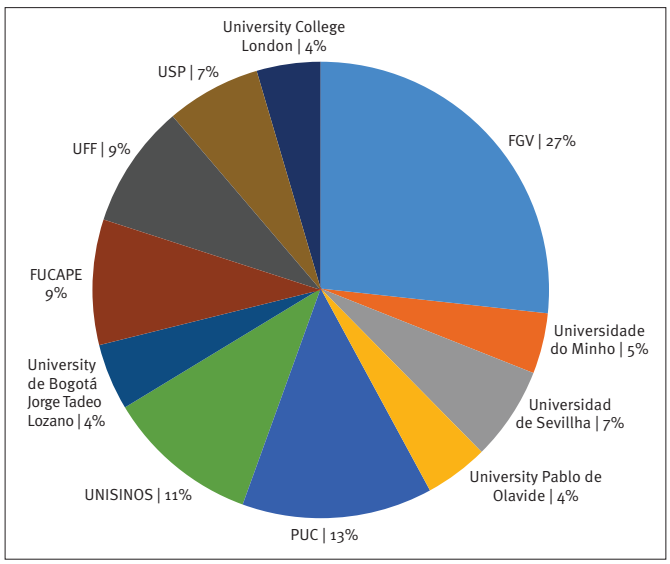
CC BY

ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

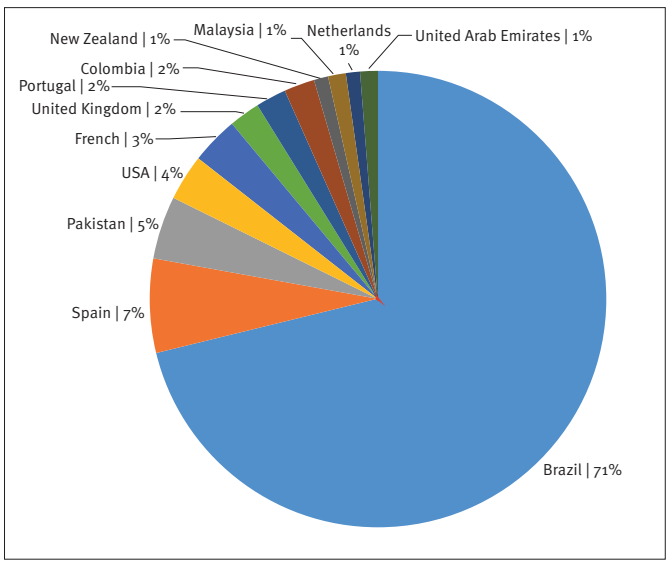
PUBLISHED ARTICLES

	2018	2019
Total number of published articles	48	38
Submitted for double-blind review	32	25
Guest authors	16	13
Geographical partnership between authors		
Brazilian authors only	32	24
International authors only	14	11
International collaboration only	2	3

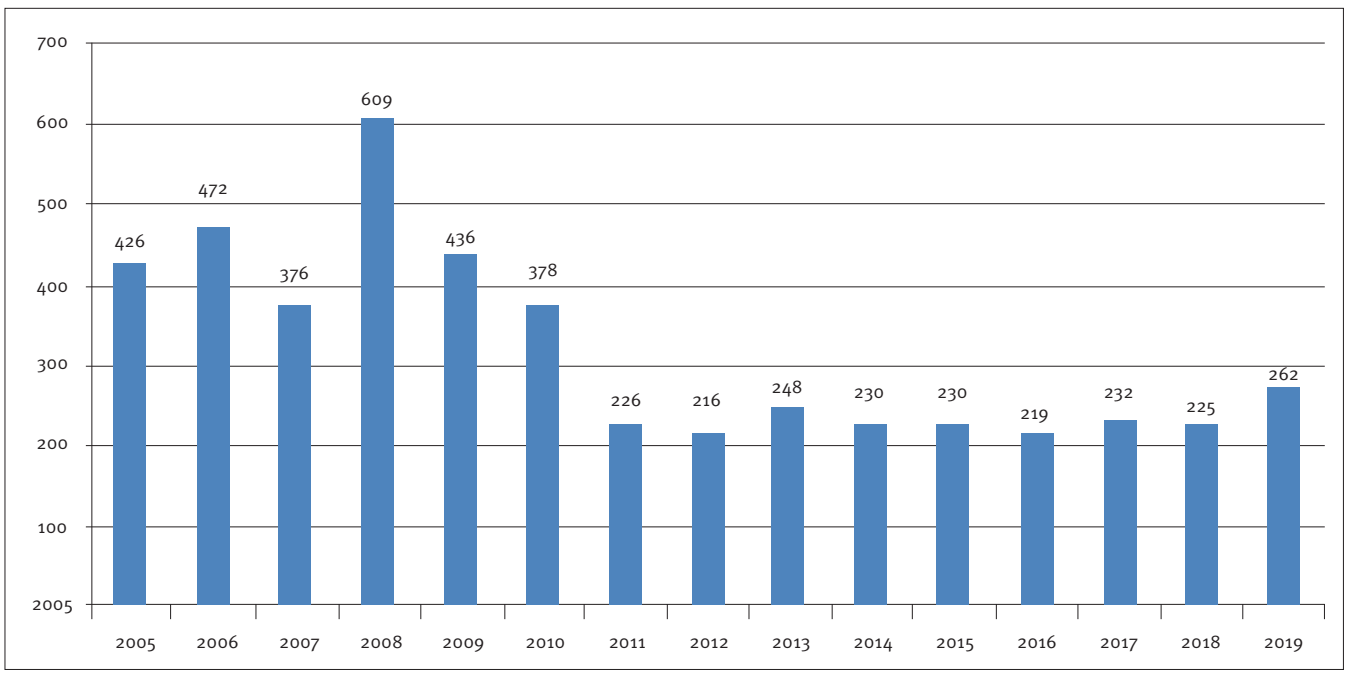
Institutional diversity in authorship of articles (%)



Geographical diversity in authorship of articles (%)



ANNUAL AVERAGE NUMBER FROM THE PROCESS OF EVALUATION UNTIL APPROVAL



CC BY

ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

COLLABORATORS

RAE thanks the researchers who put their time, experience, and wisdom at the service of the development of the articles submitted. This is a form of volunteer work fundamental for the improvement of our texts and one that contributes to the Brazilian academy of business administration. From January to December 2019, 291 collaborators participated, whose names are listed on page 76.

We recognize the valuable work of the members of the Scientific Editorial Board and Reviewers, and, as usual, we classify the year's best, whose collaboration was decisive for the quality of the articles published in RAE. Thirty-five researchers were classified based on three criteria: number of evaluations carried out, compliance with the deadlines for responding to the authors, and quality of the evaluation work. Each scientific editor participated in the preliminary evaluation and monitoring of three articles, and each took 11 days, on average, to complete his/her opinion. The evaluators who participated in our blind review process in 2019 carried out 2 evaluations and took 27 days to complete their opinions, on average.
Special Thanks!

Scientific Editors	Institution
Andre Luis de Castro Moura Duarte	INSPER
Anielson Barbosa da Silva	UFPB
Antonio Lopo Martinez	Fucape
Darcy Mitiko Mori Hanashiro	MACKENZIE
Diogo Henrique Helal	UFPB

Scientific Editors	Institution
Fernanda Finotti Perobelli	UFJF
Luciana Marques Vieira	FGV-EAESP
Marco Andre Mendes Primo	UFPE
Sergio Olavarrieta Soto	Universidad de Chile
Sidinei Rocha-de-Oliveira	UFRGS

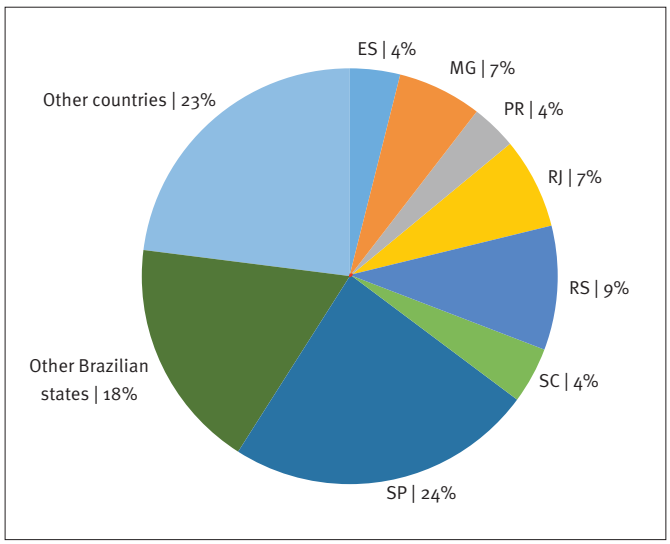
Reviewers	Institution
Alessandra de Sá Mello da Costa	PUC-Rio
Alexandre Reis Rosa	UFES
Anete Alberton	UNIVALI
Aurora Carneiro Zen	UFRGS
Bruno Felix	FUCAPE Business School
Fábio de Oliveira Paula	PUC-Rio
Fabio Grigoletto	UFSCAR
Flavio Bartmann	Columbia University
Francisco Vicente Sales Melo	UFPE
João Luiz Becker	FGV EAESP
John Williams	University of Otago
Jorge Brantes Ferreira	PUC-Rio
José Carlos Lázaro da Silva Filho	UFC
Josiane Silva de Oliveira	UEM

Reviewers	Institution
Juliana Bonomi Santos	Centro Universitário da FEI
Juliana Cristina Teixeira	UFES
Leandro Guissoni	FGV EAESP
Lucas Ayres Barreira de Campos Barros	USP FEA
Lucia Salmonson Guimarães Barros	FGV-EAESP
Maribel Carvalho Suarez	UFRJ COPPEAD
Nigel Stanger	University of Otago
Rafael Alcadipani	FGV EAESP
Roberto Carlos Klann	FURB
Sergio Wanderley	UNIGRANRIO
William Lekse	University of Pittsburgh

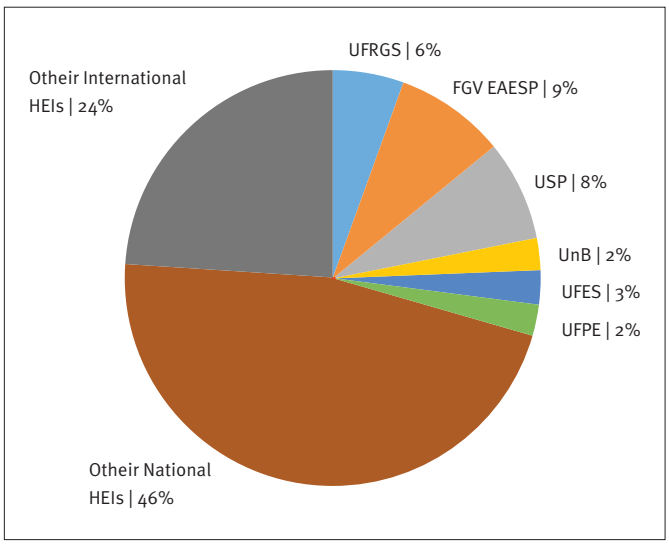
CC BY

ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

Geographic diversity of the Scientific Editorial Board and Reviewers



Institutional diversity of the Scientific Editorial Board and Reviewers



Adéle Carneiro
FGV EAESP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Adriana Fumi Chim Miki
UFCG, Campina Grande, PB, Brazil

Adriana Rodrigues Silva
UFPA, Belém, PA, Brazil

Adriana Takahashi
UFRGS, Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil

Alessandra de Sá Mello da Costa
PUC-Rio, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil

Alex Fernando Borges
UFU, Uberlândia, MG, Brazil

Alexandre de Pádua Carrieri
UFMG, Belo Horizonte, MG, Brazil

Alexandre Faria
FGV EBAPE, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil

Alexandre Reis Rosa
UFES, Vitória, ES, Brazil

Alketa Peci
FGV EBAPE, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil

Amon Barros
University of Essex, Colchester, United Kingdom

Ana Marques
University of East Angli, , Norwich, United Kingdom

Anderson Mól
UFRN, Natal, RN, Brazil

André Carlos Busanelli de Aquino
FEA-RP/USP, Ribeirão Preto, SP, Brazil

Andre Luis de Castro Moura Duarte
INSPER, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

André Luiz Maranhão de Souza-Leão
UFPE, Recife, PE, Brazil

Andre Silva
Universidade Nova de Lisboa, Lisboa, Portugal

Andrea Maria Accioly Fonseca Minardi
INSPER, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Andrea Poleto Oltramari
UFRGS, Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil

Andrea Raymundo Balle
UniFBV | Wyden, Recife, PE, Brazil

Andrew Finger
UFAL, Maceió, AL, Brazil

Andson de Aguiar
FEA-USP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Anete Alberton
UNIVALI, Itajaí, SC, Brazil

Angela Scheffer
UFRGS, Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil

Anielson Barbosa da Silva
UFPB, João Pessoa, PB, Brazil

Antoni Roig Telo
Universitat Oberta de Catalunya, Catalunha, Spain

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

Antonio Domingos Padula
UFRGS, Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil

Antonio Lopo Martinez
FUCAPE Business School, Vitória, ES, Brazil

Ariston Azevedo
UFRGS, Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil

Arun Kumar
The University of York, York, United Kingdom

Aureliano Angel Bressan
UFMG, Belo Horizonte, MG, Brazil

Aurora Zen
UFRGS, Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil

Ben, Wooliscroft
University of Otago, Dunedin, New Zealand

Benjamin Rosenthal
FGV EAESP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Betina Magalhães Bitencourt
UFRGS, Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil

Bill Cooke
The University of York, York, United Kingdom

Bolivar Godinho
UNIFESP, Osasco, SP, Brazil

Bruno Brandão Fischer
UNICAMP, Campinas, SP, Brazil

Bruno Felix
FUCAPE Business School, Vitória, ES, Brazil

Bruno Ferreira Frascaroli
UFPB, João Pessoa, PB, Brazil

Bruno Henrique Rocha Fernandes
PUC-PR, Curitiba, PR, Brazil

Cândido Vieira Borges Junior
UFG, Goiânia, GO, Brazil

Carla Abdalla
FAAP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Carlos Ricardo Rossetto
UNIVALI, Itajaí , SC, Brazil

Celma de Oliveira Ribeiro
POLI-USP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Celso Matos
UNISINOS, São Leopoldo, RS, Brazil

César Tureta
UFES, Vitória, ES, Brazil

Cintia Rodrigues de Oliveira
UFU, Uberlândia, MG, Brazil

Claudia Ott
University of Otago, Dunedin, New Zealand

Claudia Emiko Yoshinaga
FGV EAESP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Cristiane Pizzutti dos Santos
UFRGS, Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil

Cristiano Machado Costa
UNISINOS, São Leopoldo, RS, Brazil

Cristina Espinheira Costa Pereira
FEA-USP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Daiane Mülling Neutzling
UFRGS, Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil

Daiane Scaraboto
Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile, Santiago, Chile

Daniel Calbino Pinheiro
UFSJ, São João del-Rei, MG, Brazil

Daniel Pacheco Lacerda
UNISINOS, São Leopoldo, RS, Brazil

Daniele dos Santos Fontoura
IFRS, Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil

Danielle Mantovani
UFPR, Curitiba, PR, Brazil

Danilo Dantas
HEC-Montréal, Montréal, Canada

Darcy Mitiko Mori Hanashiro
MACKENZIE, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Denis Renato de Oliveira
UFLA, Lavras, MG, Brazil

Denise Franca Barros
UNIGRANRIO, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil

Denize Grzybovski
UPF, Passo Fundo, RS, Brazil

Dimária Silva e Meirelles
MACKENZIE, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Diogo Henrique Helal
UFPB, João Pessoa, PB, Brazil

Dirceu da Silva
UNICAMP, Campinas, SP, Brazil

Domingo Enrique Ribeiro-Soriano
Universidad de Valencia, València, Spain

Duarte Pimentel
ISPA, Lisboa, Portugal

Edgar Reyes Junior
UNB, Brasília, DF, Brazil

Edilson Paulo
UFRGS, Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil

Edmilson de Oliveira Lima
UNINOVE, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Eduardo Torres
Universidad de Chile, Santiago, Chile

Eduardo Davel
UFBA, Salvador, BA, Brazil

Eduardo Fonseca Mendes
FGV EBAPE, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil

Eduardo Guedes Villar
UFPR, Curitiba, PR, Brazil

Eliciane Maria da Silva
UNIMEP, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil

Elisabete Félix
Universidade de Évora, Évora, Portugal

Eliseu Martins
FEA-USP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Elizabeth Krauter
FEA-RP/USP, Ribeirão Preto, SP, Brazil

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

Emerson Maccari
IEA-USP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Eric Heck
Erasmus University, Rotterdam, Holanda

Etienne Ollion
Linköping University, Linköping, Sweden

Etienne Cardoso Abdala
UFU, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil

Eusebio Scornavacca
University of Baltimore, Baltimore, USA

Fábio de Oliveira Paula
PUC-Rio, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil

Fábio Grigoletto
UFSCAR, São Calos, SP, Brazil

Fabio Iglesias
UNB, Brasília, DF, Brazil

Farah Diba Abrantes Braga
INSPER, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Fátima de Souza Freire
UFBA, Salvador, BA, Brazil

Fernanda Filgueiras Sauerbronn
UFRJ FACC, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil

Fernanda Finotti Perobelli
UFJF, Juiz de Fora, MG, Brazil

Fernanda Tarabal Lopes
UFRGS, Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil

Fernando Caio Galdi
FUCAPE Business School, Vitória, ES, Brazil

Filipe Sobral
FGV EBAPE, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil

Flavio Bartmann
Columbia University, Columbia, USA

Florencia Luci
Universidad de Buenos Aires, Buenos Aires, Argentina

Francis Kanashiro Meneghetti
UTFPR, Curitiba, PR, Brazil

Francisco Antonio Coelho Junior
UNB, Brasília, DF, Brazil

Francisco Henrique Figueiredo de Castro Junior
FEA-USP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Francisco Leite
FEA-USP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Francisco Sales
UFPE, Recife, PE, Brazil

Frederico Roman Ramos
FGV EAESP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Gabriel Pundrich
Università Bocconi, Milão, Itália

Gabrielle Durepos
Mount Saint Vincent University, Halifax, Canada

Gazi Islam
INSPER, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Gerlando Lima
University of Illinois, Illinois, USA

Gesinaldo Ataíde Cândido
UFPB, Campina Grande, PB, Brazil

Glauco Henrique de Sousa Mendes
UFSCAR, São Calos, SP, Brazil

Glícia Vieira dos Santos
UFES, Vitória, ES, Brazil

Gracyanne Freire de Araujo
UFS, São Cristóvão, SE, Brazil

Gregorio Perez-Arrau
Universidad de Santiago de Chile, Santiago, Chile

Gustavo Augusto Lima de Campos
UECE, Fortaleza, CE, Brazil

Gustavo Coelho Rezende
UFSC, Florianópolis, SC, Brazil

Henrique Luiz Côrrea
Crummer Graduate School of Business, Florida, USA

Henrique M. Barros
Centro Universitário da FEI, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Henrique Muzzio
UFPE, Recife, PE, Brazil

Hilka Pelizza Vier Machado
UNOESC, Joaçaba, SC, Brazil

Hsia Sheng
FGV EAESP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Hyun-Woo Lee
Texas University, Texas, USA

Igor Baptista de Oliveira Medeiros
UNIPAMPA, Bagé, RS, Brazil

Isabela Morais
UFOP, Ouro Preto, MG, Brazil

Jairo Laser Procianoy
UFRGS, Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil

Jani Merikivi
Grenoble Ecole de Management, Grenoble, French

Jeffrey Barrows
U.S. Air Forces, Washington, USA

Jerffeson Teixeira de Souza
UECE, Fortaleza, CE, Brazil

Jesuína Maria Pereira Ferreira
UniFBV | Wyden, Recife, PE, Brazil

Jillian Gordon
University of Glasgow, Glasgow, United Kingdom

João Felipe Sauerbronn
UNIGRANRIO, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil

João Luiz Becker
FGV EAESP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

João Pinheiro de Barros Neto
PUC-SP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

Joelson Sampaio
FGV EESP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

John Williams
University of Otago, Dunedin, New Zealand

Jorge Jacob
Columbia University, Columbia, USA

Jorge Brantes Ferreira
PUC-Rio, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil

Jorge Carneiro
FGV EAESP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Jorge Verschoore
UNISINOS, São Leopoldo, RS, Brazil

José Alves Dantas
UNB, Brasília, DF, Brazil

José Barros
PUC-SP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

José Carlos Lázaro da Silva Filho
UFC, Fortaleza, CE, Brazil

José Elias Feres de Almeida
UFES, Vitória, ES, Brazil

José Mauro C. Hernandez
EACH-USP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Josiane Silva de Oliveira
UEM, Maringá, PR, Brazil

Juan Espinosa-Cristia
Universidad Andrés Bell, Santiago, Chile

Juliana Arcoverde Mansur Kopp
FGV EBAPE, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil

Juliana Bonomi
Centro Universitário da FEI, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Juliana Cristina Teixeira
UFES, Vitória, ES, Brazil

Juliana Porto
UNB, Brasília, DF, Brazil

Júlio Figueiredo
ESPM, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Júlio Francisco Blumetti Facó
UFABC, Santo André, SP, Brazil

Kevin Tennent
The University of York, York, United Kingdom

Leandro Guissoni
FGV EAESP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Leonardo Nicolao
Texas University, Texas, USA

Leonardo Barcellos
Emory University, Atlanta, USA

Leonardo Goliatt da Fonseca
UFJF, Juiz de Fora, MG, Brazil

Leopoldo Blugerman
Universidade Nacional de General Sarmiento, Buenos Aires, Argentina

Letícia Dias Fantinel
UFES, Vitória, ES, Brazil

Lilian Soares Outtes Wanderley
UFPE, Recife, PE, Brazil

Liliane Furtado
FGV EBAPE, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil

Lucas Ayres Barros
FEA-USP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Lúcia Barros
FGV EAESP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Luciana Marques Vieira
FGV EAESP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Luciana Walther
UFSJ, São João del-Rei, MG, Brazil

Luciane Reginato Cornacchione
FEA-USP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Luciano Barin Cruz
HEC-Montréal, Canada, Canada

Ludmila Guimaraes
CEFET-MG, Belo Horizonte, MG, Brazil

Luiz Alex Silva Saraiva
UFMG, Belo Horizonte, MG, Brazil

Maisa de Souza Ribeiro
FEA-RP/USP, Ribeirão Preto, SP, Brazil

Marcela Zangaro
Universidad Nacional de Quilmes, Buenos Aires, Argentina

Marcela Mandiola
Universidad Alberto Hurtado, Santiago, Chile

Marcello Romani Dias
FGV EAESP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Marcelo Bispo
UFPB, João Pessoa, PB, Brazil

Marcelo Botelho da Costa Moraes
FEA-RP/USP, Ribeirão Preto, SP, Brazil

Marcelo Vinhal Nepomuceno
HEC-Montréal, Canada, Canada

Márcia Bianchi
UFRGS, Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil

Marcia Cristina Zago Novaretti
UNINOVE, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Márcia Maria Espejo
UFMS, Pioneiros, MS, Brazil

Marcio Mota
UECE, Fortaleza, CE, Brazil

Marcio Pascoal Cassandre
UEM, Maringá, PR, Brazil

Marcio Sá
UFPE, Recife, PE, Brazil

Marco Andre Mendes Primo
UFPE, Recife, PE, Brazil

Marco Aurélio Carino Bouzada
Universidade Estacio de Sá, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil

Marcos Barros
Grenoble Ecole de Management, Grenoble, French

Marcos Vinícius Pereira Correa
UFPR, Curitiba, PR, Brazil

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X

Marcus Vinícius Peinado Gomes
University of Exeter, Exeter, United Kingdom

Margareth Borella
UCS, Caxias do Sul, RS, Brazil

María Ángeles Ramón Jerónimo
Universidad Pablo de Olavide, Sevilla, Spain

Maria Carolina Martinez Andion
UDESC, Florianópolis, SC, Brazil

Maria Carolina Zanette
FGV EAESP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

María Jesús Yagüe Guillén
Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, Madrid, Spain

Mariana Lima Bandeira
Universidad Andina Simón Bolívar, Quito, Equador

Maribel Carvalho Suarez
UFRJ COPPEAD, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil

Marie Anne Macadar
UFRJ COPPEAD, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil

Marilia Bonzanini Bossle
IFRS, Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil

Marina Dantas de Figueiredo
UNIFOR, Fortaleza, CE, Brazil

Mario Aquino Alves
FGV EAESP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Mario Henrique Ogasawara
ESPM, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Mateus Canniatti Ponchio
ESPM, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Mathew Parackal
University of Otago, Dunedin, New Zealand

Mauricio Jara
Universidad de Chile, Santiago, Chile

Maurício Reinert do Nascimento
UEM, Maringá, PR, Brazil

Mauricio Serva
UFSC, Florianópolis, SC, Brazil

Melissa Prado
Nova School of Business and Economics, Carcavelos, Portugal

Michael Rowlinson
University of Exeter, Exeter, United Kingdom

Miguel Imas
Kingston University, Kingston, United Kingdom

Priscila Laczynski de Souza Miguel
FGV EAESP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Mirta Vuotto
Universidad de Buenos Aires, Buenos Aires, Argentina

Moacir Manoel Rodrigues Junior
FURB, Blumenau, SC, Brazil

Mônica Carvalho Alves Cappelle
UFLA, Lavras, MG, Brazil

Mônica de Aguiar Mac-Allister da Silva
UFBA, Salvador, BA, Brazil

Nadia Kassouf Pizzinatto
UNIMEP, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil

Nélsio Rodrigues de Abreu
UFPB, João Pessoa, PB, Brazil

Niall, MacKenzie
University of Glasgow, Glasgow, United Kingdom

Nigel Stanger
University of Otago, Dunedin, New Zealand

Nik Nikolov
Appalachian State Universit, Carolina do Norte, USA

Norberto Hoppen
UNISINOS, São Leopoldo, RS, Brazil

Otavio Figueiredo
UFRJ COPPEAD, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil

Ozan Alakavuklar
Universiteit Utrecht, Utrecht, Holanda

Pablo Isla
Universidad Técnica Federico Santa María, Valparaíso, Chile

Patricia Guarnieri
UNB, Brasília, DF, Brazil

Patricia Maria Bortolon
UFES, Vitória, ES, Brazil

Paula Chies Schommer
UDESC, Florianópolis, SC, Brazil

Paulo A. Cauchick Miguel
UFSC, Florianópolis, SC, Brazil

Paulo Lustosa
UNB, Brasília, DF, Brazil

Peter Wanke
UFRJ COPPEAD, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil

Pietro Dolci
UNISC, Santa Cruz do Sul, RS, Brazil

Rafael Alcadipani
FGV EAESP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Rajah Rasiah
UNU-MERIT, Maastricht, Holanda

Raphael Schlickmann
UFSC, Florianópolis, SC, Brazil

Renata Gomes de Jesus
IFES, Vitória, ES, Brazil

Renato Marcondes
FEA-RP/USP, Ribeirão Preto, SP, Brazil

Renato Rocha Souza
FGV EMAP, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil

Ricardo Limongi French Coelho
UFG, Goiânia, GO, Brazil

Ricardo Silveira Martins
UFMG, Belo Horizonte, MG, Brazil

Roberto Carlos Klann
FURB, Blumenau, SC, Brazil

Roberto Gutiérrez
Universidad de los Andes, Bogotá, Colômbia

Roberto Patrus
PUC-Minas, Belo Horizonte, MG, Brazil

Robson Silva Rocha
Aarhus University, Aarhus, Dinamarca

Rodrigo Mazorra
UCL Centre for Blockchain Technologies, Londres, United Kingdom

Rodrigo Baroni de Carvalho
PUC-Minas, Belo Horizonte, MG, Brazil

Rogério da Silveira
SEFAZ, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Rogério Quintella
UFBA, Salvador, BA, Brazil

Ronan Torres Quintão
CEFET-MG, Belo Horizonte, MG, Brazil

Roney Sindeaux
UNIMONTES, Montes Claros, MG, Brazil

Rosalia Aldraci Barbosa Lavarda
UFSC, Florianópolis, SC, Brazil

Salomão Alencar
UFPE, Recife, PE, Brazil

Salvador, del Barrio
Universidad de Granada, Andaluzia, Spain

Samir Adamoglu de Oliveira
UFPB, João Pessoa, PB, Brazil

Samir Sayed
UNIFESP, Osasco, SP, Brazil

Sander Zwanenburg
University of Otago, Dunedin, New Zealand

Sandro Cabral
INSPER, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Sandro Vieira Soares
FEA-USP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Sascha Kraus
ESCE International Business School, Paris, French

Sergio Bulgacov
UP, Curitiba, PR, Brazil

Sergio Olavarrieta Soto
Universidad de Chile, Santiago, Chile

Sergio Wanderley
UNIGRANRIO, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil

Sidinei Rocha-de-Oliveira
UFRGS, Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil

Sigmar Malvezzi
IP-USP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Silvia Caicedo
UNIVALLE, Cali, Colômbia

Silvia Marcia Russi de Domenico
MACKENZIE, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Silvia Pereira de Castro Casa Nova
FEA-USP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Stefano Za
Luiss Guido Carli, Roma, Itália

Stella Naomi Moriguchi
UFU, Uberlândia, MG, Brazil

Stewart Clegg
University of Technology Sydney, Sydney, Austrália

Susane Petinelli Souza
UFES, Vitória, ES, Brazil

Suzete Antonieta Lizote
UNIVALI, Itajaí, SC, Brazil

Tania Casado
FEA-USP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Tânia Modesto Veludo-de-Oliveira
FGV EAESP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Tânia Pereira Christopoulos
EACH-USP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Teresa Fayos Gardo
Universidad de Valencia, València, Spain

Teresia D. L. van Ad. de Macedo-Soares
PUC-Rio, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil

Terrance Weatherbee
Acadia University, Wolfville, Canada

Thiago Ferreira Dias
UFRN, Natal, RN, Brazil

Tomás de Aquino Guimarães
UNB, Brasília, DF, Brazil

Vanessa Brulon
FGV EBAPE, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil

Verônica Macário
UFCG, Campina Grande, PB, Brazil

Vicente Lima Crisóstomo
UFCG, Fortaleza, CE, Brazil

Vilmar Tondolo
UFPEL, Pelotas, RS, Brazil

Vinicius Augusto Brunassi Silva
FECAP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Vinícius Picanço Rodrigues
INSPER, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Wagner Kamakura
Rice University, Houston, USA

Wagner Ladeira
UFRGS, Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil

Wellington Zangari
IP-USP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Wescley Silva Xavier
UFV, Viçosa, MG, Brazil

Wilian Feitosa
IFSP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

William, Lekse
University of Pittsburgh Pittsburgh, USA

William Antonio Borges
UEM, Maringá, PR, Brazil

Wilson Aparecido Costa de Amorim
FEA-USP, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Wilson Toshiro Nakamura
MACKENZIE, São Paulo, SP, Brazil

Yara Lucia Mazziotti Bulgacov
UP, Curitiba, PR, Brazil

Yeda Swirski de Souza
UNISINOS, São Leopoldo, RS, Brazil

 CC BY ISSN 0034-7590; eISSN 2178-938X