

# **Campbellsville University**

**Volume 1A  
December 2020**

## **Journal of Business, Economics and Technology**



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### **Abstract**

There is much discussion in literature regarding responsibility as to the quality of our food and its impact on public health by associated actors such as governments, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), corporations, and consumers. Global health issues related to noncommunicable diseases (NCDs) and the human right to food have resulted in a growing concern for food related issues. Discussion in existing literature points to many differing viewpoints pertaining to the global issues surrounding food from production through consumption. While there is an abundance of literature, many of these solutions assume actors view the issues in the same manner and have similar concerns with finding potential solutions. As a result, under the current model, in 2014, the United Nations concluded that very little progress has been made. With current paradigms interested in institutional and collective partnerships with differing ethical and moral considerations, it is not difficult to understand why broad-brush solutions have not gained traction. This article provides a general introduction of the issues and briefly discusses current models and potential considerations in an effort to foster continued research in this area and possibly refocus efforts toward a greater understanding of the individual.

## **Discussion Reset on Public Health**

### **Overview**

Many studies have been conducted offering potential solutions to the global health issue related to noncommunicable diseases (NCDs) and review of the literature demonstrates the growing concern for food related issues. While opinions on potential solutions are abundant, they appear to provide blanket solutions to the issues with many calling on private-public partnerships and pointing to corporations to do more under the heading of corporate social responsibility (CSR). While efforts such as these are underway to understand differing levels of effect and interaction, many continue to provide blanket solutions to the issues with many still calling on private-public partnerships and pointing to corporations to do more under the guise of CSR; but this all falls short. Referring to these proposed government and industry partnerships as potential solutions, in 2014 the United Nations concluded that very little progress has been made under this model (Marks 2017). This article is a general introduction of the issues and briefly discusses current models and potential considerations to foster continued research in this area.

### **Issue Overview**

Globally, approximately 821 million people were under-nourished in 2017, an increase of approximately 17 million from 2016 numbers (FAO, IFAD, UNICEF, WFP, & WHO 2018). While hunger is one of the issues associated with being under-nourished, obesity and noncommunicable diseases (NCDs) are also a concern as globally they are the leading cause of death (Mialon, Swinburn, Wate, Tukana, & Sacks 2016). Not only have NCDs such as cardiovascular disease, cancers, chronic respiratory diseases, and diabetes become the leading cause of premature death, they have also become the leading cause of disability; a distinction that has some referring to them as “profit driven epidemics” (Buse, Tanaka, & Hawkes 2017, p. 2). The NCD issue affecting the health of an individual as a result of consuming energy dense nutrient-poor (EDNP) foods, should continue to be a focus for research as healthcare costs have also remained at the forefront of national discussion in the U.S.

Related to NCDs, many in the U.S. experience what is identified as food insecurity, a term that is associated with negative health impacts, subsequently leading to an increase in healthcare costs (Gundersen, Kreider, & Pepper 2018). This term, food insecurity, is a term which points to the lack of money and access to food and defined as “access by all people at all times to enough food for an active, healthy life” (Coleman-Jensen, Rabbitt, Gregory, & Singh 2018) by the USDA. To help address this, the USDA has tried to increase access to food by low-income households through nutrition assistance programs with the goal of increased nutritional education as well as healthier diets. In 2017, data from the annual U.S. Census Bureau food security survey showed that of the food insecure households, 58 percent utilized Federal programs such as the Special Supplemental Nutrition Program for Woman, Infants, and Children (WIC); the Supplement Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP); and the National School Lunch Program (Coleman-Jensen et al. 2018). This is important as increased access to quality food can reduce a variety of health issues (Dominick, Olynk, Ruple, Grennell, & Acharya 2018). But are these efforts enough?

## Considerations

Many studies have been conducted offering potential solutions to the global health issue related to noncommunicable diseases (NCDs) and review of the literature demonstrates the growing concern for food related issues. While existing opinions on potential solutions are abundant, they appear to provide blanket solutions. Current efforts such as these are underway to understand differing levels of effect and interaction, but many continue to provide broad solutions to the issues; and all fall short.

### Economy and Ethics

NCD issues not only affect the individual from a health perspective, but also have an economic component for individuals, families, governments and businesses (Buse, Tanaka, & Hawkes 2017). While multiple solutions from differing actors have been proposed in literature, it may be useful to acknowledge the role of ethics in business which is interested in what is right or wrong in the business context and is based on the same set of ethical consideration in human behavior. Business ethics has further been discussed as “the conflict between economic and ethical rationality, between interests of individual and community, between the principle of maximizing profits and morality” (Košútová & Jarossová 2014, p. 35). In a market focused global economy with obvious economic components, it is not surprising that proposed solutions have failed to gain traction as ethical and moral considerations will differ across actors. It is important to acknowledge the existing conflict between potential economic impacts and ethical CSR as these considerations can cause a corporation to be in conflict with itself, thus, a potential stumbling block for solutions with negative corporate economic impacts.

### Food as a Right

The promotion of increased private sector investment in agriculture does not address the layers of poverty leading to hunger. The Universal Declaration for Human Rights (UDHR), Article 25, identifies the right to food as “a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and of his family, including food” (Cordes & Bulman 2016, p. 96). In addition, the only human right in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) identified as being fundamental is the “fundamental right of everyone to be free from hunger” (“U.N. General Assembly” 1966, art. 11, para. 2). It can be argued that this right is negatively affected by large-scale land-based investment (LSLBI) which harmed as opposed to helped the communities in which they operate while under protections afforded to corporate investors and communities. For example, large scale cultivation globally can displace the families and farmers that rely on the land they live for current food access (Cordes & Bulman 2016). These investments have immediate impacts on the world’s poorest and food insecure, removing a valuable source of healthy food transferring the land resource to the control of the global marketplace. Identifying links such as this between production on a mass scale through its impact on the individual where socioeconomic status (SES) plays a role, is important as broad-brush solutions have been offered that assumes all actors have the same ethical, moral, and resource supported decisions and options for choice.

## Response Briefs

Currently, there does not appear to be a clear-cut solution to the nature of responsibilities surrounding the food access and health discussions necessary to impact NCDs. Increased government regulation and intervention through regulatory action is called on by some to help lessen the health impacts from the food industry. The transnational corporations (TNCs) involved in production have been increasingly recognized as playing a role in health outcomes which included NCDs. The increased regulatory path has been concerned with viewing and addressing the corporations (which has been granted rights of natural persons) as an institution, rather than individual industries (Anaf, Baum, Fisher, Harris, & Friel 2017). Focusing then on the corporation, corporate social responsibility (CSR) which looks to establish socially responsible business practices has emerged as one of the leaders in the discussions on proposed solutions independently of what is lawfully required (Hsieh 2017). Surrounding the health discussion, the debate includes providing accurate food related data countering that which can be affected by “noisy” (Calveras & Ganuza 2016) information from media, advertisement, and lobbying.

Others call for public-private partnerships which attempt to link discussion from the business ethics standpoint with health sciences, CSR, and health ethics. This call also includes regulatory measures as a means of accountability toward what has been called the moral responsibility of business (Tempels, Verweij, & Blok 2017). In additions to regulatory intervention, CSR, and public-private partnerships, benefit corporations are a relatively new model under discussion (Cetindamar & Ntim 2018) that serves to establish social goals of business in addition to profit (Bend & King 2014). The focus of these for-profit corporations is to not only be on owners, but also on stakeholders and includes not only commercial interests of the company, but also social benefits. The call on this model as part of the solution looks to increase the accountability of corporations beyond profit and apply it to an increased group of stakeholders (Kurland, 2018). In contrast, corporations who are confused on the issue of responsibility relating to public health themselves - point back to the consumer (Mialon, Swinburn, Allender, & Sacks 2016) as having the ultimate responsibility through choice. It is important to note that there are other proposed solutions surrounding the debate, such as local movements, not mentioned in this brief overview. With so many actors, each with individual viewpoints on responsibility carrying the discussion into the philosophical realm of what should be done, it is clear that a top-down discussion may not be the path to that leads to positive change.

## Conclusions

The current models have made little progress in carried out or continued action toward sustained solutions. Government regulation is impacted by many facets including lobbying by corporations with strong political and economic power regions they operate as demonstrated in a recent study in Fiji (Mialon, Swinburn, Wate et al. 2016). One could also debate the idea of treating corporations as entities with rights similar to that of an individual. The debate surrounding corporations has seemingly taken a step back from the idea that the corporation is established to make money for its shareholders and has applied the idea of social responsibility that contradicts the purpose of market driven activity. Therefore, this model must understand that CSR activities will only go so far as to positively impact economic conditions of the

company and the food industry must participate to avoid economic and brand setbacks (Kim 2017). In other words, participation will be constrained by perceived corporate benefits relating to the adoption of CSR practices. The discussion surrounding the sustainability of benefit corporations is fairly new, but one concern will be how to maintain private investment and interest when greater returns are found elsewhere. This model seems to assume the same ethical and moral principles across varying actors in an organization – a view that time will shed light on, but has the ability to drive participants toward more lucrative business endeavors.

Philosophical broad-brush solutions such as these which project ethical and moral principles assume that all play by the same rules, or at least view the issues in a similar fashion. However, when taking a bottom-up rather than a top-down approach, one begins to see that not all participants, from production to consumption, view problems the same way – or for that matter, even see the same problems. Whereas the corporation may view the issue as that of individual choice as options are available to the general public, the individual may be constrained by purchasing power, access, and educational constraints. This simple understanding of a complex issue points to a potential reason progress has been slow, each entity may view the issue as being something different which then leads to proposed solutions with no concise focus to implement change. There is thus a need to understand the issues at various levels while considering the concerns of each actor in an effort to understand not only what one is willing to do, but what they are capable of. In an attempt to move back to the basics and start the discussion over from a bottom up approach, it is essential to understand the needs of the individual as the individual is not only the subject of consumption as consumer, but is also the topic of concern in the NCD discussion. Here, the door is open to better understand the individual instead of focusing on the collective participants and expecting them to agree on solutions for issues they do not agree on.

With this, we may begin to move past projecting actions we would like to see happen and start with those things that are possible by meeting various actors and participants where they are as opposed to starting the conversation by projecting ideas at the outset of where they should be. This understanding of meeting participants across varying levels where they are may serve to be a starting point for future conversation and reset the narrative relating to public health in an effort to address the human right to food and subsequently positively affecting the NCD rate globally.

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## Transformational Leadership in the United Methodist Church: An Empirical Investigation of Selected Churches in the Elizabethtown, Kentucky, District

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### Abstract

The goal of this study was to uncover what components of transformational leadership were exhibited in both declining and growing churches, using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) assessment tool (Bass & Avolio, 2004). The study was designed to determine whether a relationship exists between church type and MLQ scores. It was hypothesized that a lack of transformational leadership in congregations within the United Methodist Church has the potential for hindering the functioning and growth of these churches, and that it could perhaps even lead to the decline of the church congregations. In order to investigate this relationship, the pastors and congregants of two growing churches and two declining churches were asked to complete the MLQ survey. The researcher found that there was a significant difference in both pastor and congregant MLQ scores between the declining and growing churches, with growing churches having significantly higher scores than declining churches.

Key words: Transformational leadership, church leadership, organizational growth, and organizational decline.

### Introduction

Leadership has a salient role in influencing and shaping organizations. In the present study the role of leadership, specifically transformational leadership, in the United Methodist Church was examined. The role of transformational leadership in growing and declining churches and congregations was assessed by utilizing the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass & Avolio, 2004). The purpose of this study was to identify positive behaviors to be continued, as well as specific areas for potential improvement and growth of leaders within the United Methodist Church. Individual churches can take the necessary measures to continue thriving or make corrections to negative leadership behaviors to maximize congregational growth. Congregants and pastors belonging to four churches in the Elizabethtown, Kentucky, district were used as the study's experimental sample.

This provides the background of the problem, statement of the problem, and purpose of the study. In addition, the implications of the findings are discussed and a synopsis of the research methodology and questions is presented. The article concludes with definitions of key terms, assumptions, and the limitations and delimitations of the study.

### Literature Review

To evaluate a study about the situations of a church, awareness about the opportunities and challenges reported by researchers while conducting their studies in such settings is essential. To evaluate a study about leadership, one should be familiar with the literature related

to leadership, in this case transformational leadership. Researchers have long tried to define leadership. This is certainly not an easy or simple task, as there are about as many different definitions of leadership as there are people who have sought to define it (Stogdill, 1974, p. 7). Leadership is defined as “leaders inducing followers to act for certain goals that represent the values and the motivations—the wants and the needs, the aspirations and expectations—of both the leaders and the followers” (Burns, 1978, p. 19). However, the process by which leaders incite action is much more complicated.

Effective leaders seek to understand how to get their followers to move in the direction that they need them to go. This quest for knowledge enriches the study of leadership and makes it necessary to analyze specific patterns or levels to gain a better understanding. The specific area of current research in churches, as well as the academic literature on leadership, specifically transformational leadership, which was the focus of this study. In addition, the reader will be provided with information about the United Methodist Church and the role of the pastor within the church. Finally, the MLQ, which is the assessment tool used to evaluate the transformational leadership qualities of the pastors, will be presented.

### **Current Leadership Research in Churches**

Organizations with quality research and information systems view research as an ongoing function and analyze the data for useful information. Research functions are an integral part of the decision-making process involving management and leadership. Their task is to provide meaningful and useful information to reduce errors and result in better decisions, which ensure higher levels of stewardship (Sogaard, 1991).

In accordance with the recognition of the role of research, churches, missions and Christian organizations started accepting research as an indispensable function. The process of identifying factors critical to the success of planning Christian missions has been attempted and has proved to be an invaluable activity (Sogaard, 1991). When performing research in churches and missions, it is helpful to begin with questions such as the following:

1. What type of ministry is involved?
2. What kind of leadership is being utilized?
3. What kind of information would help the church leaders perform better?
4. What is the present role of research in the organization?

United Methodists are able to accomplish great things in church due to their emphasis on “connectionalism.” According to The Book of Discipline of the United Methodist Church (2004), the church began as a movement and a loose network of local missionaries. John Wesley, the founder of the Methodist movement, recognized the need for an organized system of communication and accountability along with initial development. The United Methodist Church does not have a central office, archbishop, or pope. This governance reflects the representative nature of the church's organization, which also provides a system of checks and balances.

### **New Leaders in the United Methodist Church**

Ordained ministers in the United Methodist Church were quantitatively surveyed to determine specific needs during the probationary period following their graduation from seminary (Weems, 2005). The ministers' recommendations fell into four basic dimensions: supervision, mentoring, continuing theological education, and covenant groups, which are small groups that meet on a monthly basis to focus on spiritual formation and ministry.

The feedback on supervision concluded that supervisor training, on-site visitation at the pastor's location, and annual goal setting and review would benefit this pivotal period. In the area of mentoring, mentor training, careful mentor selection, and topic focus encouragement were potential areas for improvement. The ministers all placed a high value on continuing education, but proposed that they be allowed to provide input on topics with an emphasis on issues that are practical, and that their seminary work not be duplicated. Finally, training was again emphasized for covenant groups, with defined structure and guidelines (Weems, 2005, pp. 100–101).

The research question dealt with determining the specific needs of newly ordained ministers in the United Methodist Church. The selection of a quantitative methodological approach certainly yielded the statistical data to formulate conclusions (Weems, 2005).

However, the project could have been enriched with qualitative data obtained through interviews with the ministers. Since the question seeks to find specific needs, a strictly quantitative approach may not capture the important details that are necessary to effectively answer the research question. A mixed method approach could have yielded both quantitative and qualitative data to deepen the conclusion.

### **The Church of the Nazarene**

In order to be an effective church leader, one must excel in both general and religious leadership abilities. Butler and Herman (1999) utilized a mixed method approach in their selection and research sampling that involved church leaders in the Church of the Nazarene. A qualitative approach was used to determine which Church of the Nazarene pastors in the United States would be included in the study. In order to be selected as an effective pastor, the researchers utilized three screening processes. First, candidates had to have received the Great Commission Award, which recognizes pastors for membership growth and meeting financial goals. Second, winning this award for one year was not deemed a consistent indicator of effectiveness. In order to be included, the pastors had to have received the Great Commission Award for at least three consecutive years. Finally, the 80 district superintendents were interviewed and asked to nominate who they considered effective for this exercise (Butler & Herman, 1999).

Once the participants were selected, three quantitative survey instruments were used: the managerial practices survey (MPL), the leader behavior questionnaire (LBQ), and the ministerial effectiveness inventory [MEI] (Butler & Herman, 1999). As a result, the researchers concluded that the research instruments they used offer an accurate assessment of general and religious leadership effectiveness. Furthermore, this also indicated that the three-tier pastor selection process, which reduced a pool of 5,000 pastors down to 49, was an appropriate method of effectiveness assessment.

A mixed method approach was effectively used to address their research question that pertained to both general leadership and religious leadership abilities (Butler & Herman, 1999). The qualitative methodology enabled the researchers to select the relevant pastors to be a part of the study population. From that point, a quantitative approach using multiple instruments yielded data that clearly supported their conclusion.

### **Transformational Leadership**

Leadership consists of guiding, encouraging, and facilitating others' pursuits of ends through the individual use of means, both of which they have either selected, and the selection of

which they approve (Ackoff, 1994). The major crisis significantly impacting the church is the crisis of leadership. Forman, Jones, and Miller (2004) wrote, “It is no secret that one of the biggest needs in the church today—all around the world—is well-equipped leadership” (p. 23).

Transformational leadership “occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality” (Burns, 1978, p. 20). In addition, the followers are transformed into something more through a focus on the leader’s charisma and the leader’s ability to change or transform individuals through the assessment of their motives. There is a shift from viewing the followers in a mechanistic fashion to looking at the human element and exploring how to truly motivate and inspire them to go beyond the leader’s expectations.

According to Bass (1985), transformational leadership happens when a leader transforms or alters his or her followers in three important ways, which together result in followers believing the leader, executing behaviors that contribute to the achievement of organizational goals, and being motivated to perform at a high level. First, transformational leaders gain subordinates’ awareness of the importance of their tasks and the importance of performing well. Second, leaders make subordinates cognizant of their needs for personal growth, development, and accomplishment. Third, leaders prompt their subordinates to work for the good of the organization rather than exclusively for their own personal gain or benefit.

Extensive discussions of transformational leadership developed in the 1990s. Wilmore and Thomas (2001) focused on certain beliefs and emphasized that the following actions are expected of transformational leaders:

1. Define the need for change.
2. Create new visions and muster commitment to the group’s visions.
3. Focus on long-term goals.
4. Inspire followers to transcend their own interests for higher-order goals.
5. Change the organization to accommodate their vision rather than work within the existing one.
6. Mentor followers to take greater responsibility for their own development and that of others. Followers become leaders, leaders become change agents, and ultimately they transform the organization.

Northouse (1997) recognized transformational leadership as a new and current approach to any kind of leadership. Bass (1985) was an early scholar who elucidated the theory behind transactional and transformational leadership, which is based on the work of Burns (1978). Bass and Avolio (1997) identified three leadership qualities, namely laissez-faire, transactional, and transformational leadership.

A laissez-faire leader shows no interests, concern, or responsibility for the results of his or her projects. Employees working under this leader were left to their own personal responsibilities and want for assistance and supervision (Dubinsky, Yammarino, Jolson, & Spangler, 1995). A transactional leader identifies and clarifies the expectations among fellow employees and waits for the desired goals in exchange. To achieve such desired goals, the leader has to decide and define the roles of and work needed to be done by the employees (Den Hartog, Van Muijen, & Koopman, 1997). Finally, a transformational leader motivates employees to perform to expectations and encourages them to look beyond their self-interest for the good will of the company (Den Hartog et al., 1997).

In an analysis of 14 independent empirical studies, Bass and Avolio (1997) found that transformational leadership behavior was on average more highly positively correlated with

desired outcomes, while transactional leadership was generally still viewed as being positively linked to the outcomes. Laissez-faire leadership has been found to be consistently negatively correlated with all of the measures of the performance outcomes among followers.

In most organizations, transformational leadership as compared to transactional leadership is considered an effective leadership style that consistently promotes greater organizational performance (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). Transformational leadership is more emotion-based compared to transactional leadership, which involves heightened emotional levels (Yammarino & Dubinsky, 1994).

Bass (1985) identified eight dimensions of leadership behaviors:

1. Idealized influence—leaders with moral and ethical conduct.
2. Inspirational motivation—leaders with a strong vision for the future, based on values and ideals.
3. Intellectual stimulation—leaders with divergent thinking and innovative strategies.
4. Individual consideration—leaders aiming at growth and development of followers.
5. Contingent reward—leaders focusing on exchange of resources like providing support and expecting performance.
6. Management by exception (active)—leaders who monitor performance and take corrective actions as necessary.
7. Management by exception (passive)—leaders taking a passive approach, intervening only when problems become serious.
8. Laissez-faire—non-leadership or avoidance of leadership.

In a study using 14 samples and nearly 4,000 leadership reports, Avolio, Bass, and Jung (1999) found that a six-factor model best represented the structure of transformational and transactional leadership; it combined idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, contingent reward, management by exception (active), and combined management by exception (passive), with laissez-faire. However, when only transformational leadership behaviors are considered, a single transformational leadership factor appears to represent the data well (Carless, 1998; Judge & Bono, 2000). In past studies (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002; Lord, De Vader, & Alliger, 1986), it has been difficult to separate attributes of leaders and their effectiveness from the specific behaviors they exhibit.

Indeed, experimental studies have demonstrated that even when survey measures of leadership focused on specific behaviors, they did not perfectly reflect leaders' behavior (Phillips & Lord, 1986). However, these studies also showed that questionnaire measures were able to capture differences in leader behavior.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to determine if a relationship exists between church type (growing versus declining) and MLQ scores. The participants in the study included pastors and congregants of four churches located in the Elizabethtown, Kentucky, district of the United Methodist Church.

A quantitative study was appropriate as it was used to examine trends and specific data in relation to predetermined criteria. The purpose was to relate the independent variable of church type and the dependent variable of MLQ score. A correlational design was used to examine the relationship between the variables as well as test to discover a trend in variables (Creswell, 2005), and this study characterized the makeup and extent of the impact between the two variables. The relationship between church type and MLQ scores were examined, and the extent

of the connection, also known as the F statistic, presented the researcher with knowledge about the association between the two variables.

### **Research Method and Design**

The current quantitative methodology used the MLQ in order to evaluate transformational leadership. In a correlational study, the relationships between distinct groups were studied and analyzed to produce statistical results, resulting in quantitative research.

This study adopted a correlational research design because it sought to investigate whether there is an association between two groups (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006). The study measured the strength of the relationship between transformational leadership and church type. Data was collected directly from the pastors and congregants via questionnaire without any manipulation of the data or conditional control occurring. The correlational research design allowed the researcher to determine if a relationship exists between transformational leadership and church type (growing versus declining).

### **Research Questions and Hypotheses**

The following research questions and subsequent hypotheses guided the study:

1. How are the ratings of Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) questions representative of transformational leadership qualities for pastors among two selected groups of members of growing churches and two selected members of declining churches in the Elizabethtown, Kentucky, district of the United Methodist Church?
2. Are there significant differences of MLQ ratings for pastors and members between the two growing churches and the members of the two declining churches in the Elizabethtown, Kentucky, district of the United Methodist Church?
3. Are there significant differences on transformational leadership qualities as measured by 10 subscales of the MLQ for pastors between the members of the two growing churches and the members of the two declining churches in the Elizabethtown, Kentucky, district of the United Methodist Church?

Based on these research questions, the null hypotheses are written as follows:

H<sub>01</sub>: There are positive average ratings of MLQ transformational leadership qualities for pastors among two selected groups of members of growing churches.

H<sub>02</sub>: There are negative average ratings of MLQ transformational leadership qualities for pastors among two selected groups of members of declining churches.

H<sub>03</sub>: There are no significant differences in pastor MLQ scores and member MLQ scores between the declining and growing churches.

H<sub>04</sub>: There are no significant differences in members' 10 subscale MLQ scores between the declining and growing churches.

### **Population**

The population for this study was pastors and congregants who are at least 18 years of age, from two different church types located in Elizabethtown, Kentucky district, which includes

the following counties: Marion, Spencer, Nelson, Larue, Bullitt, Hardin, Meade, Breckinridge, and Grayson. The churches included were those in which the pastors have been with their respective churches for at least three years and have at least 150 members. Therefore, it was possible to make a comparison between the two different types of churches (growing versus declining) when it comes to MLQ scores composed of nine components. In order to make a comparison between the different types of churches (growing and declining), it was necessary to indicate in the analysis which pastors and congregants are selected from the different churches.

### **Sampling**

For the purpose of this study, a convenience-sampling plan was used. The convenience-sampling plan is a form of nonprobability sampling where the participants are selected as they come along (Urda, 2005). This type of sampling plan is based on the potential respondents' willingness to participate in the study (Urda, 2005). The sample size that was required for this study is presented in the following subsection.

The convenience-sampling plan was best for this study because it has an advantage over a probability sampling method (i.e., random sampling technique) in that the researcher is able to obtain more participants for the study in a shorter period of time (Cozby, 2001). Similarly, the convenience-sampling plan was appropriate for this study because the final selection of pastors and congregants will be based on whether they voluntarily chose to participate in the proposed study (Urda, 2005).

### **Sample Size**

When calculating the sample size for the study, three factors had to be taken into consideration. The first factor was the power of the test. The power of the test measures the probability of rejecting a false null hypothesis and is usually set at 80% (Kuehl, 2000). For the purpose of this study, a power of 80% was selected because a power of this magnitude adequately rejects a false null hypothesis (Moore & McCabe, 2006). The second factor was the effect size, which measures the strength of the relationship between the variables in the study (Cohen, 1988). Cohen separated the effect size for different tests into three different categories: small effect, moderate effect, and large effect.

For the purpose of this study, a moderate effect size was selected because, as with the test power, it could provide evidence of a relationship between the independent and dependent variables without being too strict or too lenient. The final factor of importance was the level of significance. This is the probability of rejecting a true null hypothesis and is usually defined as being equal to 5% (Moore & McCabe, 2006). For this study, the level of significance was selected to be equal to 5% because this is most consistently used. The sample size depends on the type of analysis that is being conducted as well. For the purpose of this study, the type of analysis that was used is that of a quasi-experimental analysis. In terms of the quasi-experimental analysis, the sample size also depends on whether the alternative hypothesis is one-sided or two-sided.

The sample size is also dependent on one other criterion, which is the type of statistical procedure being used. For this study, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used. Since the ANOVA requires more observations than the other similar procedures, the sample size was based on this test. For the ANOVA, the sample size also depends on the number of groups that are being compared with one another. Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) suggested that to obtain a power of approximately 0.80 with a moderate effect size 0.50, the following equation should be

used:  $50 + 8m = N$ . Where  $m$  equals the number of predictors and  $N$  is the sample size. Given this equation, the study proposed an ANOVA with a dichotomous independent variable—Church Type (growing versus declining)—where approximately 44 participants were needed per group for a total of 88 participants. With an alpha level set at 0.05, 88 participants yielded a power of 0.80 with a weak to moderate effect 0.30 (Cohen, 1988).

### **Instrumentation**

The MLQ is the most widely used instrument to assess transformational leadership theory. This 45-item questionnaire measures key leadership and effectiveness behaviors linked with both individual and organizational success. The MLQ is composed of 10 leadership components, which are continuous variables and rated according to the frequency of actions and behaviors of the leader on a five-point Likert scale, from 0 (not at all) to 4 (frequently, if not always). These 10 leadership components include (a) contingent reward, (b) intellectual stimulation, (c) management-by-exception (passive), (d) management-by-exception (active), (e) laissez-faire leadership, (f) idealized influence (behavior), (g) idealized influence (attributed), (h) inspirational motivation, (i) individual consideration, and (j) effectiveness. The validity of the survey instrument shows the ability to accurately measure the desired variable or construct that is of interest. Based on this analysis, the MLQ was shown to be a valid instrument. In addition, it was found that the MLQ had Cronbach's alpha scores greater than 0.80, indicating that the instrument was reliable.

### **Data Collection**

Data for this study were obtained by administering the survey instruments to the participants. Further information was provided as well as the informed consent form. The potential participants were made aware that they could discontinue participation in the study at any point, without any subsequent consequences. Once the participants agreed to the terms of the study, as indicated by the informed consent form, the participants were asked to complete the print form of the MLQ. The responses provided to each of the questions on the MLQ were put into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet. Each of the participants who completed the survey instrument were assigned a unique control number. This control number was used to maintain the confidentiality of the participants as well as to specify which responses correspond to the particular participants in the study. Personal information was not included.

The informed consent forms and paper copies of the MLQ responses will be stored in a locked filing cabinet to which the researcher has sole access. By doing this the confidentiality of each participant in the study was maintained so that no personal information was accessible. Any paper-based information will be destroyed by shredding it in a paper shredder.

### **Data Analysis**

The descriptive statistics computed for this study included frequency distributions as well as measures of central tendency. For the frequency distributions, the number and percentage of each occurrence was presented for the categorical or dichotomous variables in the study. These represent the characteristic variables for each of the participants in the study. The measures of central tendency were used to present the mean, standard deviation, minimum, and maximum values for the continuous variables in the study, which included MLQ responses of the congregants and pastors.

The three research questions were addressed by an ANOVA. This is because the ANOVA compares the mean values of a dependent variable for two or more independent groups of individuals in order to determine whether there was a difference in the mean scores from each group (Moore & McCabe, 2006). For the purpose of this study, the dependent variables that were compared with one another are the MLQ scores. This means that each of these variables had to be operationalized as continuous variables.

Demographic information about the participating pastors and congregants was included in the analysis. Such factors include the age, gender, and any other pertinent information that may be important when it comes to assessing the pastors' and congregants' MLQ scores. By controlling for these types of factors, it was possible to determine whether there is a difference between pastors and congregants who are assessed from either growing or declining congregations, after controlling for age, gender, and any other pertinent demographic information about the participant. The importance of this is that pertinent demographic characteristics of the participant may have an impact on the dependent variable, which as a result would have to be controlled for in order to determine whether there is actually a difference between the participants.

The test statistic that is obtained from the analysis is based on an F statistic. ANOVA is an appropriate statistical analysis when the purpose of research is to assess if mean differences exist on one continuous dependent variable between two or more discrete groups (independent variable). The ANOVA uses the F test, which is the ratio of two independent variance estimates of the same population variance. The F test allows researchers to make the overall comparison on whether group means differ. If the obtained F is larger than the critical F, the null hypothesis is rejected.

The assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance/covariance matrices was assessed. Normality assumes that the scores are normally distributed (bell shaped) and will be assessed using the one sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Homogeneity of variance assumes that both groups have equal error variances and will be assessed using Levene's test.

The research methodology that was used in the study, which is that of a quantitative correlational research design, was discussed. This is because a correlational design was used to determine if there are differences on a particular variable between groups (Creswell, 2005). A quantitative research method was more appropriate for the study than a qualitative method because with a quantitative method the researcher was able to assess a direct relationship between two variables (Cozby, 2001); whereas with a qualitative study, the researcher is interested in answering the how and why questions of the research topic (Creswell, 2005).

The participants voluntarily completed the survey instruments that were distributed to them (Urdan, 2005). Also included was information on the data collection process as well as statistical analyses, which include ANOVA analyses. The data for this study were collected via print form, which allowed participants to work at their own pace. ANOVA analyses were conducted to determine if there are differences in MLQ scores between growing and declining churches.

**Table 1**  
*Number of Respondents and Age Data*

<b>Church</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Bethel-Bulitt	50.1818	66	16.58443
Irvington	49.5614	57	17.20467

Lebanon	50.0556	72	16.73479
Vine Grove	50.3208	53	16.89535
Total	50.0323	248	16.73801

Table 1 shows that the Bethel-Bulitt, Irvington, Lebanon, and Vine Grove churches had 66, 57, 72, and 53 respondents, respectively, giving a total of 248. The average age of the respondents for each church is very close, ranging from 49.56 for Irvington to 50.32 for Vine Grove. Table 2 shows the description of the gender of the respondents.

**Table 2**  
*Gender Data*

Church	Male	Female	Total
Bethel-Bulitt	29	37	66
Irvington	3026	31	57
Lebanon	2530	42	70
Vine Grove	11025	28	53
Total	110	138	248

It can be seen in Table 2 that there are slightly more female respondents than male respondents for all four churches. There were 29, 26, 30, and 25 male respondents for Bethel-Bulitt, Irvington, Lebanon, and Vine Grove churches, respectively compared to 37, 31, 42, and 28 female respondents. Table 3 shows the distribution of the data between growing and declining churches.

**Table 3**  
*Respondents for Growing and Declining Churches*

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percentage
Growing	138	55.6	55.6	55.6
Declining	110	44.4	44.4	100.0
Total	248	100.0	100.0	

Table 3 shows that there were 138 respondents from growing churches while there were 110 respondents for declining churches. Table 4 shows the average scores for each item in the MLQ.

**Table 4**  
*Descriptive Statistics*

MLQ Question	N	Mean	SD	Rank
1	248	2.88	1.02	23
2	248	2.99	.96	14
3	248	1.60	1.55	38
4	248	1.70	1.47	.6

5	248	1.40	1.54	41
6	248	3.16	0.95	2
7	248	1.31	1.44	44
8	248	2.93	0.99	21
9	248	3.15	0.98	3
10	248	2.99	1.15	13
11	248	2.80	0.95	25
12	248	1.19	1.38	45
13	248	3.08	1.12	8
14	248	3.06	1.11	9
15	248	3.11	0.98	6
16	248	2.96	0.91	19
17	248	1.77	1.46	35
18	248	3.09	1.07	7
19	248	3.19	1.03	1
20	248	1.32	1.50	43
21	248	3.02	1.07	11
22	248	2.11	1.60	34
23	248	3.13	0.98	4
24	248	1.57	1.54	39
25	248	2.98	1.08	15
26	248	3.12	1.03	5
27	248	1.64	1.51	37
28	248	1.36	1.62	42
29	248	2.52	1.34	31
30	248	2.63	1.27	30
31	248	2.76	1.32	26
32	248	2.63	1.27	31
33	248	1.46	1.64	40
34	248	2.71	1.24	29
35	248	3.06	0.77	9
36	248	3.02	1.20	11
37	248	2.57	1.37	32
38	248	2.94	1.06	20
39	248	2.73	1.14	28
40	248	2.75	1.24	27
41	248	2.97	1.08	17
42	248	2.90	1.17	22
43	248	2.97	1.14	17
44	248	2.84	1.24	24
45	248	2.98	1.25	16

It can be seen in Table 4 that questions 19, 6, 9, 23, and 26 were the MLQ questions that received the highest scores. On the other hand, questions 12, 7, 20, 28, and 5 were the questions that received the lowest scores.

**Table 5**  
*Average MLQ Scores of Growing Churches*

<b>MLQ item</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard deviation</b>	<b>High Score?</b>
1	3.40	0.73	yes
2	3.38	0.85	yes
3	0.68	1.02	
4	0.98	1.17	
5	0.47	0.84	
6	3.61	0.71	yes
7	0.45	0.83	
8	3.41	0.82	yes
9	3.71	0.56	yes
10	3.64	0.69	yes
11	3.18	0.79	
12	0.41	0.69	
13	3.74	0.60	yes
14	3.73	0.53	yes
15	3.67	0.57	yes
16	3.32	0.73	yes
17	0.96	1.02	
18	3.74	0.49	yes
19	3.70	0.69	yes
20	0.30	0.72	
21	3.67	0.50	yes
22	1.38	1.59	
23	3.66	0.52	yes
24	0.64	0.98	
25	3.60	0.68	yes
26	3.73	0.52	yes
27	0.74	1.09	
28	0.27	0.61	
29	3.17	1.16	yes
30	3.30	0.92	yes
31	3.52	0.77	yes
32	3.28	0.89	yes
33	0.39	0.88	
34	3.45	0.64	yes
35	3.39	0.61	yes
36	3.70	0.49	yes
37	3.41	0.73	yes
38	3.72	0.48	yes
39	3.32	0.82	yes
40	3.43	0.82	yes
41	3.58	0.58	yes

42	3.59	0.56	yes
43	3.58	0.59	yes
44	3.55	0.63	yes
45	3.68	0.51	yes
Mean	2.76	0.75	
Total (high)			33

Table 5 shows that 33 out of the 45 items (73%) in the MLQ received are high, or have values greater than 2 for growing churches. The average score for all the items is 2.76. From this data, we cannot reject H1o that there are positive average ratings of MLQ transformational leadership qualities for pastors among two selected groups of members of growing churches.

**Table 6**  
*Average MLQ Scores of Declining Churches*

MLQ item	Mean	Standard deviation	Low Score?
1	2.33	0.96	
2	2.48	0.86	
3	2.75	1.32	
4	2.60	1.31	
5	2.57	1.42	
6	2.60	0.91	
7	2.38	1.32	
8	2.33	0.85	
9	2.45	0.94	
10	2.17	1.08	
11	2.32	0.93	
12	2.18	1.40	
13	2.26	1.08	
14	2.23	1.09	
15	2.42	0.95	
16	2.51	0.92	
17	2.78	1.28	
18	2.27	1.05	
19	2.55	1.04	
20	2.60	1.23	
21	2.21	1.04	
22	3.04	1.05	
23	2.46	1.01	
24	2.74	1.31	
25	2.21	1.00	
26	2.35	0.99	
27	2.76	1.18	
28	2.74	1.43	
29	1.70	1.09	yes
30	1.79	1.13	yes

31	1.81	1.25	yes
32	1.82	1.21	yes
33	2.81	1.36	
34	1.79	1.2	yes
35	2.65	00.75	
36	2.16	1.27	
37	1.52	1.24	yes
38	1.95	1.25	yes
39	1.99	1.05	yes
40	1.89	1.15	yes
41	2.20	1.06	
42	2.03	1.16	
43	2.20	1.19	
44	1.95	1.23	yes
45	2.10	1.33	
Mean	2.30		
Total (low)			10

Table 6 shows that only 10 out of the 45 items (22%) in the MLQ received low, or values less than 2 for declining churches. The average score for all the items is 2.30. From this data, we reject H<sub>20</sub> and state that there are positive average ratings of MLQ transformational leadership qualities for pastors among two selected groups of members of declining churches.

To address Research Question 2, a test for difference of means was conducted between the overall MLQ scores of declining and growing churches. To find out which test to use (parametric or non-parametric), the data was first tested for equality of variances using Levene's Test and normality using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is a parametric test and can only be used if the data is found to have equal variances and normally distributed. Otherwise, the non-parametric test Mann-Whitney U is used to compare the MLQ scores of declining and growing churches. Table 7 shows the results of the Levene's test and the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test.

**Table 7**

*Levene's Test and Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for Overall MLQ Scores*

	<b>p-value</b>
Kolmogorov-Smirnov	.608
Levene	.057

It can be seen in Table 7 that the p-values of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for normality and Levene's test for equality of variances are both above the critical value of 0.05. This means that the data is normally distributed and exhibits equal variance between the groups (declining and growing churches). As such, ANOVA was used in the subsequent test for differences between the overall MLQ scores of declining and growing churches. The result of this test is shown in Table 8.

**Table 8**

**Test for Differences Between MLQ Scores (ANOVA)**

	<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Between Groups	12.942	1	12.942	132.908	.000
Within Groups	23.954	246	.097		
Total	36.896	247			

It can be seen in Table 8 that the p-value of the ANOVA test conducted is 0.000, which is below the critical value of 0.05. This means that there is sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis and it can be stated that there were significant differences between the MLQ scores of declining and growing churches.

To address the third research question, a similar approach to the one used to answer the previous research question was used. The data (MLQ subscale scores) were each tested for normality and equality of variance using Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Levene’s tests, respectively, to determine whether ANOVA or Mann-Whitney U tests should be used to test for the differences between the MLQ subscale scores of declining and growing churches. Table 9 shows the results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Levene’s tests for the MLQ subscales.

Table 9 shows the p-values of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Levene’s tests done for the MLQ subscales are mostly below the critical value of 0.05. For a particular subscale to be considered normally distributed and have equal variances (thus fit to use ANOVA), its p-values for the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Levene’s tests must both be greater than the critical value of 0.05. This means that none of the MLQ subscales exhibit both normality and equality of variances. This leads us to use the Mann-Whitney U test to determine whether significant differences exist between the MLQ subscale scores of declining and growing churches. Table 10 shows the results of the tests conducted for the MLQ subscales.

**Table 9**

*Levene’s Test and Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for Overall MLQ Subscales*

	<b>Kolmogorov-Smirnov p-value</b>	<b>Levene’s Test p-value</b>
Idealized Influence (Attributed)	.000	.000
Idealized Influence (Behavior)	.000	.000
Inspirational Motivation	.000	.000
Intellectual Stimulation	.000	.675
Individual Consideration	.000	.000
Contingent Reward	.021	.158
Management by Exception (Active)	.000	.020
Management by Exception (Passive)	.000	.000
Laissez-faire Leadership	.000	.000
Extra Effort	.000	.000

Effectiveness	.000	.000
Satisfaction	.000	.000

**Table 10**

*Test for Differences Between the MLQ Subscale Scores of Declining and Growing Churches (Mann-Whitney U Test)*

	<b>Mann-Whitney U</b>	<b>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</b>
Idealized Influence (Attributed)	1220.000	.000
Idealized Influence (Behavior)	1563.500	.000
Inspirational Motivation	1253.000	.000
Intellectual Stimulation	1564.000	.000
Individual Consideration	1479.000	.000
Contingent Reward	1987.500	.000
Management by Exception (Active)	1676.500	.000
Management by Exception (Passive)	1544.000	.000
Laissez-faire Leadership	1588.000	.000
Extra Effort	1427.000	.000
Effectiveness	1498.000	.000
Satisfaction	1730.000	.000

It can be seen in Table 10 that the p-values of all the MLQ subscales are below the critical value of 0.05. This means that enough evidence exists to reject the null hypothesis and it can be stated that there was a significant difference between the scores of declining and growing churches for all the MLQ subscales.

### **Discussions, Implications, and Recommendations**

The findings and the corresponding implications of the results of the data analysis are discussed in this section. The researcher also discusses the significance of the study, its limitations, and recommendations for future researchers. The main purpose of this study was to determine if a relationship existed between church type (growing versus declining) and MLQ scores. Stating this more specifically, this study was designed to determine what components of transformational leadership, as categorized in the MLQ scores, were exhibited by declining and growing churches.

A quantitative, correlational approach was used to address the objectives of the study. Through the surveys, the 248 respondents were able to provide their perceptions on the transformational leadership within their respective churches. Responses from the survey participants were also used by the researcher to describe the perceptions of the pastors' and congregants' perceptions to determine whether or not the components of transformational leadership are revealed. This is useful information for both pastors and managers of other organizations by validating the connection between transformational leadership and growth, which is a goal in both cases.

### **Suggestions for Future Research**

The present study could be replicated in other countries for comparative purposes. Cultural variables or gender may contribute to the variations in the MPS scores for United States' companies and those in other countries. Of particular interest is the role that task significance may play in determining the overall MPS. It is suggested that additional research be conducted in other countries as a way to help companies redesign work in today's increasingly competitive, global environment. In addition, research could also be conducted in more professional job categories at both for-profit and not-for-profit organizations.

Another suggestion is to include Hofstede's Cultural Dimension theory (Hofstede, 1979). In this research. The six dimensions are power distance, individualism versus collectivism, masculinity versus femininity, uncertainty avoidance, long-term orientation versus short-term orientation and indulgence versus restraint (Hofstede, 1979). The statistically significant relationship found in this research between the U.S. and Non-U.S. samples may have a relationship to what Hofstede found in his research. This would be one suggestion for future research.

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## **HAS THE ROLE OF ACCOUNTING AND THE CHIEF FINANCIAL OFFICER UNDERGONE A CHANGE FROM THE TRADITIONAL FUNCTION TO A TEAM-BASED APPROACH?**

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### **ABSTRACT**

How do organizations maintain sustainable competitive advantage? One important attribute would be the success of team-based management. Team-based management can be described as the involvement of all the functional departments to work toward a common goal. That goal is the ultimate success of the organization and world class status as the leader in its respective field. Also, it appears the role of the Chief Financial Officer is changing.

In particular, in years past, the accounting function has primarily just reported the daily, weekly, yearly actual results against a standard, (variance analysis) and communicated either a positive or negative variance throughout the company. For example in the book *Relevance Lost; The Rise and Fall Management Accounting*, 1988, Johnson and Kaplan posit that “today’s management accounting information, driven by the procedures and cycle of the organization’s financial reporting system, is too late, too aggregated, and too distorted to be relevant for manager’s planning and control

decisions. Additionally, the authors state that the “reports decrease productivity because they require operating managers to spend time attempting to understand and explain reported variances that have a little to do with the economic and technological reality of their operations.” They continue with “The management accounting system also fails to provide accurate product costs.”

More progressive organizations have implemented a team-based approach which requires the accounting function to assume more ownership in the operation of the company through being more proactive in the analysis of the data and being a part of the solution to operational issues.

This paper explores whether there has indeed been a paradigm shift related to the relevance of today’s management accounting systems. Specific questions include whether or not management accounting systems provide more relevant information to managers? If more relevant information is being provided, what factors influence the convergence of the management accounting system with the needs of operating managers? Is there still work to be done?

#### INTRODUCTION

Organizations today understand that to maintain a competitive advantage, they must utilize all resources to be successful and in order to facilitate the goal of optimum performance. The team-based approach appears to be the most productive method. In the past the accounting department only reported the facts as they related to day-to-day activities. Accountants and particularly the Chief Financial Officer really were not involved in the decision-making process. The purpose of this study is to determine whether or not in today’s business environment a paradigm shift has really changed the accounting function.

#### LITERATURE REVIEW

The role of the Chief Financial Officer (CFO) has changed over the past several years. The CFO is now working with teams expected to be innovative and to help the organization make the necessary changes to keep the company operating. They are asked to help improve profitability, and to oversee the changes. CFO’s have always been very conservative, and risk adverse. Today, CFO’s have realized the importance of taking structured risks, and know with risks an organization can enjoy positive returns, , (O’Brien, 2004). CFO’s by nature are very risk adverse, and today CFO’s have to accept change and move out of their comfort zone. They have to take calculated chances and then lead by example.

After the change of the practice of accounting in 1979, the role of the CFO was re-built to reinforce the management of the creditors’ investments. During the undergoing of analysis of the CFO’s position from “1963-2000, the CFO’s popularity quickly surged as a result, and the role kept expanding in the following years to focus on managing shareholders and stock prices” (Zorn, 2004).

According to Philip Cooper and Eleanor Dart, the shift in the function of the CFO is the consequence of “the adoption of new tools and techniques which potentially enhance accounting practice, on the one hand, and, on the other, change in the role that accountant performs, towards acting more in advisory capacity integral to managerial decision-making rather than solely as a provider of information” (2009). Furthermore,

CFOs are also considered competent to assume higher positions in a company or organization's hierarchy because of their wide range of knowledge and responsibilities they assume. Thomas Copeland further discusses and asserts that "[i]n the United States a significant and growing percent of CEOs were once CFOs" (2001). This is because of the responsibilities for which the CFOs are held accountable. Such responsibilities ranges from, raising funds for the company/organization's operations; distributing financial resources across the company/organization; record and provide supporting report on such distribution; and efficiently manage those resources. In past years the sole responsibility of the CFOs was primarily to keep records of company's finance; nevertheless, in recent years, the responsibilities has grown tremendously as CFOs now assume several managerial roles such as the involvement of the decision making among others (Copeland, 2001). A great eample, that illustrates the change in the role of the CFO, is the one of the Intel's CFO of 1994, Andy Bryant. "His role as CFO has steadily expanded since then, and it now includes such responsibilities as managing the company's enterprise services devision. But perhaps most important, he is now viewed as an integral part of the top management team that makes all the major strategic decisions at Intel" (Favaro, 2001).

The one question that is very essential to the change in the role of the CFOs is: what caused the change? A welknow answer, also stated in the article "The Chief Financial Officer of Tomorrow," "scandals such as Enron have led to profound changes in the private sector, but other factors are also driving changes, including globalization and technology" (Milne, 2006).

#### RESEARCH QUESTION AND HYPOTHESIS

Has the role of accounting and the Chief Financial Officer undergone a change from the traditional function to a team based approach?

H<sub>0</sub><sub>1</sub>: The role of accounting and the Chief Financial Officer has not undergone a change from the traditional function to a team based approach.

H<sub>a</sub><sub>1</sub>: The role of accounting and the Chief Financial Officer has undergone a change from the traditional function to a team based approach.

#### METHODOLGY

The study utilized a seven-question survey and was administrated to thirty (30) different firms in manufacturing, retail and service.

1. Has the role of accounting changed from a traditional approach to more of a team based approach (being a part of the decision making process) or just reporting the facts?

Yes 28	93.33%
No 2	6.67%

2. How involved are you as an accountant in the day-today activities of the organization?

Involved 29	96.67%
Not Involved 1	3.33%

3. Do you make suggestions as to how the company could operate more effectively?

Yes 30	100%
No 0	0%

4. Are you involved in cross-functional teams that address issues that are critical to the success of the company?

Yes 30	100%
No 0	0%

5. How involved are you in the major decision making process of the company?

Involved 28	93.3%
Not Involved 2	6.67%

6. Do you feel the accounting function at your company performs a critical task?

Yes 30	100%
No 0	0.00%

7. Are you asked by upper management to be more involved in the decision making at your company?

Yes 24	80.00%
No 6	20.00%

## RESULTS / CONCLUSIONS

In review, the survey indicates that indeed a shift has occurred and that in the past accountants in most cases were not involved in the decision making process. Today they are being asked to participate more proactively in the solving of the organizations problems through a team-based cross-functional approach to participative management. As indicated in survey question #7, only 24 out of 30 (80%) were asked by upper management to be more involved in the decision-making. It appears that

some firms still maintain an autocratic management style, which would lead to the lower percentage.

The majority of organizations understand the benefits of the team-based management approach, which would include the following:

1. Everyone in the organization is working together to meet common goals
2. Increase efficiency
3. Increase responsiveness to customers
4. Increase innovation
5. Increase motivation and satisfaction

All of these factors lead to sustainable competitive advantage.

Organizations must decide what type of teams, cross functional, cross cultural, top management, or research and development would be most effective in their culture. In most cases, cross functional teams are the most effective because they are composed of experts from every functional level (examples, Marketing, Management, Accounting, Research and Development, Engineering) in the organization and are formed to address performance issues faced by the company.

#### SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The researchers would suggest that the study be expanded globally to see how the results would compare with the findings from this research.

O'Brien, Michael, 2008, "Leading Innovation in a Risk-Adverse Healthcare environment: The role of the Healthcare CFO is Changing, *Healthcare Financial Management*, p 112

Zorn, Dirk M., 2004, "Here a Chief, There a Chief: The Rise of the CFO in the American Firm."

Cooper, Dart, 2009, "Change in the Management Accountant's Role: Drivers and Diversity."

Copeland, 2001, "The Expanding Role of the CFO."

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Favaro, Paul, 2001, "Beyond bean counting: the CFO's expanding role", *Strategy & Leadership*, Vol. 29, Iss: 5, p 6

## **Social Media as a Marketing Tool for Non-Profit Organizations:**

### **A Review of the Literature**

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Social media has proven to be a cost-effective form of promotion in the for-profit sector (Looney & Ryerson, 2011); however, the use of social media as a marketing tool by non-profit organizations still requires further exploration as existing research is limited in generalizability and short on examining return on investment measures such as retweets, mentions, likes, shares, and comments. Lovejoy and Saxton's (2011) Information Community Action schema should be employed to identify trends of use by exemplary users and analyze consistency of use across both Facebook and Twitter while also encompassing broader revenue parameters than addressed by previous studies (Lovejoy & Saxton, 2011; Nah & Saxton, 2012). The following brief review of existing literature begins with an overview of marketing by non-profit organizations. While much of the existing research focuses on for-profit organizations, aspects such as customer orientation, the marketing mix, branding, and customer retention are all equally important to non-profit organization marketing. Current research on social media marketing was also reviewed. While organizational use of social media is relatively new (Abeza & O'Reilly, 2014), the phenomenon invites further study to explore the full potential of this marketing tool. This section is then followed by research focused specifically on Facebook and Twitter as used in marketing. Previous research on Facebook marketing focuses on for-profit organizations rather than non-profit organizations. Twitter, like Facebook, should not be viewed as just another means-to-an-end promotional tool by companies (Parsons, 2013). Strategic goals and overall marketing strategy must be considered when deciding when and how to engage with Twitter

users. Studies employing Lovejoy and Saxton's (2011) Information Community Action schema, originally developed through a study focusing on Twitter, were included as they provided the framework for analysis of trends in the proposed study.

### **Marketing by Non-profit Organizations**

In traditional, for-profit marketing, companies are increasingly using a market orientation; that is, the organizations are realizing that the customer must be central to all organizational activities (Tuten & Solomon, 2013). Non-profit organizations that adopt this same philosophy of a market orientation have a higher level of performance through enhanced customer value (Modi & Mishra, 2010). However, because non-profit organizations do not have a customer in the traditional sense, it is important to discern the six necessary elements that comprise a market orientation for non-profit organizations: (1) beneficiary orientation, (2) donor orientation, (3) competitor orientation, (4) environment orientation, (5) integration and internal coordination, and (6) the adoption of a long-term management perspective. In order to truly obtain a market orientation, managers of non-profit organizations must fully understand each of these six elements (Modi & Mishra, 2010).

The six elements leading to a customer orientation for non-profit organizations must all be integrated into a non-profit organization's overall marketing strategy (Modi & Mishra, 2010). A beneficiary orientation simply means that it is crucial to understand the needs of those benefitting from the activities of the non-profit organization. For a donor orientation to exist, the exchange must be satisfying for both the donor and the organization. A competitor orientation means recognizing that competition in the non-profit sector is usually non-threatening, and similar organizations can and will pool organizational resources to achieve a common goal. The environmental orientation encompasses the entire external environment of the organization.

Inter-functional coordination and long-term management perspective both refer to the need to ensure that all areas of an organization are functioning interdependently to best utilize all available internal and external resources of the organization. Ensuring each of these six aspects are met will increase the odds that the organization will successfully implement a customer orientation (Modi & Mishra, 2012).

Different from traditional marketing is the marketing mix utilized by non-profit organizations. While the 4Ps (product, price, promotion, and place) remain the same for both for-profit and non-profit organizations, the process of ensuring each element of the marketing mix is fulfilled changes for non-profit organizations. The product offering of a non-profit organization is rarely a physical product, and is often an idea or a behavioral action. The price exchanged in non-profit marketing is not the typical exchange process; rather, donors are asked to forfeit something (most often their money or time) to help meet the goals of the organization. There is rarely a typical distribution (place) model. Instead, services are offered at various locations on an as-needed basis. Promotion must be designed to entice donors, as well as create and sustain demand (McGovern, 2012).

While the most basic element of marketing rests on the idea of exchange, wherein one party gives up something of value in order to obtain something of value from another party, trust is equally as important as value in the non-profit exchange. Trust is especially vital in non-profit organization marketing because the services provided by the non-profit organization are based on skills, knowledge, and expertise in a specific area (McGovern, 2012; Wright, Chew, & Hines, 2012). Trust can be built by non-profit organizations in various ways. Two of the most common ways non-profits build trust with both donors and beneficiaries is through the use of celebrity

endorsers and through branding (de los Salmones, Dominguez, & Herrero, 2013; Stride & Lee, 2007; Voeth & Herbst, 2008).

Non-profit organizations often use celebrity endorsers for many reasons. Those reasons include attracting attention and raising awareness of social issues, and because celebrities have the ability to reach a wide audience, have mass communication skills, and are effective fundraisers. Celebrities also typically have a large following on social media (de los Salmones, Dominguez, & Herrero, 2013). However, congruence between the celebrity and the cause is vital. When the fit between the two is perceived by the general public as being good, the credibility of the organization greatly increases (de los Salmones, Dominguez, & Herrero, 2013). Using celebrity endorsers also has drawbacks, though. Often, the motivations of the celebrity are questioned, with people attempting to discern if the endorser aligned him- or her- self with the cause for selfish or altruistic reasons. The answer to this line of questioning will affect the perceived credibility of, and donor trust in, the non-profit organization (de los Salmones, Dominguez, & Herrero, 2013).

Branding in non-profit organization is necessary for both building donor trust and to guide donor choices. Branding allows a single organization to be distinctive and stand out among the vast number of non-profit organizations in existence. The logo used by the organization, in addition to the tagline and mission statement, can help consumers associate with a given organization (Stride & Lee, 2007; Voeth & Herbst, 2008). Additionally, branding is important to both consumers and organizations. For consumers, a brand can provide information, reduce risk (via trust), and improve the consumer's self-image as the brand is projected onto the consumers. For organizations, brands can increase sales, create a positive frame of reference for consumers, and lead to new products and new markets (Voeth & Herbst, 2008).

As the number of non-profit organizations continues to increase, consumers are often unable to distinguish between the various non-profits in existence. This can lead to several issues for the consumer. Primarily, the lack of distinguishing between non-profit organizations can lead to disenchantment, weakened emotional bonds between the organization and its constituents, and decreasing brand loyalty. As brand loyalty decreases, costs for promotional activities increase. Promotional costs increase because it is costlier for a non-profit organization to seek new donors than to retain loyal donors (Merchant, Ford, & Sargeant, 2010; Voeth & Herbst, 2008). Reasons for not focusing on branding by non-profit organizations include too complex product offerings and the reasons for transaction, as the transactions are based on social value and goodwill of donors (Voeth & Herbst, 2008).

Brand personality is equally important to the non-profit sector as it is in the for-profit sector. Aaker's (1997) work defining brand personalities has often been criticized as being too Western-focused and being specifically developed to understand business to consumer brands, ignoring business and non-profit brands. Venable (2005) studied brand perceptions in three United States non-profit sectors (environment and rights, health, and arts and humanities) to discern brand personality specifically for non-profit organizations. This study resulted in the creation of two new brand personalities to be used in conjunction with Aaker's existing brand personalities. The brand personalities developed by Venable (2005) are: (1) integrity (honest, reliable), (2) ruggedness (tough, adventurous), (3) sophistication (glamorous, upper-class), and nurturance (compassion and caring) (Voeth & Herbst, 2008).

Strategic partnerships with other organizations can assist in the effectiveness of marketing by non-profit organizations. Simpson, Lefroy, and Tsarenko (2010) investigated the types of partnerships existing between corporations and non-profit organizations. The purpose

of the study was to determine the relationship between a formal or informal structure and the pressure of context, which is the investment and social appropriateness of the relationship. The authors hypothesized that increased levels of investment would result in a more formally structured relationship. A qualitative study of 20 Australian non-profit organizations was conducted via interviews. The results of the study determined that an increased level of investment yielded a more formal relationship. Study respondents indicated that three of the most important features of a relationship between corporations and non-profit organizations included the personal interactions with the partner organization, the problems that result from those personal interactions, and the physical distance between the partnered organization and the non-profit (Simpson, Lefroy, & Tsarenko, 2010).

While managers of non-profit organizations are realizing the importance of trust, branding, and customer loyalty, there are still areas where improvement is needed. Non-profit organizations need to focus on donor retention and relationships. By focusing on relationships with current donors, rather than spending to find new donors, the possibility of future, repeated donations increases (Merchant, Ford, & Sargeant, 2010). Donors also benefit from loyalty to a non-profit organization, through reduced uncertainty and vulnerability. When donors receive acknowledgment from the organization, the donors have increased positive emotions resulting from the relationship (Merchant, Ford, & Sargeant, 2010).

It is important to understand the similarities and differences in for-profit and non-profit organizations' marketing. While much of the existing research focuses on for-profit organizations, aspects such as customer orientation, the marketing mix, branding, and customer retention are all equally important to non-profit organization marketing. Understanding these

concepts informed the current study by allowing a better understanding current marketing tactics that are applicable to non-profit organizations.

### **Social Media Marketing**

Social media use by organizations is a new venture that both intrigues and discourages consumers and companies alike (Abeza & O'Reilly, 2014). Consumers like the convenience of interacting with companies on a single website (Diffley, Kearns, Bennett, & Kawalek, 2011) but at the same time report feeling their personal privacy has been invaded by the interaction (Baird & Parasnis, 2011). Social media use by companies can also be costly, in terms of time if not money (Fisher, 2009; Moran & Gossieaux, 2010; Schipul, 2010). From a company point of view, current measurements of return on investment (ROI) of social media use include metrics such as page views and unique visits. While these metrics provide quantitative data, the usefulness of social media adoption may be best understood by more qualitative measures, such as analysis of what community members are actually saying (Campbell, Pitt, Parent, & Berthon, 2011; Fischer, 2009).

Campbell et al. (2011) tracked online conversations about four consumer generated ads. This was done as a result of the increasing popularity of YouTube, and the affordability of video cameras that allow virtually anyone to post either a positive or negative video about a brand. These two factors were causing advertisers to lose control of what was promoted about their brands. Using a sample of four consumer generated advertisements, the authors discerned the motivation behind each ad. The iPod dance ad was generated as a result of intense enjoyment of the producer. The iPhone New York video was created as a form of self-promotion. The Poor Bastard's Starbucks Ad, a parody, was created to inspire perception change in consumers, and the Tourism Australia, another parody, was a combination of intense enjoyment, self-promotion,

and perception change. The authors then analyzed user comments about each ad and compared those comments with Aaker's five dimensions of brand personality: sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication, and ruggedness. The analysis found that the Starbucks ad fit the brand personality of competence. Commenters on this video were generally well-spoken, and questioned the corporation's ethical practices and the quality of the product (Campbell et al., 2011).

Companies are also encouraged to question the reliability of online consumer interactions, due to the anonymous nature of the Internet (Kozinets, de Valck, Wojnicki, & Wilner, 2010; LaPointe, 2011). Despite these limitations, the vast majority of organizations are eager to use social media as a new form of promoting their products (Abeza & O'Reilly, 2014). While limitations are evident, one must acknowledge the multitude of potential benefits offered by social media to organizations. Blakeman (2015) stressed that social media should not be a stand-alone approach to marketing, but rather an element of a cohesive integrated marketing communications campaign. When companies successfully implement social media as an aspect of an existing promotional theme, social media can both educate and inform consumers while building brand loyalty and equity (Blakeman, 2015). Other benefits of social media marketing include real-time communication with fans and followers, the ability to publically address negative comments or feedback, increase sales, and lower overall advertising costs (Blakeman, 2015).

A successful social media marketing campaign will have several common elements, regardless of the organization or industry. The first step any organization should take on social media is to understand the customer by listening to what the customer is saying. The organization should then demonstrate listening by responding to the customer. Organizations

should also focus on a key area, typically recommended to be that of their major product or service offering. The most critical aspect of social media marketing, however, is constant vigilant monitoring. Listening and responding to customers is not enough to be successful. Organizations must be constantly alert to changing customer needs and wants, as well as changing trends in the marketplace (Blakeman, 2015).

Consumer engagement appears to be a common theme among successful company-driven social media ventures (Moran & Gossieaux, 2010; Porter, Donthu, MacElroy, & Wydra, 2011; Taylor, Lewin, & Strutton, 2011; Yan, 2011). Mere virtual presence, or simply being online, is not enough of a reason for consumers to like or follow a brand on social media (Naylor, Lamberton, & West, 2012). Interaction between a company and consumers must happen before engagement can occur. Researchers have indicated that consumers are more likely to interact with a company via social media and social networking websites if the company is recommended by a real-life friend of the consumer (Diffley et al., 2011; Moran & Gossieaux, 2010). Consumers who interact with brands online are highly susceptible to purchase-decision influences obtained on social media websites (Baird & Parasnis, 2011; Colliander & Dahlen, 2011).

Moran and Gossieaux (2010) studied the characteristics that determine successful online communities, realizing that while more companies are interacting with customers online, not all of these interaction attempts are successful. Data was collected through visual analysis of online communities, recording information such as the number of active users, how often the users are active, the number of visitors, and the amount and type of engagement levels. This information informed the proposed study in the development of the data collection instruments (see Appendices A and B). Through survey and telephone interviews, Moran and Gossieaux (2010)

found that in order for online communities to be successful, the marketing department of the organization must devote a significant amount of time to the online interactions. Additionally, the most successful online communities provide a way for customers to interact with one another. Finally, Moran and Gossieaux's (2010) study revealed the difficulty in determining the return on investment of social media interactions, resulting in a proposal for further study determining proper analytics for return on investment of social media interactions.

Organizations must understand that word of mouth marketing (WOMM) is highly influential in online communities. According to the Network Co-Production Model, the value of a brand is influenced in online communities through WOMM, and the value is co-created by both the company and the consumer (Kozinets et al., 2010). The more engaged a consumer is with a company, the more likely that consumer is to aid in the co-creation of value (Baird & Parasnis, 2011; Colliander & Dahlen, 2011; Yan, 2011). Colliander and Dahlen (2011) compared and investigated the effects of branding in both traditional and social media. The researchers hypothesized that blogs would generate more consumer interaction and that blog readers would have higher brand attitudes and purchase intentions than online magazine readers. To test their theory, Colliander and Dahlen (2011) devised an experiment that posted identical content about fashion on both a blog and an online magazine, and then tracked consumer responses via survey. Their experiment found support for each hypothesis. This study lent further credence to the concept that social media methods do have more effect on consumer interaction than traditional media methods, because social media allows consumers to interact with a brand. Also, this study stressed that the amount of consumer interaction is dependent upon the credibility of the writer and the writer's relationship with the brand (Colliander & Dahlen, 2011).

To further understand co-creation of value, one must also understand who exactly is involved in the co-creations. Hardey (2011) defined Generation C as those consumers who have grown up using digital media in its various forms. Hardey (2011) theorized that members of Generation C make purchase decisions partially as a result of information and recommendations shared through social networking websites. The study included a qualitative analysis of interviews, focus groups, and observational research of consumer published data over a period of one year. The researcher found that consumers are more likely to act if the information received about a product is received from an individual the consumer knows personally or trusts because of previous online interactions. Hardey's (2011) research also indicated that electronic word of mouth marketing reduced consumer uncertainty, while encouraging consumer decision making. While Hardey's (2011) research was originally intended only for purposes of understanding consumer behavior, the use of this information can be beneficial to non-profit marketers. When non-profit marketers integrate social media into their marketing mix, past donors are able to share information about the organization with their social media contacts (Hardey, 2011; Kunz et al., 2011). Taylor, Lewin, and Strutton (2011) also studied the role of value co-creation, finding that consumers do play a role in value creation on a social media website, but that the role varies depending on the consumers personal and environmental constraints. The value of Facebook increased for users as they became more politically vocal (Taylor, Lewin, & Strutton, 2011). Regardless, organizations need to recognize that customers do play an active role in value creation.

Not all managers of organizations share the sentiment that social media is viable for business, however. Baird and Parasnis (2011) stated that while social media demonstrates potential for businesses, consumers want to receive something tangible in return for their time.

The authors cited the IBM Institute for Business Value Survey, which found that all age groups use social media, and more than 50% of social media users do not want to interact with brands at all, primarily due to privacy concerns. In return for their data, consumers want something tangible from the company. Sixty percent of users who indicated online interaction with brands state that they must be passionate about the brand prior to engagement. Baird and Parasnis (2011) followed this with an original study of 350 executives, which found that 70% of executives view social media use as necessary. The executives surveyed indicated feeling pressure to use social media, but felt that social media user data can be deceiving, due to the anonymous nature of online interactions.

Kunz, Hackworth, Osborne, & High (2011) explored the importance of social media as a marketing tool in the retail industry, and proposed to examine the adoption of social media marketing by top retailers. Their studies revealed that 85 percent of social media users want companies to interact with them on a regular basis. The authors provided an overview of various social media applications, including Facebook, Kaboodle, MySpace, Twitter, and YouTube. Similar to the research presented by Daniasa, Tomita, Stuparu, and Stanciu (2010), this interaction desired by consumers leads to an emotional connection with the organization, which can lead consumers to action. This interaction can also establish a feeling of trust (Hardey, 2011) which increases the likelihood of consumers taking positive actions toward the nonprofit organization, either through public relations activities or fundraising efforts.

Marandi, Little, and Hughes (2010) also studied reasons why consumers interact with organizations via social media. They cited the growing popularity of social media, and the increasing number of advertisers using social media to reach potential consumers. The authors sought to determine the positive and negative influencers of social media use. The authors

hypothesized that a positive consumer attitude toward social network advertising (SNA) increases the consumer's perceived informativeness and entertainment value. The authors also postulated that social network use increases relaxation and reduces stress for consumers, and that social network use is socially desirable for consumers. A sample of 2,642 individuals was asked to track their social network use over a two-week period and then report their results. The results indicated that consumers with a positive attitude toward SNA did increase the consumer's self-reported perceived informativeness and entertainment, but failed to support the hypothesis that social network use increased the quality of life, as well as the hypothesis that social network use is socially desirable. Marandi, Little, and Hughes (2010) also determined that some consumers view SNA as an invasion of privacy, and this view influenced a negative attitude toward SNA.

Prior to making the decision to implement social media as a supplement to traditional marketing endeavors, Schlinke and Crain (2013) urge organizations to consider four key criteria: (1) goals, (2) strategy, (3) tools and implementation, and (4) risks. Regarding goals, social media is best suited for brand extension and reputation management. Once goals for these issues have been determined, the organization should consider their target audience, as well as the needs and expectations of the target audience, in order to best formulate a marketing strategy. Strategies for social media branding should focus on quality, not quantity, and should include a provision to document fan and follower retention. Tools and implementation refers to keeping up with rapidly changing technology. Organizations should be prepared to make technological changes and advancements as necessary to keep up with the rapidly changing demand of consumers. Finally, organizations must understand the ultimate risk of not using social media: decreased visibility in comparison to competitors. Today's consumer not only expects an online presence of their favorite brands, but demands the presence (Schlinke & Crain, 2013).

One facet of social media marketing that many organizations fail to recognize is that developing effective metrics for social media evaluation can be quite difficult (Barger & Labrecque, 2013; Corstjens & Umblijs, 2012). Traditionally, integrated marketing communication metrics fall into one of three categories: (1) attitudinal measures, (2) behavioral measures, or (3) financial measures. Regardless of the type of metrics used, the metrics must indicate progress toward the goals and objectives of the organization. Commonly used metrics for social media marketing endeavors include volume of mentions, share of voice, engagements per post, advocates, return on investment, leads generated, and response time (Barger & Labrecque, 2013; Tuten & Solomon, 2013). Volume of mentions is calculated by monitoring conversations and determining how many times a particular brand is mentioned. Share of voice determines the percentage of all volume of mentions in a given product category. Engagement per post tracks the number of likes, shares, retweets, and replies on a particular post. The number of advocates is determined by tracking the number of users who positively promote the brand. Return on investment is often calculated by using traditional ROI calculators. Leads generated compares all channels of social media used. Finally, response time calculates how long, on average, it takes a company to respond to a consumer inquiry. These metrics, when combined, can assist an organization in determining the effectiveness of its social media campaign (Barger & Labrecque, 2013).

Social media marketing has been criticized as becoming somewhat of a crutch for marketers (Soat, 2015). Rather than integrating social media as an aspect of an integrated marketing communications program, many organizations rely solely on social media for all marketing endeavors (Soat, 2015). Other criticisms include a decreased level of creativity for marketers, that social media marketing is reactive rather than proactive, and that social media use

forces individuals to multitask rather than be present in a number of situations (Soat, 2015). Additionally, there has been little guidance offered in regards to adapting social media, and other forms of relationship marketing, when reaching out to a global audience (Samaha, Beck, & Palmatier, 2014). A study of 36 countries was conducted utilizing Hofstede's (1980) dimensions of culture to understand the best way to understand both current and potential customers. These 36 countries comprise 81% of the global gross domestic product (Samaha, Beck, & Palmatier, 2014). Samaha, Beck, and Palmatier (2014) compiled research previously reported in 170 separate studies to determine which of Hofstede's (1980) dimensions of culture had the greatest effect on relationship marketing. After independent coding and inductive analysis from two researchers, they found that individualism was the dimension of culture that had the greatest effect on relationship marketing, with the caveat that the marketing activities were focused on long-term interdependence between an organization and its consumers (Samaha, Beck, & Palmatier, 2014).

While organizational use of social media is relatively new (Abeza & O'Reilly, 2014), the phenomenon invites further study to explore the full potential of this marketing tool. Limitations of social media are evident, including lack of ROI measures and the anonymity offered by the Internet (Fischer, 2009; Kozinets, et al., 2010; LaPointe, 2012). Despite these limitations, however, the numerous benefits of social media as a marketing tool must also be acknowledged: building brand equity and loyalty, real-time communication with consumers, and a reduced advertising cost (Blakeman, 2015).

### **Facebook Marketing**

Facebook was originally created as a social network site for college students in 2004 by Mark Zuckerberg. Individual users create profiles that can be used to share information and

communicate with other users. Businesses, brands, and organizations can create a Facebook page that is used in a similar manner to individual profiles. As of September 2015, there were more than 1.01 billion active daily users on Facebook. As of that same date, more than 22,000 non-profit organizations held a Facebook page (“About,” 2015). Researchers in a variety of for-profit industries have found that a positive experience on a company’s Facebook page increases the likelihood of a social media user purchasing from that company in the future (Bayne & Cianfrone, 2013; Parsons, 2013; Seng & Keat, 2014; Smith, 2013) when used in conjunction with traditional marketing endeavors (Smith, 2013). The connection made at a subconscious level via a Facebook page allows consumers to feel as if they are a part of a team rather than merely the object of a marketing effort. Kietzmann, Hermkens, McCarthy, and Silvestre (2011) identified seven building blocks, also known as functionalities, of social media that companies should be utilizing in their marketing endeavors. The seven building blocks are:

- Identity
- Presence
- Relationships
- Conversations
- Groups
- Reputation
- Sharing (Kietzmann et al., 2011).

Identity refers to the amount of information shared about a person or brand via social media.

Presence is determined by how often a company or individual is using social media and is available for real-time communication. Relationships refers to the amount of interaction taking place on social media. Reputation is dependent upon the other users of social media. For

example, on Facebook, the reputation of a brand can be determined by the number of likes a page receives. Groups refers to the formation of a community of some sort. Returning to the Facebook example, when a user likes a Facebook page, he or she is identifying him or herself as a member of that particular group. Conversations simply refers to the communication between two or more parties. Sharing is the passing of information between two or more parties (Kietzmann et al., 2011). By utilizing these seven building blocks, an organization can increase the likelihood of a positive brand experience that may result in future purchases (Kietzmann et al., 2011).

Parsons (2013) tested Kietzmann et al.'s (2011) building blocks by seeking to determine how brands in a variety of industries use the building blocks of identity, presence, relationships, conversations, groups, reputation, and sharing. A total of 77 brands were chosen from two lists: Interbrand Best Global Brands 2010 and the Brandz Top 100 Most Valuable Global Brands. The 77 chosen brands were mainly consumer goods that are easily recognized by consumers. Industries including alcohol and tobacco, automotive, clothing, cosmetics, restaurants, and technology were included on the list. Sixty-five of these brands had official Facebook pages, and were included in the sample (Parsons, 2013). Through observation of the Facebook pages, the researcher observed three main elements: the content of the tabs, the number of likes, and wall content. Tabs include information about the company, photos, and videos shared by the company, and event announcements. Likes were used to determine the popularity of a brand. Wall content was observed over a one-month period and categorized individually as it applied to Kietzmann et al.'s (2011) schema. Parsons (2013) found that the average number of company Facebook postings per month was 24, which keeps customer engagement high by providing almost daily reminders to consumers that the company is present and active on Facebook. When

the consumer is consistently reminded of the company, he or she is more likely to take a positive action relating to the company, such as making a purchase. Consumers are also encouraged to provide feedback to the company through Facebook, whether by posting a comment, liking a status update, or participating in polls. The main limitation of this study was that it did not analyze consumer involvement with the company beyond the number of users hitting the like button initially. Further research into consumer postings on various types of status updates could be beneficial (Parsons, 2013).

Smith (2013) also tested a variety of industries, including finance, food and drink, health and beauty, retail, and technology. Smith (2013) wanted to test the theory that a positive brand experience on Facebook would increase the likelihood of three occurrences: (1) a positive Facebook action, such as a like, comment, or share, (2) a purchase action, or (3) a brand recommendation. Using the results of a 2011 Starcom Media Vest study, Smith (2013) selected 27 brands and recruited 6400 active Facebook users to participate in a three-part questionnaire that examined social media behavior, personal behaviors, and finally a five-point Likert scale that indicated possible future behaviors. After answering questions about their own social media behavior and brand interactions on Facebook in parts one and two of the questionnaire, the respondent's answers were analyzed and each respondent was matched to one of the 27 brands selected. Respondents were then asked to merely observe the Facebook page for at least three minutes by not interacting and posting, but simply browsing. After this time period, respondents were then asked to return to the survey and complete a series of questions about their experience and their likelihood to engage with the brand in the future, either through posting positive Facebook comments, making a purchase, or entering a contest (Smith, 2013). Smith (2013) found that those respondents who reported a positive experience during their Facebook exposure

were more likely to take a positive future action in regards to the assigned brand. This was especially true if the respondent indicated an emotional connection to the brand (Smith, 2013).

The effect of social media marketing efforts has also been used to study the perceptions of quality, as well as purchase intentions (Seng & Keat, 2014). Through a convenience sample of 168 of their Facebook friends, Seng and Keat (2014) sought to determine the effect of positive Facebook comments and purchase intentions and quality perceptions of sports products. The 168 participants in the sample were randomly assigned to either the experimental or control group. Both groups were shown a Facebook page for a fictitious sports product brand. The experimental group was shown positive fictitious comments about the brand, while the control group saw no comments. The results indicated that those shown the positive comments reported a greater likelihood that a purchase action would occur, as well as a higher perception of quality of the fictitious brand. The study, however, did not test the impact of negative comments, as no negative comments were shown to either group (Seng & Keat, 2014).

Bayne and Cianfrone (2013) studied the effect of social media marketing on cognition, affect, conation, and behavior in response to a university campus recreation event. 98 undergraduate students from a large university were selected to participate in this study. Of the 98 selected, 55 individuals completed all five stages of the study: (1) pretest survey, (2) treatment group assignment, (3) treatments, (4) campus event, and (5) post-test survey. During the treatment stage, participants were added to a Facebook group and sent various messages about an upcoming campus recreation event. The data collected was analyzed using SPSS software. Based on the SPSS results, as well as researcher observation, cognition increased significantly as participants in the treatment group received reminders and information about the event. Affect and conation were insignificantly influenced by treatment. Of the eleven

individuals attending the recreational event, only one was from the Facebook group (Bayne & Cianfrone, 2013). There were two main limitations to this study. First, the study took place over an entire semester. During this time frame, many participants simply lost interest. Second, there was a low amount of interest in the event campus wide, not just in the Facebook group (Bayne & Cianfrone, 2013). The findings of this study were in direct contrast to those of other studies (Parsons, 2013; Seng & Keat, 2014; Smith, 2013), although previous studies focused on self-reported anticipatory behavior and not actual behavioral changes as a result of social media marketing influence via positive Facebook experiences.

While each of the above studies provides valuable marketing insights, it should be noted that previous research into the realm of Facebook marketing focuses on for-profit organizations rather than non-profit organizations. The current study addressed this limitation in the literature by focusing solely on non-profit organizations. Facebook should not be discounted as a viable marketing tool for non-profit organizations. Prior research focusing on for-profit organizations has determined that Facebook users do enjoy the emotional connection they feel when liking a company's Facebook page and that positive emotional connections lead to positive actions (Kozinets et al., 2010). Consistent posting also yields greater actions as it provides gentle reminders to Facebook users who like a brand's page (Parsons, 2013). Each of these actions, while demonstrated using for-profit brands, can be applied to non-profit organizations as well.

### **Twitter Marketing**

Twitter boasts more than 320 million active users each month, with one billion unique visits to URL's embedded in tweets ("Company Facts," 2015). These statistics can be very useful to marketers of both non-profit and for-profit organizations. Like Facebook, Twitter allows for a connection between a brand and a consumer, as well as interaction between the two. The

difference between the two social media platforms lies primarily in the motivations of the users. Whereas Facebook users are more concerned with keeping up with friends and family, Twitter users are generally more concerned with following topics, people, and conversations that are important to each individual user. Despite these differences, both Twitter and Facebook are useful additions to the marketer's toolbox for any organization (Abeza & O'Reilly, 2014).

Twitter has proven to be especially useful in targeting a younger crowd as a potential recipient of marketing efforts in both for-profit and non-profit organizations (Jin & Phua, 2014). The main demographic of Twitter users is primarily teens and young adults (Jin & Phua, 2014; Smith & Smith, 2012). The key to success for this microblogging social media platform lies in the brevity of the platform itself: users are limited to a maximum of 140 characters to convey information, thoughts, and ideas. The brevity of Twitter appeals to the target demographic of teens and young adults, who are often busy and have little time for more traditional forms of communication (Jin & Phua, 2014; Smith & Smith, 2012).

Abeza and O'Reilly (2014) studied the use of social media as a way to create positive relationships between organizations and their constituents, focusing specifically on relationship marketing theory. Relationship marketing, as defined by Abeza and O'Reilly (2014), is both a management approach and a theoretical framework that seeks to build two-way communication between an organization and the organization's consumers to foster a mutually beneficial relationship for the two parties. This two-way communication increases the value the customer finds in the organization's product offering (Abeza & O'Reilly, 2014).

Social media platforms, particularly Twitter with its targeted demographic, offer marketers the opportunity to specifically target the organization's message and encourage trust in the organization by consumers (Abeza & O'Reilly, 2014). Many organizations are using Twitter

to communicate with their customers, as well as share information and interact (Abeza & O'Reilly, 2014; Lovejoy & Saxton, 2012). Abeza and O'Reilly (2014) chose to focus on the element of trust, specifically as trust relates to relationship marketing. This element of trust is reflected through two-way communication and an enhanced level of value by the customer placed on the organization's offerings (Abeza & O'Reilly, 2014). To test this theory, the researchers tested two of three key components of a successful relationship marketing dialogue: (1) a communication process, (2) an interaction process, and (3) the creation of value. While the communication and interaction processes are easily observable due to the public nature of Twitter exchanges, the value element is more difficult to discern, and was not tested by the researchers. Using the Twitter pages of 24 Canadian National Sports Organizations and the process of latent content analysis, Abeza and O'Reilly (2014) found that the organizations in the sample primarily use their Twitter pages as a one-way flow of information, rather than the two-way communication process necessary for relationship marketing (Abeza & O'Reilly, 2014). The study further indicated that there was also a lack of communication from followers of the sample organization. This study stressed that it is crucial for marketers to have clearly defined goals for social media (Abeza & O'Reilly, 2014). It is not enough to merely be present on social media. Organizations must also plan exactly how to use social media to its full potential.

While Abeza and O'Reilly (2014) tested the relationships between organizations and consumers via Twitter, other researchers have chosen to focus on the consumer rather than the organization (Smith & Smith, 2012). They compared Twitter to a virtual water cooler where individuals gather to discuss current events. Based on social identity theory, Smith and Smith (2012) sought to examine how consumers of the 2012 College World Series of Baseball engaged with one another during the event. This is relevant to the proposed study because it is imperative

to understand why consumers are using social media, in addition to understanding why organizations are using social media.

Historically, sports consumers have been passive consumers (Smith & Smith, 2012), observing sports media for reasons such as group affiliation and entertainment. Sports consumption motivations have since been divided into three primary categories: emotional (entertainment), cognitive (learning and information gathering), and behavioral (social). Focusing on the behavioral motivation for sports media consumption, Smith and Smith (2012) investigated how certain hashtags on Twitter can influence an individual consumer's self-identity.

During the final two-game series of the 2012 College World Series of Baseball, the researchers collected approximately 9600 tweets using the hashtag / CWS, the official hashtag of the College World Series. The tweets were then examined to determine emergent themes based on various hashtags used. Four entertainment themes emerged: (1) calling the game, (2) cheering and encouragement, (3) celebration, and (4) jeering the opposing team. The overarching motivation for Twitter use in this specific instance proved to be companionship and group affiliation. For either of these to occur, interaction between two or more people must occur, and this interaction did occur during the games via the Twitter social media platform (Smith & Smith, 2012), reinforcing the assertions of social identity theory that individuals assume a portion of their identity from the groups to which they belong.

Jin and Phua (2012) also studied consumer identity via Twitter. They focused on how consumer's identities are influenced through celebrity tweets, or electronic word of mouth (eWOM). According to Jin & Phua (2012), celebrities have increased levels of credibility, contributing to positive word of mouth communications, as celebrities are viewed as being

physically attractive, trustworthy, and competent. The researchers hypothesized that the greater number of followers a celebrity had on Twitter, the greater the celebrity's credibility would be in each of three areas. To test this hypothesis, Jin & Phua (2012) recruited 160 undergraduate students and followed the student's reactions to a semi-fictitious celebrity. The faux celebrity was based on a compilation of various attributes from several real-life celebrities. The study participants were then asked to complete Ohanian's (1990) instrument to measure source credibility after being exposed to a various number of followers of the celebrity. This experiment supported the original hypothesis that the number of followers influenced perceived source credibility. The group of participants shown the celebrity profile with a lower level of followers indicated that they would be less likely to purchase a product based on the semi-fictitious celebrity's recommendation (Jin & Phua, 2012).

Twitter, like Facebook, should not be viewed as just another means-to-an-end promotional tool by companies (Parsons, 2013). Strategic goals and overall marketing strategy must be considered when deciding when and how to engage with Twitter users. Twitter has been proven especially useful in reaching out to younger consumers (Abeza & O'Reilly, 2014; Jin & Phua, 2012), and with sports fans (Smith & Smith, 2012). The key to reaching any intended audience, however, depends on successfully building a relationship with consumers via social media, rather than simple distribution of one-way information (Abeza & O'Reilly, 2014; Jin & Phua, 2012).

Smitko (2012) examined how donor engagement could be strengthened via Twitter. Using discourse analysis based in rhetorical framework, the study involved a sample of two non-profit organizations, in addition to one for-profit organization. Including retweets and mentions, over 300 tweets to, from, and about these three organizations were collected over a twelve-hour

period. By applying the rhetorical framework, Smitko (2012) found emergent strategies of persuasion that could be used to strengthen donor engagement. The most prominent strategy that emerged through this was credibility of character. From this strategy, two theories arose: (1) Social Network Theory and (2) Social Judgement Theory. Social Network Theory states that knowledge emerges from interpersonal relationships, events, and actions. Social Judgement Theory examines how individuals (in this instance, potential donors) make decisions based on stimuli received through sight and sound (Smitko, 2012).

Lovejoy and Saxton (2011) sought to understand how non-profit organizations actually use Twitter. To this purpose, they conducted both tweet-level analysis and organizational analysis of 100 non-profit organizations, as identified by *Nonprofit Times*. The researchers collected 4,655 tweets over a one-month time frame, and developed an emergent classification scheme for those tweets. The classification scheme evolved into three broad categories: Information, Community, and Action, which were further subdivided into twelve sub-categories. The Information category was given no further breakdown, simply consisting of one-way communication. The Community category focused on building relationships between organizations and consumers, and was subdivided into the following specific areas: (1) giving recognition and thanks, (2) acknowledgement of current and local events, (3) responses to reply messages, and (4) responses solicitation. The Action category encouraged followers to do something, either (1) promoting an event, (2) donation appeal, (3) selling a product, (4) call for volunteers and employees, (5) lobbying and advocacy, (6) join another site or vote for organization, or (7) learn how to help (Lovejoy & Saxton, 2011).

Lovejoy and Saxton's (2011) study was the first to analyze the tweets of non-profits, in addition to developing the Information Community Action schema. The authors asserted that

this schema is generalizable to other forms of social media. They also claimed that simply by having a Twitter presence, organizations show a willingness to engage with consumers via social media, despite the majority of all tweets in the sample being one-way information flow (Lovejoy & Saxton, 2011).

Other research has focused on the use of communication tools specific to Twitter. Lovejoy, Waters, and Saxton (2012) examined how 73 nonprofit organizations utilized the Twitter communication tools of following behavior, hyperlinks, hashtags, public messages, and Retweets. The authors of the study wanted to determine whether organizations could effectively communicate with constituents when limited to 140 characters or less. The researchers used a content analysis focusing the *Nonprofit Times*' top 100 list, which ranks the largest 100 non educational nonprofit organizations in the United States by revenue. From the list of 100, it was determined that 73 of the organizations had Twitter accounts. All tweets by the 73 organizations were collected over a month long period, resulting in 4,655 tweets.

To test following behavior, Lovejoy, Waters, and Saxton (2012) set up a Twitter account that was used solely for the purpose of following all 73 organizations. Seventeen of the organizations also followed the researcher's account. From this, the researchers concluded that the organizations follow all accounts that follow the organization, as a way to artificially create a feeling of community with followers. To analyze hyperlinks, it was determined that 68% of the tweets collected contained hyperlinks. The hyperlinks were used to direct followers to more information that exceeded Twitter's 140-character limit. Hyperlinks, as well as public messages, were also found to be primarily about one-way communication from the organization to the followers. The organizations tended to use the Retweet function of Twitter less often than the

average individual user, at only 16.2% of all tweets obtained during the collection period. Hashtags, however, were included in nearly 30% of all tweets collected.

The results of this study revealed that Twitter does have much unused potential for organizational use (Lovejoy, Waters, and Saxton, 2012). The authors suggested that organizations may not realize the full potential offered by the websites tools. The study had several limitations. First, the sample consisted of the top 100 nonprofits as ranked by revenue. Smaller organizations may take a more hands-on approach to Twitter use. Also, the study could not measure direct messages, as those are not publically available. Finally, further studies could be conducted on various aspects of Twitter usage, such as where the hyperlinks are directing traffic. Nonprofit organizations are primarily using Twitter for one-way communication via information sharing, rather than engagement. This is consistent with previous research findings concerning Facebook (Lovejoy, Waters, & Saxton, 2012).

Communication via Twitter was also studied by Swani, Milne, Cromer, and Brown (2013). They stated that social media can be integrated into already existing integrated marketing communication campaigns via brand communities that allow interaction (such as Twitter). Over a one-week time frame, the researchers gathered more than 3900 tweets from 277 Fortune 500 companies. The authors used content analysis to determine that different strategies were used for product and service tweets. The collected tweets were categorized based on the following criteria: branding, message appeals, selling strategy, use of informational cues and links, and use of images or video (Swani et al., 2013). Product tweets more likely to contain links to additional information, whereas service tweets relied more on emotional appeals to consumers (Swani et al., 2013). Limitations of this study were that it included only Fortune 500 companies,

as well as the time frame of only one week. Smaller organizations or a longer time frame for the study may have yielded different results (Swani et al., 2013).

Nah and Saxton (2012) realized that most of the research to date on non-profit organizations use of Twitter merely focused on the dialogue, and wanted to understand why organizations adopt social media. They identified three strategies used by non-profit organizations on Twitter to fulfill the organization's mission: (1) fundraising, (2) lobbying, and (3) market based. The authors hypothesized that fundraising and lobbying expenses, as well as program service revenues, would be positively related to social media adoption and use (Nah & Saxton, 2012). As with previous research (Lovejoy & Saxton, 2011; Lovejoy, Waters, & Saxton, 2012), this study was limited in that the sample organizations were identified by financial assets, therefore findings are not necessarily generalizable to small and mid-size non-profit organizations. Guo & Saxton (2014) sought to determine how nonprofit organizations use social media as an advocacy tool. The sample in this study consisted of 188 Civil Rights and advocacy organizations rated in 2011 by Charity Navigator. After determining which organizations used Twitter, the authors of the study observed all Twitter activity by the organizations over a one-month period. At the end of the tracking period, the authors found that 93% of the organizations used some type of social media, with Facebook being the most popular, closely followed by Twitter. The organizations had an average of 2,465 followers, indicating that organization wants to communicate with potential donors. 103 was the average number of Tweets sent out per organization over the one-month period.

The authors used Lovejoy and Saxton's (2011) Information Community Action scheme to code a random sample of 750 Tweets, then coded based on 11 advocacy tactics. Less than half of the coded tweets were advocacy related. The study was limited in that it only followed

the advocacy use of Twitter and no other forms of social media. The organizations in the sample also indicated a bias between the size of the organization and the use of technology.

Lovejoy and Saxton's (2011) information community action schema was developed through a study focusing on Twitter. The information community action schema also provided the framework for the current study. Twitter has been proven to be especially useful in targeting younger generations (Jin & Phua, 2012) who are concerned with trust and credibility from brands (Jin & Phua, 2014). Trust and credibility are important aspects of relationship marketing (Abeza & O'Reilly, 2013). Like Facebook, Twitter can help influence a user's social identity (Smith & Smith, 2012), through brand interaction. While the studies cited in this literature review of Twitter marketing did include non-profit organizations in addition to for-profit entities, the sample organizations were all defined as large organizations based on revenue alone. This gap in the literature was addressed by this research by focusing on non-profit organizations with lower revenue streams.

### **Current Issues in Non-Profit and Social Media Marketing**

According to Dolnicar and Lazarevski (2009), many non-profit organizations do not realize the importance of the donor as a consumer. The authors proposed a study that would determine if there is a need for a greater market orientation, rather than an organization orientation, in non-profit organizations. The authors also wanted to discern what marketing changes would be necessary to creating a market orientation. Dolnicar and Lazarevski (2009) conducted a survey of 140 non-profit managers. The results of this survey indicated that less than 20 percent of non-profit managers felt their organization had reached its full marketing potential. The survey further revealed that the three areas of marketing which present the most issues for non-profit organizations are advertising, public relations, and fundraising. Social

media, through its cost-effective means and global scope, can assist in each of the three areas. Social media can further assist non-profit organizations in reaching full marketing potential.

**Advertising.** Advertising via social media is different than advertising through more traditional methods, such as television, print, and radio (Xie & Lee, 2015). Social media advertising tends to fall into one of two categories: earned advertising or owned advertising. Owned advertising consists of advertisements paid for and placed by the company in question. Earned advertisement refers to information about a brand spread by social media postings, consumer-generated YouTube videos, or word of mouth marketing (Xie & Lee, 2015). While both types of advertising are beneficial to the company, consumers are more likely to be receptive to earned advertisements rather than owned advertisements (Xie & Lee, 2015).

Expounding on Xie and Lee's (2015) findings, Kumar, Bezawda, Rishka, Janakiraman, and Kannan (2016) proposed that other factors, rather than just simply owned or earned advertisements, influence customer receptivity to advertisements. Kumar et al. (2016) postulated that online advertisements, in conjunction with traditional marketing endeavors, digital communications, and customer characteristics all contributed to customer purchase decisions. Customer characteristics included attributes such as length of the relationship with the corporation, tech-savviness of the customer, and how prone the customer was to social media use (Kumar et al., 2016). The data collected in this study was publicly available data from the consumer's social media profiles, in addition to a voluntary customer survey regarding buying habits. Through DID analysis and profitability analysis, the data implied that managers should embrace social media as a part of their traditional marketing endeavors; however, social media should not replace traditional marketing practices. Rather, social media should be integrated into

the existing promotional campaign for an organization in order to be more effective (Kumar et al., 2016).

Similar to the findings of Kumar et al. (2016), Angell, Gorton, Sauer, Bottomley, and White(2016) also found that social media advertising tasks should be integrated into an organization's already existing promotional campaign. Selective attention, in which individuals choose what items to pay attention to, has long been a source of consternation for marketers (Angell et al., 2016). However, with the increasing availability of technology and technology-driven devices, that selective attention has become even more sporadic. A 2014 report by Microsoft Advertising found that nearly 70% of people admit to media multi-tasking, or using another form of media while watching television, thus limiting their attention to either form of media (Angell et al., 2016). Angell et al. (2016) asserted that increasing congruence, or fit, between the various forms of media advertising could aid in consumer recall regarding a particular brand or product advertisement. To test this hypothesis, the researchers sent an email invitation to 620 university students in the UK, asking the students to participate in a survey. One hundred seventy-nine students agreed to participate and fully completed the survey. The survey contained a series of questions about advertisers at a recent sporting event that participants had either attended in person or watched via broadcast, including where the event was viewed. The study found an interesting link between where the viewership took place and media-multitasking. Those participants who viewed the event live, or at a location other than their own home, were more likely to be socially engaged and were less likely to be engaged in media multi-tasking, and more likely to recall specific advertisers (Angell et al., 2016). This is relevant to the proposed study because having congruence between both Facebook and Twitter

increases the likelihood of potential consumers make a positive action toward the non-profit organization (Angell et al., 2016).

Advertising via social media is more likely to be effective in online communities with strong engagement (Homburg, Ehm, & Artz, 2015). Owned media, presented to a thriving online community, is more likely to lead to positive purchase behavior than owned media presented as a general online advertisement (Homburg, Ehm, & Artz, 2015). Homburg, Ehm, and Artz (2015) hypothesized that this was due in part to increased levels of consumer sentiment in thriving online communities, where members already felt a sense of comradery with one another as well as with the brand being represented by the community. Data sets were collected from pre-existing online data sets for the hotel and airline industries. The data was then analyzed using sentiment analysis. The results of the study were that the more engaged the brand was, the higher the level of consumer sentiment (Homburg, Ehm, & Artz, 2015). This increasingly high sentiment on the part of the community members led to a greater receptivity of advertising messages (Homburg, Ehm, & Artz, 2015).

The use of social media for advertising has also been studied in face to face settings, as well as online settings. Diffley et al. (2011) used qualitative face to face focus groups, observing and analyzing both verbal responses and non-verbal cues in order to understand consumer attitudes toward social network use, the reasons for those attitudes, and the reasons for the use of social networks. The study results found that the primary reason for social network use is communication with real-life contacts. Focus group members indicated displeasure with pop-up advertisement and banner advertisements, as well as inconvenient placement of advertisements on social networking sites. The majority of respondents indicated that they will ignore the advertisements whenever possible. The reasons respondents stated for interacting with

companies was primarily convenience, in that they would not have to leave the social networking site to interact with the company. Respondents also stated they are more likely to interact with a company if the group is recommended by a friend, as opposed to interacting as the result of a company generated advertisement (Diffley et al., 2011).

Advertising through social media has been the source of several studies (Angell et al., 2016; Diffley et al., 2011; Homburg, Ehm, & Artz, 2016), with one key theme emerging. It is imperative that social media advertising be implemented with already existing traditional forms of promotion. Through the application of Lovejoy and Saxton's (2011) Information Community Action framework, best practices were identified that can make this implementation more readily accessible for organizations.

**Public relations.** Waters and Williams (2011) studied the Twitter accounts of American political organizations to determine how the organizations use Twitter with regards to the four models of public relations communication strategies. The four models include press agency, public information, two-way asymmetry, and two-way symmetry. Press agency relies upon emotionally manipulative messages that are one-way communication. Public information is also one-way communication that relies on true statements. Two-way asymmetry gives the appearance of two-way dialogue, and two-way symmetry is give and take conversation.

The sample used by Waters and Williams (2011) consisted of the Twitter accounts of 60 official government accounts, selected using a random number generator. Within each account, 30 tweets were randomly selected from a six-month time frame. Two coders were used to code the organization's tweets. Each organization had approximately 13,300 followers, with an average of 118.3 tweets per organization. Seventy-four percent of the tweets used hyperlinks to direct the followers to further information. The study findings indicated that public information

was the most likely model to be used, focusing on one-way communication of true statements. Further findings indicated that, like results of other studies such as those by Lovejoy & Saxton (2012), organizations are more likely to heavily distribute one-way information rather than engage in conversations with individuals.

Several implications arose from this study. First, organizations should personalize the Twitter page being used, rather than just use the default template. The logo and website information, at minimum, should be included. Second, it is recommended to follow other users with similar interests. Third, the organization should distribute useful information that gives followers a reason to remain followers. Finally, the organization should regularly be present on Twitter. Several ways to engage with consumers were suggested by the researchers, including retweeting, replying to direct messages, asking questions to encourage conversation, and staying active. Limitations of the study included the fact that coders were not required to indicate a dominant communication style present in each tweet. The researchers also indicated that future research may consider the dominant communication style as well as a comparison between American government agencies and those of other countries.

Valentini (2015) argued that social media was not necessarily a positive attribute for the public relations field. Valentini (2015) asserted that while social media is often cited as a useful and easy way to begin a dialogue with current and potential supporters of an organization, social media is often not used in this manner, but is rather used to provide a one-way communication to supporters. Valentini (2015) posited that organizations are so encompassing of social media because of its ease of use, rather than its usefulness being utilized properly to create two-way dialogue and relationships. Research by Toledano and Avidar (2016) found that while social media does increase the amount of control public relations practitioners have over message

distribution, the opportunities afforded by social media are often under-utilized by said practitioners (Waters & Williams, 2011).

To fully understand the scope of social media as a tool for public relations professionals, one must also understand the implications of using social media for this purpose. Social media, in and of itself, is a participatory endeavor. All stakeholders in an organization can have their voice heard on social media (Sanderson, Barnes, Williamson, & Kian, 2016). Therefore, audience reaction should be considered before utilizing social media as a public relations tools. Gearhart and Zhang (2016) proposed that all stakeholders, particularly those with dominant opinions, desire to be heard via social media due, in part, to the spiral of silence theory. The spiral of silence theory postulates that individuals will remain silent, out of fear of public opinion or backlash, if their personal opinion does not agree with the majority opinion. A study using data collected from the Pew 2012 *Search, Social Networks, and Politics* survey was used to examine relationships between social media use and the spiral of silence theory. A sample consisting of 2,353 adults were asked to report their level of social media use and their outspoken-ness on social media in a variety of contextual settings, particularly focusing on political postings. Users who self-reported frequent social media use were most likely to consider themselves outspoken, while users who self-reported infrequent social media use were more likely to keep their opinions silent. A major limitation of this study, however, is that frequent and infrequent use of social media were not defined, but relied on the respondents own conception of use (Gearhart & Zhang, 2016).

According to Allagui and Breslow (2016), 87% of marketers use social media to increase brand awareness, to improve brand reputation, or to generate leads. Allagui and Breslow (2016) argued that social media, like other forms of technology, can be effectively used in public

relations. To affirm their claims, the researchers cited four public relations campaigns that became highly popular in influencing public opinion. The campaigns, including Chipotle, Melbourne Metro, Lebanese gender inequality, and Oreo, were chosen because each had received awards in both public relations and social media, yet this was an admittedly limited sample size (Allagui & Breslow, 2016). The campaigns were used to increase engagement and awareness and to build relationships with the target audience via social media.

Social media as a public relations tool has numerous criticisms (Gearhart & Zhang, 2016; Sanderson et al., 2016; Valentini, 2015). Despite these criticisms, previous researchers have indicated that social media does hold potential to be used for public relations (Allagui & Breslow, 2016; Waters & Williams, 2011). The current study addressed this gap in the literature by identifying best practices through application of Lovejoy and Saxton's (2011) Information Community Action schema.

**Fundraising.** Social media has also been used as a fundraising medium for non-profit organizations. One of the most successful social media campaigns in history is noted as the Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis (ALS) Ice Bucket Challenge. A very simple process, social media users were challenged to either empty a bucket of ice water over their head or donate \$100 to the ALS Association (Ward & Edmonson, 2015). Using a variety of hashtags such as #IceBucketChallenge or #ALS, the challenged individual would film him-or-her-self being doused with icy water, upload the videos to social media, and then pass the challenge along to three friends. Over a period of approximately ten weeks, more than 28 million people participated in the ALS Ice Bucket Challenge, raising more than \$114 million (Ward & Edmonson, 2015). The challenge, while successful in increasing both awareness and funds, was not without its pitfalls, however. Criticisms included that individuals participated out of

narcissism rather than altruism and one firefighter lost his life assisting the participation of the challenge for a local collegiate band (Ward & Edmonson, 2015). Even with these criticisms, however, the campaign was a successful use of social media as a fundraising endeavor. Similar to the Ice Bucket Challenge, cyber-volunteering is becoming increasingly popular (Raja-Yousof, Norman, Abdul-Rahman, Nazri, & Mohd-Yusoff, 2016). Cyber-volunteering occurs when individuals donate their time, skills, and expertise via the Internet rather than on-site. Cyber-volunteering is made possible, in part, by social media. Cyber-volunteering may include the donation of services in areas of marketing, public relations, accounting, and crowd-sourcing, among other services and skills (Raja-Yousof et al., 2016).

Social media has also been proven useful for fundraising in the wake of natural and man-made disasters (Brengharth & Mujikic, 2016; Stewart & Wilson, 2016). Social media used during natural disasters can be particularly beneficial as part of the crisis management plan because social media does not require users to be bound to a particular physical location and are also free for users to access. After the Haiti earthquake in 2010, the Red Cross turned to social media, as well as text messaging, for fundraising efforts. This effort raised in excess of \$8 million in just two days (Brengharth & Mujikic, 2016). Social media has also been successfully used to raise funds in the wake of school shootings and hurricanes (Stewart & Wilson, 2016).

The situational crisis communication theory postulates that there are three stages to any crisis: (1) pre-crisis, (2) crisis, and (3) post-crisis. The pre-crisis stage consists of any warning signs of an impending crisis that would allow individuals to prepare. The crisis stage is the actual event of the crisis, and the final stage, post-crisis, is dealing with the aftermath. Social media can play an important role in each stage (Stewart & Wilson, 2016), but can be particularly effective during the post-crisis stage when fundraising efforts are needed.

Fundraising efforts via social media would fall under the umbrella of *Action* in Lovejoy and Saxton's (2011) Information Community Action schema. As identified by Dolnicar and Lazarevski (2009), fundraising is one of the key areas that non-profit organizations' marketing managers have identified as being problematic.

### **Summary**

All organizations, whether they realize it or not, perform marketing activities (Andreasen, 2012). A 2011 study of Australian non-profit organizations revealed one of the most important features of a relationship between the non-profit organization and their partner organization are the personal interactions of that relationship (Simpson, Lefroy, & Tsarenko, 2011). A parallel can be drawn between the importance of the relationships between non-profits and their partner organizations and the importance of the relationships between non-profit organizations and their donors. Non-profit organizations must realize the importance of viewing their donors as consumers, or as partners of the non-profit (Dolnicar & Lazarevski, 2009). Lack of reaching full marketing potential has been identified by non-profit managers (Dolnicar & Lazarevski, 2009), with advertising, public relations, and fundraising being identified as the top three areas for improvement. Each of these three areas can be addressed with the implementation of a social media marketing program by the non-profit organization. Social media offers a low-cost method of advertising (Schipul, 2010). Public relations and fundraising can both be addressed by using social media communities to foster engagement between the non-profit organization and its consumers (Brown, 2011; Campbell et al. 2011; Daniasa et al., 2010). Companies must understand that social media can be both positive and negative. Social media use requires constant monitoring, and determining the reach of social media messages can be extremely

difficult (Corstjens & Umblijs, 2012). Despite these drawbacks, however, social media can be effectively used by non-profit organizations to supplement more traditional marketing endeavors.

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