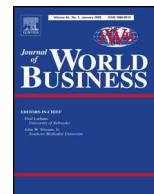




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Establishing rigor in mail-survey procedures in international business research

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ABSTRACT

How rigorous have our data-collection procedures been in international business research? We report the results of a comprehensive content analysis of scholarly work published in four leading international business journals over the past decade. The focus is data-collection procedures used by researchers in mail surveys. The intent is to be self-critical and formulate strategies for enhancing the rigor and success of data-collection procedures in survey-based research. Our findings confirm that international business scholars could significantly improve surveys' response rates by following more rigorous and well-established methodological practices already established in the social science literature. We also find that, while some continents tend to be oversampled, a large portion of the world remains underrepresented in international business research. The results point to interesting trends in cross-cultural data-collection procedures. Given that primary research will always drive new knowledge creation, scholars are strongly advised to practice best-available procedures for data collection.

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1. Introduction

Carrying out international and comparative research based on multi-country surveys has long been acknowledged as a difficult undertaking (Berry, 1999; Cavusgil & Das, 1997; Knight, Spreng, & Yaprak, 2003; Nasif, Al-Daeaj, Ebrahim, & Thibodeaux, 1991; Przeworski & Teune, 1966; Sekaran, 1983). While workable solutions have been offered in such areas as questionnaire development and data-analysis techniques (Brock, 2003; Harzing, 1997, 2000; Jobber & Saunders, 1988; Jobber, Mirza, & Wee, 1991; Reynolds, Simintiras, & Diamantopoulos, 2003), collecting high-quality data across national borders remains a challenge (Cascio, 2012; Ghauri & Grønhaug, 2010; Hult et al., 2008; Kjeldgaard, Csaba, & Ger, 2006; Yaprak, 2006).

By examining top international business (IB) journals in search of a common research practice, Yang, Wang, and Su (2006, p. 216), found that a mail-survey questionnaire was "the most popular data-collection method" utilized by IB scholars during the period 1992–2003. This finding is consistent with previous studies of Adler (1983) and Peng, Peterson, and Shyi (1991).

Given the popularity of mail-survey research by IB scholars, it is first important to examine the rigor of data-collection procedures undertaken by researchers. We define rigor as the extent to which the researcher is thorough and precise in the data-collection procedures. This is because a lack of rigor in such procedures can significantly affect the reliability of research, the non-response bias (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2009; Rada, 2000), the purpose of conducting cross-national research (Craig & Douglas, 2000; Hult et al., 2008), and might jeopardize data-collection equivalence (Hult et al., 2008; Nasif et al., 1991; Sekaran, 1983). Second, we investigate "if" and "how" international business scholars have been reporting mail-survey-administration procedures in the last decade. Third, we explore the effectiveness of different data-collection practices in terms of the surveys' response rates. Finally, we offer guidelines for international business researchers with regards to data-collection procedures in survey research.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. First, we provide an overview of data-collection procedures in mail surveys, as suggested by Dillman (1978, 1999) and Dillman et al. (2009) in the social science literature. We choose Dillman's work as our point of departure as it rigorously demonstrates a comprehensive framework for mail surveys. Second, we discuss the adequacy of such data-collection procedures for cross-cultural research and highlight their benefits for mail survey research. Next, we present the empirical findings of mail survey-administration procedures

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employed in some 285 studies by IB scholars. These were published in the highest-ranked international business journals between 2000 and 2009. Finally, we offer a detailed discussion of the implications of the findings for IB research, focusing on the data-collection procedures that should be employed to enhance data quality in cross-cultural research.

2. A framework for cross-cultural data-collection procedures

When designing cross-cultural research, careful attention should be focused on data collection to ensure comparability across cultures. This is because many countries have largely different social systems, literacy rates, and cultural norms and values. Even a country with the same language might employ different vocabulary and cognitive processes (e.g., Germany/Austria, USA/UK).

During the data-collection phase, timing of data collection in different cultures, interviewer status, type of research and response equivalence are important (Cavusgil & Das, 1997; Ghauri & Grønhaug, 2010; Herk, Poorting, & Verhallen, 2005; Sekaran, 1983). At the data-collection stage, effort should be made to ensure that data-collection procedures are consistent across various locations, as this enhances the comparability of the data collected. Further, researchers should consider employing a mixed-method approach where more than one data-collection technique is used for gathering data (Couper, 2011; Czaja & Blair, 2005; Dillman, 2000; Groves et al., 2004). By combining two or more data-collection methods, the researcher can compensate for the weaknesses of each individual method (De Leeuw, 2005, p. 235). Finally, “response equivalence can be ensured by adopting uniform data-collection procedures in all the cultures in which a problem is being investigated” (Sekaran, 1983, p. 63).

Following the establishment of a seven-stage methodology model for conducting cross-cultural studies by Cavusgil and Das (1997), we hope to demonstrate the importance of data-collection procedures for survey research, with a specific emphasis on mail surveys. We focus on the mail survey, as it is still the most common method of collecting cross-national data used by IB scholars (Yang, Wang, & Su, 2006).

Concentrating on primary data-collection methods (mainly those that use a questionnaire as a tool for gathering data), it is important to note that a variety of administration procedures can be used by researchers depending how the questionnaire is delivered to potential respondents (e.g. a postal vs. a personally administered questionnaire). For example, if a researcher chooses to use a mail survey, then a comprehensive framework of administration techniques developed by Dillman (1978, 1999) and Dillman et al. (2009) should be used to achieve thoroughness in data-collection procedures.

Credible survey-administration procedures are essential for establishing rigor in data collection in the IB field, as they directly impact the response rate, a generally accepted proxy for non-response bias and the overall reliability of the collected data. Further, by utilizing rigorous and comparable survey-administration procedures across countries, IB scholars could establish data-collection-procedure equivalence. This issue has been highlighted by several scholars, including Sekaran (1983), Adler (1983), Nasif et al. (1991) and Hult et al. (2008).

When undertaking data collection for comparative survey research, scholars face many potential sources of bias, any of which can make the results unreliable. One of these, for example, relates to the non-response bias resulting from the fact that some of the members of the sampled population do not respond to the survey questions (Cascio, 2012; Cavusgil & Das, 1997; Cox, 1974; Dillman, 1991; Groves, 1989, 2004; Weisberg, 2005).

A substantial amount of research on improving mail-survey methods has focused on response rates, a generally accepted proxy

for non-response bias (Baruch & Holtom, 2008; Cascio, 2012; Cycota & Harris, 2006; Eichner & Habermehl, 1981; Herbelein & Baumgartner, 1978). Since carrying out international and comparative research based on a multi-country survey has long been acknowledged as a difficult undertaking (Knight et al., 2003), the almost singular focus in IB research is on response rates, due to the high potential for non-response bias. This is an issue that has long been considered as the major drawback of multi-country surveys (Harzing, 1997, 2000). Thus, in our view, employment of rigorous data-collection procedures could reduce or eliminate such a non-response bias.

Maintaining rigor in data-collection procedures might appear straightforward (Hult et al., 2008). Nevertheless, the nature of IB research poses threats and often leads to disparities in data-collection procedures (Eichner & Habermehl, 1981). Hence, the establishment of appropriate and consistent survey-data-collection techniques is crucial for rigorous scholarship. Failure to do so could jeopardize reliability and validity for knowledge creation in the IB field (Mullen, 1995; Singh, 1995).

Guided by social exchange theory, Dillman (1978) proposed a comprehensive framework for mail-survey data-collection known in the literature as the *total design method* (ToDM). According to social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1973), survey recipients are most likely to complete and return a questionnaire if they expect that the perceived benefits of doing so will outweigh the perceived costs (material and psychological) of responding. Consequently, the researcher (whether in the international or/and domestic market) needs to minimize the expected costs and maximize the expected benefits of participation.

Three elements are crucial for reinforcing this kind of behavior: rewards, costs, and trust. In simple terms, *rewards* are what one anticipates to gain from a particular activity, *costs* are what one gives up or spends to obtain the rewards, and *trust* is the expectation that in the long term the rewards of doing something will offset the costs (Dillman, 1978). The key element of ToDM is a set of rigorous data-collection procedures that should be used by scholars in order to reduce non-response error (Dillman et al., 2009).

As an example, four carefully spaced mailings to potential respondents are proposed. First is the *questionnaire mailing*. The questionnaire is typically mailed in an envelope along with a stamped and addressed return envelope and a *detailed covering letter*. Second, a *postcard* is sent out to all potential respondents one week after mailing the questionnaire, thanking them for their co-operation and reminding those who have not yet responded that it is important to co-operate. Third, two weeks later, a *second copy of the questionnaire* is sent out to those who have not yet sent in the completed questionnaire, along with a *reminder letter* that their replies have not yet been received. Finally, four to seven weeks later, a *third copy of the questionnaire* is mailed, this time by *registered mail* to emphasize the importance of the survey. A note is also included in this procedure to remind potential respondents of the importance of their response for the success of the survey.

Under the social exchange approach, a range of methods of contact is generally more powerful. Individuals with whom the first contact was successful will not be subject to receiving a replacement questionnaire. As a result, the later contacts need to be varied in an effort to increase their effectiveness with non-respondents. Therefore it is important that each communication method differs from previous ones in order to convey a sense of appropriate renewal of an effort to communicate. Each of these delivery contacts, described above, builds upon past research (Dillman, Christenson, Carpenter, & Brooks, 1974; Herbelein & Baumgartner, 1978) showing that a distinctively different final contact improves response to mail surveys. In addition, it has been shown in the literature that rigorous multiple contacts have a

significantly greater collective capability for influencing response rates than any other individual and non-rigorous techniques for increasing response to mail surveys (Dillman et al., 1974; Linsky, 1975; Scott, 1961).

Taking into account the globalization of markets, the surge of mail-survey techniques (Dillman et al., 2009; Dillman, 1972; Yang et al., 2006), and sometimes conflicting pressures from groups with much influence over how surveys get done, Dillman (2000) modified the original ToDM in the late 1990s and called it the *tailored design method* (TaDM). One of the new features of the TaDM is the change in the number of contacts. Here, the use of five instead of four contacts is prescribed. The new contact is a *brief pre-notice letter*. This is sent to potential respondents several days prior to mailing the questionnaire. It aims to signal that a questionnaire for an important survey will arrive in a few days and that the person's response would be greatly appreciated.

Dillman's intention in designing each aspect of the implementation system from pre-notice letter to return envelopes is to create positive salience, where each element of the process is noticeable but in a way that creates a positive impression and, thereby, increases a sense of reward, diminishes perceived costs and, at the same time, creates trust. The overall impression that is established depends not only on individual contacts but also on the consistency among those contacts. Therefore, it is important that each contact should not be thought of as self-contained but as part of an overall implementation system for which a change in one part is likely to produce an unintended consequence for another. Thus, these contacts (or 'touches') should be seen as a totality of procedures that interact with each other to ensure a rigorous data-collection process.

Development of the ToDM technique and its ability to achieve high response rates have contributed to an increase in the number of mail surveys in business research (Dillman, 1991; Jussaume & Yamada, 1990; Rada, 2000). Because the ToDM was developed in the United States, Goyder (1982, p. 533), by making reference to Ladd's (1980) work, points out that return rates on mail surveys would be lower in foreign contexts than in the United States due to "higher legitimacy of surveying in American cultures." However, this no longer holds as investigations have been carried out in Europe, Australia, and Asia on whether the ToDM is a culture-bound survey methodology; it has proven to be otherwise. For example, Greated (1985) assessed the feasibility of using rigorous implementation procedures proposed by the ToDM in Australia. He found that such procedures yield very high response rates and reliable data. His results are comparable with those obtained in the United States. De Leeuw and Hox (1988), however, analyzed the efficiency of the personalization of a covering letter and reminder by registered mail (i.e. response-increasing factors of the ToDM) on a sample of the Dutch population. They found that response-stimulating factors have a statistically significant effect on the number of completed questionnaires and data quality, and that response rates do not differ to any great extent from those in the U.S. either.

Another study in the Netherlands (Nederhof, 1983) demonstrated that the use of incentives positively influences the speed and quality of survey results. The results were also comparable with those in the U.S. literature (Brennan, 1958; Watson, 1965). Conducting a study in Spain, Rada (2000) also validated the usefulness of Dillman's implementation procedures. He found that rigorous multiple contacts do indeed increase response rates.

In a study comparing the viability of the ToDM in Japan and the United States, Jussaume and Yamada (1990) found that "mail surveys are feasible research tools in Japan and potentially in other cultures where the majority of the intended universe is literate, can be sampled, and can be contacted through a dependable postal system (p. 226)". Their results suggested that the theoretical

foundations of the ToDM are not culture-bound (specific to Western countries) and that consideration of the theoretical base is key to implementing the ToDM in foreign settings.

Therefore, we formulate the following hypotheses regarding the effect of Dillman's data-collection procedures on survey response rates in international business research:

- H1.** The utilization of Dillman's data-collection procedures has a positive effect on survey response rates in international business research.
- H2.** The utilization of a pre-notice letter has a positive effect on survey response rates in international business research.
- H3.** The utilization of a cover letter has a positive effect on survey response rates in international business research.
- H4.** The utilization of a reminder has a positive effect on survey response rates in international business research.
- H5.** The utilization of a follow-up has a positive effect on survey response rates in international business research.
- H6.** The utilization of incentives has a positive effect on survey response rates in international business research.
- H7.** The utilization of a thank-you letter has a positive effect on survey response rates in international business research.

3. The analytical approach

To examine mail-survey-administration procedures used by IB researchers, a comprehensive and systematic content analysis was carried out (Krippendorff, 2004; Weber, 1990) among papers published in the *Journal of International Business Studies* (JIBS), *International Business Review* (IBR), *Journal of World Business* (JWB), and *Management International Review* (MIR). These four journals were chosen because they are accepted by the international business community as the top IB journals (DuBois & Reeb, 2000; Piekkari, Welch, & Paavilainen, 2009; Platt, 1996). We examined articles published over a decade, from 2000 to 2009.

3.1. Data collection

Our investigation proceeded as follows. First, all studies were identified through on-line access to each journal. The only exception was MIR, where hard-copy issues were examined for special and focused issues. Second, every article (omitting editorials and commentaries) published in these four journals was categorized based on the type of data collection used by authors (e.g. primary, secondary or both). Within the primary-data category, each article was then placed into one of two groups – those using a survey (i.e. where only a questionnaire was used for data collection) and those using a survey plus another primary-data technique (e.g. interviews, focus groups). Further, the questionnaire category was re-grouped into the following sub-categories: mail, electronic, fax, personally administered, internal mail and mixed-method. This was undertaken in order to examine, in greater detail, the ways through which a questionnaire was delivered to potential respondents.

In cases where a delivery method was not mentioned by the authors, the study was placed under the "not mentioned" category. Finally, we identified which of the articles used the multi-contact strategies developed by Dillman (1978, 1999, 2000), as discussed above. Any ambiguity related to the coding process was resolved by the authors through discussion.

A total of 652 out of 1440 papers, published in the four journals during the study period, employed primary-data collection,

accounting for 45 per cent. In total, 348 (53%) of the 652 studies were identified as using a questionnaire as their only data-collection method. The three most common ways of delivering a questionnaire to potential respondents were by mail (82%), followed by personally administered delivery (8%), and a mixed-method approach (5%). Further, three (1%) studies out of 348 failed to mention how the questionnaire was administered.

Consistent with our stated objectives, we decided to include only studies that utilized a mail survey as a primary data-collection method for the following reasons. First is the fact that mail surveys are still a popular way of gathering data by IB researchers (Yang et al., 2006). Second, the theoretical framework proposed by Dillman (1978) has been developed for mail-survey-data collection. Finally, the largest number of studies used this type of data-collection technique in our sample.

Based on the above criteria, 285 articles were included in the present analysis. *JIBS* offered the largest number of articles (99 or 35%), followed by *IBR* (71 or 25%), then *JWB* (60, 21%), and *MIR* (55, 19%). (A list of the articles is available from the authors).

As to sample characteristics, Table 1 illustrates that in 228 (80%) of the papers, the corresponding author was a male. In the majority of the studies (132 or 46%), the corresponding author was a professor, followed by an assistant professor (77 or 27%), and an associate professor (69 or 24%). In many of the papers (110 or 39%), the corresponding author was located in Europe, followed by North America (97 or 34%), and Asia (54 or 19%). The largest percentage of the European authors (43 or 39%) was from the U.K., followed by Denmark and Spain (10 or 9% each).

As Table 1 shows, the majority of articles were authored by two authors (119 or 42%), followed by three authors (73 or 26%), and a single authorship (55 or 19%). The number of countries most frequently surveyed by authors was one (160 or 58%), followed by two countries (33 or 12%), and more than ten countries (22 or 8%). The continent most surveyed by authors was Europe (146 or 51%), followed by Asia (124 or 44%), and North America (107 or 38%). While some differences exist across the four journals, it can be concluded that Europe has been the most popular continent, while other regions of the world such as South America, Australia, Africa, New Zealand and the Middle East have been generally under-represented by IB mail-survey research. More than half of the studies under investigation (183 or 64%) did not mention the use of a pilot study to pre-test the postal questionnaire. The typical response rate indicated ranged between 20 and 29.99% (57 papers, 20%), and the mean response rate was 38% – a higher percentage than that obtained by Yang et al. (2006) for postal surveys across IB journals between 1992 and 2003.

4. Empirical results

4.1. Data-collection procedures across journals

As demonstrated in Table 2, only 14 of the 285 articles under investigation referred to Dillman's ToDM and/or TaDM for the mail-survey-administration procedures. The journals with the most authors referring to those frameworks were *MIR* (5 studies), followed by *JIBS* and *IBR* (4 and 3 studies, respectively). Although there is some variation in the distribution of studies referring to Dillman across IB journals, these differences are not statistically significant.

It has to be noted that this might be due to the fact that statistical analyses relating to the use of Dillman's procedures were based on a rather small sample and a low power of the test ($(1 - \beta) = 0.135$), a rather complex relationship between the parameters. This is an issue pointed out by Cohen (1977), Cohen and Cohen (1975), Cascio, Valenzi, and Silbey (1978), and Brock (2003).

Table 1
Sample characteristics.

Categories	Total (N=285) Frequency (%)	Mean (Std.dev)	$\chi^2_{(df)}$
<i>Corresponding author's characteristics</i>			
Gender			
Male	228 (80.00)	0.20 (0.40)	102.6 ₍₁₎ ***
Female	57 (20.00)		
Position			
Assistant professor	77 (27.02)	2.26 (0.94)	208.67 ₍₄₎ ***
Associate professor	69 (24.21)		
Professor	132 (46.23)		
PhD student	4 (1.40)		
Non-academic	3 (1.05)		
Country			
North-America ^a	97 (34.04)	2.91 (1.67)	151.4 ₍₄₎ ***
South-America	3 (1.05)		
Europe ^b	110 (38.60)		
Asia ^c	54 (18.95)		
Oceania ^d	21 (7.37)		
Number of authors			
One author	55 (19.30)	2.33 (0.94)	51.27 ₍₃₎ ***
Two authors	119 (41.75)		
Three authors	73 (25.61)		
More than three authors	38 (13.33)		
Number of countries surveyed			
One country	160 (57.76)	2.05 (1.35)	1179.64 ₍₇₎ ***
Two countries	32 (11.55)		
Three countries	19 (6.86)		
Four countries	16 (5.78)		
Five countries	10 (3.61)		
Six to ten countries	18 (6.50)		
More than ten	22 (7.94)		
Not clear how many	8 (2.81)		
Continents surveyed ^e			
Europe	146 (51.23)		426.73 ₍₇₎ ***
Asia	124 (43.51)		
North America	107 (37.54)		
South America	28 (9.82)		
Australia	23 (8.07)		
Africa	9 (3.16)		
New Zealand	8 (2.81)		
Middle East	7 (2.46)		
Pilot study			
Not referred	183 (64.21)	0.36 (0.48)	23.02 ₍₁₎ ***
Referred	102 (35.79)		
Response rate			
Less than 10%	20 (7.02)	37.52 (20.72) ^f	189.54 ₍₁₀₎ ***
10–19.99%	27 (9.47)		
20–29.99%	57 (20.00)		
30–39.99%	43 (15.09)		
40–49.99%	33 (11.58)		
50–59.99%	14 (4.91)		
60–69.99%	9 (3.16)		
70–79.99%	7 (2.46)		
80–89.99%	5 (1.75)		
90–99.99%	2 (0.70)		
Not mentioned ^g	68 (23.86)		

^a Ninety-two percent of the North-American authors were based in the USA.

^b Thirty-nine percent of the European authors were from the UK. This was followed by nine percent of authors from Denmark and Spain.

^c Fifty-four percent of the Asian authors were located in China.

^d Mainly Australia and New Zealand.

^e Percentages do not add to 100 as a large portion of the studies survey more than one continent. America was the third most-often-surveyed continent among studies that surveyed one country. America and Europe were the third most-often-surveyed continents among studies that surveyed more than one country. America, Europe and Asia were the most-often-surveyed continents among studies that surveyed more than one country. Europe was the second most-often-surveyed continent among studies that surveyed one and more than one country. Asia was the most-often-surveyed continent for studies that surveyed one country.

^f Based on the number reported by authors and expressed in the form of a percentage. In the case of a cross-country study, the mean response rate was included.

^g Here we mean studies where authors did not express the response rate.

** $p < .05$. *** $p < .01$.

Table 2Reporting of data-collection procedures across journals, 2000–2009.^a

	Mean(Std.dev)	$\chi^2_{(df)}$ ^b	Power (1 – β) ^c	Categories	JIBS n = 99(%)	IBR n = 71(%)	JWB n = 60(%)	MIR n = 55(%)	Total N = 285(%)
Dillman's framework ^d	0.049(0.22)	2.61 ₍₃₎	0.994	Not referred Referred	95(95.96) 4(4.04)	68(95.77) 3(4.23)	58(96.67) 2(3.33)	50(90.91) 5(9.09)	271(95.09) 14(4.91)
	Mean(Std.dev)	$\chi^2_{(df)}$ ^b	Power (1 – β) ^c	Categories	JIBS n = 4	IBR n = 3	JWB n = 2	MIR n = 5	Total ^f n = 14
Dillman's data-collection procedures ^e	0.43(0.51)	1.27 ₍₃₎	0.135	Not referred Referred	3(75.00) 1(25.00)	2(66.67) 1(33.33)	1(50.00) 1(50.00)	2(40.00) 3(60.00)	8(57.14) 6(42.86)
Pre-notice letter	0.29(0.47)	1.18 ₍₃₎		Not referred Referred	3(75.00) 1(25.00)	2(66.67) 1(33.33)	2 0	3(60.00) 2(40.00)	10(71.43) 4(28.57)
Covering letter	0.36(0.50)	2.60 ₍₃₎		Not referred Referred	3(75.00) 1(25.00)	1(33.33) 2(66.67)	2 0	3(60.00) 2(40.00)	9(64.29) 5(35.71)
Reminder	0.21(0.43)	0.83 ₍₃₎		Not referred Referred	3(75.00) 1(25.00)	2(66.67) 1(33.33)	2 0	4(80.00) 1(20.00)	11(78.57) 3(21.43)
Follow-up	0.29(0.47)	1.99 ₍₃₎		Not referred Referred	3(75.00) 1(25.00)	3 0	1(50.00) 1(50.00)	3(60.00) 2(40.00)	10(71.43) 4(28.57)
Thank-You	–	–	–	Not referred Referred	4 0	3 0	2 0	5 0	14 0
Incentives ^g	0.14(0.36)	2.02 ₍₃₎		Not referred Referred	4 0	2(66.67) 1(33.33)	2 0	4(80.00) 1(20.00)	12(85.71) 2(14.29)
	Mean(Std.dev)	$\chi^2_{(df)}$ ^b	Power (1 – β) ^c	Categories	JIBS n = 95(%)	IBR n = 68(%)	JWB n = 58(%)	MIR n = 50(%)	Total N = 271(%)
Any data-collection procedures ^h	0.40(0.50)	4.64 ₍₃₎	0.992	Not referred Referred	65(68.42) 30(31.58)	40(58.82) 28(41.18)	31(53.45) 27(46.55)	27(54.00) 23(46.00)	163(60.15) 108(39.85)
Pre-notice letter	0.11(0.31)	7.00 ₍₃₎ [*]		Not referred Referred	90(94.74) 5(5.26)	60(88.24) 8(11.76)	47(81.03) 11(18.97)	44(88.00) 6(12.00)	241(88.93) 30(11.07)
Covering letter	0.11(0.31)	3.37 ₍₃₎		Not referred Referred	82(86.32) 13(13.68)	64(94.12) 4(5.88)	53(91.38) 5(8.62)	43(86.00) 7(14.00)	242(89.30) 29(10.70)
Reminder	0.08(0.27)	6.81 ₍₃₎ [*]		Not referred Referred	91(95.79) 4(4.21)	58(85.29) 10(14.71)	55(94.83) 3(5.17)	45(90.00) 5(10.00)	249(91.88) 22(8.12)
Follow-up	0.20(0.40)	6.26 ₍₃₎ [*]		Not referred Referred	77(81.05) 18(18.95)	50(73.53) 18(26.47)	52(89.66) 6(10.34)	37(74.00) 13(26.00)	216(79.70) 55(20.30)
Thank You	0.00(0.06)	1.86 ₍₃₎		Not referred Referred	94(98.95) 1(1.05)	68 0	58 0	50 0	270(99.63) 1(0.37)
Incentives ^g	0.15(0.35)	13.22 ₍₃₎ ^{***}		Not referred Referred	87(91.58) 8(8.42)	59(86.76) 9(13.24)	41(70.69) 17(29.31)	44(88.00) 6(1.00)	231(85.24) 40(14.76)

^a Table adopted from [Hult et al. \(2008\)](#). To enhance readability and comparability of data for statistical testing, percentages for 0s are not reported.^b The Fisher tests were undertaken to confirm these results.^c Following the work of [Brock \(2003\)](#), a post hoc statistical power analysis was calculated using G*Power developed by [Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, and Lang \(2009\)](#), [Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, and Buchner \(2007\)](#) and available from <http://www.psych.uni-duesseldorf.de/abteilungen/aap/gpower3/>. $\alpha = 0.05$ ^d Dillman's ToDM and/or TaDM mentioned or not for data-collection procedures.^e Mail survey data-collection procedures proposed in Dillman's frameworks.^f We acknowledge the fact that 14 studies is a small sample size for a statistical analysis, but this is for illustration purposes to show how many studies that refer to Dillman's frameworks actually reported the survey data-collection procedures that he proposed in ToDM and/or TaDM^g Both monetary and non-monetary.^h Mail-survey data-collection procedures referred or not, when Dillman's framework not mentioned for data-collection procedures.^{*} $p < .10$.^{**} $p < .05$.^{***} $p < .01$.

Out of the 14 studies that mentioned Dillman's work, only 6 studies (43%) did actually mention the survey-data-collection procedures.

An examination across journals for those 14 studies that mentioned Dillman's framework, (see [Table 2](#)), showed that *MIR* was the journal with the most studies (3 or 50%) referring to data-collection procedures, while the other three journals included only one study each which referred to that topic (1 or 17%). The contact strategies mostly used by authors in *MIR* were a pre-notice letter, a covering letter and a follow-up (2 studies or 40%). Overall across journals, however, the most-frequent data-collection procedure mentioned, among the 14 studies that referred to Dillman's work, was a cover letter (5 or 36%), and the least-frequent procedures mentioned were incentives (2 or 14%). An interesting finding here is that none of the studies across journals mentioned the use of a 'thank-you' letter as a data-collection procedure.

For further analysis across journals, we excluded the 14 articles that mentioned Dillman's framework, and examined if and how IB researchers report the mail-survey-administration procedures

without mentioning Dillman's work. The results form the remaining portion of [Table 2](#), and we refer to them as *any data-collection procedures*. It can be seen from this table that 108 (40%) out of 271 mail-survey studies reported data-collection procedures of some kind, and that the highest number of reporting studies was in *JIBS* (30 or 28%), followed by *IBR* (28 or 26%) and *JWB* (27 or 25%). The findings indicate that there are no statistically significant differences in the reporting or not reporting of any multi-contact strategies across journals. In general, the most frequent data-collection procedures used for studies that did not refer to Dillman's framework for mail-survey administration were follow-ups (55 or 20%), incentives (40 or 15%), and a cover letter (11%).

Examining the findings in [Table 2](#), it can be seen that statistically significant differences across journals were found for reporting incentives ($\chi^2 = 13.22$, $p < .01$). Further, significant differences have also been found across journals with respect to reporting the use of a pre-notice letter ($\chi^2 = 7.00$, $p < .10$), a reminder ($\chi^2 = 6.81$, $p < .10$) and follow-ups ($\chi^2 = 6.26$, $p < .10$).

JWB included the most studies that reported a pre-notice letter (11 or 19%) and incentives (17 or 29%). IBR contained the largest number of articles that used reminders (10 or 15%). However, both IBR and JIBS included the highest number of studies that mentioned follow-ups (18 or 19% and 18 or 27%, respectively). As indicated in this part of Table 2, there was only one study (1%), published in JIBS, which reported a thank-you letter as a mail-survey-administration procedure.

We are fully aware here of the fact that the increased alpha raises the probability of Type 1 error occurring and that traditionally either the 0.05 level or the 0.01 level have been used in statistical-inference testing (Cowles & Davis, 1982). However, our understanding of the classical statistics is that the alpha error is generally arbitrary in hypothesis testing and that classical theory does not provide a set of rules for selecting the alpha level (Gibbons & Pratt, 1975; Greene, 2003). Thus, in order to support the use of the 0.10 significance level in our analyses, we would like to refer to the work of Mayers and Melcher (1969, p. 35), who point out: “To set α at the same level, say, 0.05 for all hypothesis-testing situations is hardly rational. Rather, for some actions the probability of not taking the right action when the hypothesis is true should be small such as one out of 100 times; while for other statistical-inference problems this alpha error should be rather large such as 30 or 40 per cent”. In addition, we would also like to mention the work of Skipper, Guenther, and Nass (1967), Stanford (1968) and Cascio and Zedeck (1983) for choosing the adequate significance levels in social science.

4.2. Data-collection procedures across time

As shown in Table 3, statistically significant differences were found between studies that either did or did not report Dillman's framework for the postal-surveys' data-collection process across years ($\chi^2 = 17.22$, $p < .05$). Of the 14 studies that mentioned Dillman's framework for the mail-survey-administration procedures, the highest annual percentage of reporting such approach among studies was in 2004 (15% or 5), followed by 2007 (14% or 4). Of the five studies published in 2004, three (60%) actually mentioned the mail-survey data-collection procedures, and of the four studies published in 2007 only one (25%) referred to such strategies. The most popular contact procedure used by authors that referred to Dillman's work in 2004 was a follow-up (2 studies or 40%).

Table 3 also reveals that between 2000 and 2009, only 108 (40%) out of 271 studies mentioned any data-collection procedure for mail surveys of any kind. It can also be seen that of those 108 studies, the years from 2006 to 2009 included the most studies (13) that mentioned any data-collection procedures, and the year 2001 included the fewest of these studies (7). Further, our finding across years points out that a statistically significant result was found (i.e. among studies that mentioned any data-collection procedures) only for reporting a covering letter as a data-collection strategy for mail surveys ($\chi^2 = 15.03$, $p < .10$).

4.3. Data-collection procedures by the number of countries surveyed

Table 4 displays the results of either reporting or not reporting mail-survey data-collection procedures across four journals by the number of countries surveyed by authors. Here, 8 studies were excluded from the analysis as it was not clear how many countries were surveyed by authors. Please see Table 1 for sample characteristics.

As shown in Table 4, among studies that surveyed one country, JIBS was the journal with the most studies (45 or 28%), followed by IBR (43 or 27%), and MIR (37 or 23%). Of the 160 studies that surveyed one country, 77 studies (48%) referred to postal-survey

data-collection procedures. MIR was the journal with most studies (21 or 27%) that reported any techniques, while JIBS was the journal with the fewest studies (16 or 21%). Both IBR and JWB contained an equal number of studies (20 or 26%) that referred to mail data-collection methods. Further, it appears that the most common procedure utilized by authors that surveyed one country was follow-ups (41 or 26%), and the least common technique was a reminder (18 or 12%). In addition, statistically significant results were only found for reporting incentives ($\chi^2 = 8.09$, $p < .05$) and reminders ($\chi^2 = 7.75$, $p < .05$) among studies that surveyed one country across the four journals. None of the studies that surveyed one country used a 'thank-you' letter as a mail data-collection procedure.

As indicated in Table 4, among studies that surveyed more than one country, once again JIBS was the journal with the most studies (54 or 46%). JIBS was followed equally by IBR and JWB (25 or 21%), and MIR (13 or 11%). Only 35 studies (30%), out of 117 that surveyed more than one country, referred to mail-survey data-collection techniques. In contrast to previous findings, JIBS was the journal with most studies (15 or 43%) that reported any techniques, while MIR was the journal with the fewest studies (14 or 12%). Once again, both IBR and JWB contained an equal number of studies (8 or 23%) that referred to mail data-collection methods. The findings suggest that the most frequent data-collection procedures were incentives (16 or 14%) and follow-ups (16 or 14%), and the least-used technique was a pre-notice letter (7 or 6%). Moreover, a statistically significant result was found only for reporting a pre-notice letter ($\chi^2 = 6.34$, $p < .10$) as a data-collection strategy among studies that surveyed more than one country across journals.

The results also reveal that there is no statistically significant difference between those that surveyed one country vs. studies that surveyed more than one country with respect to mail-survey-administration techniques across the journals.

4.4. Effects on survey response rate

As noted above, rigorous data-collection procedures are expected to have a significant impact on the survey response rate and the quality of data that the researcher gathers. Therefore, we now turn our attention into the non-response bias in IB survey research.

Considering the wide variations in the survey-collection procedures utilized by the IB researchers, a regression analysis was performed where the dependent variable is the response rate reported in each study. The linear model for mail-survey response rates is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ResponseRate}_i = & \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Year}_i + \beta_2 \text{NorthAmerica}_i + \beta_3 \text{Asia}_i \\ & + \beta_4 \text{OtherContinents}_i \\ & + \beta_5 \text{Ln(NumberOfCountries)}_i + \beta_6 \text{IBR}_i \\ & + \beta_7 \text{JWB}_i + \beta_8 \text{MIR}_i + \beta_9 \text{Pre - Notice}_i \\ & + \beta_{10} \text{Covering}_i + \beta_{11} \text{Reminder}_i \\ & + \beta_{12} \text{Follow - u}_i + \beta_{13} \text{Incentives}_i \\ & + \beta_{14} \text{Thank - You}_i + \beta_{15} \text{Dillman}_i + \delta_i \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

where *Response Rate* is the reported response rate for the survey utilized in study *i*, β_0 is the intercept, and β_1 to β_{15} are the coefficients. *Year* is the trend variable and denotes the calendar year in which the study was published, *North America*, *Asia* and *Other Continents* are dummy variables coded as 1 if study *i* collected data from the respective continent and 0 otherwise. Europe is the base case. *Number of Countries* denotes the number of countries that are surveyed in study *i*. The number of countries has been

Table 3
Reporting of data-collection procedure across years, 2000–2009.^a

	Mean(Std.dev)	$\chi^2_{(df)}$ ^b	Power (1 – β) ^c	Categories	2000 n = 26(%)	2001 n = 31(%)	2002 n = 29(%)	2003 n = 25(%)	2004 n = 33(%)	2005 n = 21(%)	2006 n = 31(%)	2007 n = 29(%)	2008 n = 25(%)	2009 n = 35(%)	Total N = 285(%)
Dillman's framework ^d	0.049(0.22)	17.22 ₍₉₎ ^{**}	0.967	Not referred Referred	26 0	30(96.77) 1(3.23)	28(96.55) 1(3.23)	24(96.00) 1(4.00)	28(84.85) 5(15.15)	20(95.24) 1(4.76)	31 0	25(86.21) 4(13.79)	25 0	34(95.09) 1(2.86)	271(95.09) 14(4.91)
	Mean(Std.dev)	$\chi^2_{(df)}$ ^b	Power (1 – β) ^c	Categories	2000 n = 0	2001 n = 1(%)	2002 n = 1(%)	2003 n = 1(%)	2004 n = 5(%)	2005 n = 1(%)	2006 n = 0	2007 n = 4(%)	2008 n = 0	2009 n = 1(%)	Total ^f n = 14(%)
Dillman's data-collection procedures ^e	0.43(0.51)	6.04 ₍₆₎	0.107	Not referred Referred	0 0	1 0	1 0	0 1	2(40.00) 3(60.00)	1 0	0 0	3(75.00) 1(25.00)	0 0	0 1	8(57.14) 6(42.86)
Pre-notice letter	0.29(0.47)	10.1 ₍₆₎		Not referred Referred	0 0	1 0	0 1	0 1	4(80.00) 1(20.00)	1 0	0 0	4 0	0 1	0 1	10(71.43) 4(28.57)
Covering letter	0.36(0.50)	7.25 ₍₆₎		Not referred Referred	0 0	1 0	0 1	0 1	4(80.00) 1(20.00)	1 0	0 0	3(75.00) 1(25.00)	0 0	0 1	9(64.29) 5(35.71)
Reminder	0.21(0.43)	4.80 ₍₆₎		Not referred Referred	0 0	1 0	1 0	0 1	4(80.00) 1(20.00)	1 0	0 0	3(75.00) 1(25.00)	0 0	1 0	11(78.57) 3(21.43)
Follow-up	0.29(0.47)	8.12 ₍₆₎		Not referred Referred	0 0	1 0	1 0	0 1	3(60.00) 2(40.00)	1 0	0 0	4 0	0 0	0 1	10(71.43) 4(28.57)
Thank you	–	–		Not referred Referred	0 0	1 0	1 0	1 0	5 0	1 0	0 0	4 0	0 0	1 0	14 0
Incentives ^g	0.14(0.14)	1.34 ₍₆₎		Not referred Referred	0 0	1 0	1 0	1 0	4(80.00) 1(20.00)	1 0	0 0	3(75.00) 1(25.00)	0 0	1 0	12(85.71) 2(14.29)
	Mean(Std.dev)	$\chi^2_{(df)}$ ^b	Power (1 – β) ^c	Categories	2000 n = 26(%)	2001 n = 30(%)	2002 n = 28(%)	2003 n = 24(%)	2004 n = 28(%)	2005 n = 20(%)	2006 n = 31(%)	2007 n = 25(%)	2008 n = 25(%)	2009 n = 34(%)	Total N = 271(%)
Any data-collection procedures ^h	0.40(0.50)	9.51 ₍₉₎	0.957	Not referred Referred	17(65.38) 9(34.62)	23(76.67) 7(23.33)	16(57.14) 12(42.86)	12(50.00) 12(50.00)	20(71.43) 8(28.57)	12(60.00) 8(40.00)	18(58.06) 13(41.94)	12(48.00) 13(52.00)	12(48.00) 13(52.00)	21(61.76) 13(38.24)	163(60.15) 108(39.85)
Pre-notice letter	0.11(0.31)	5.45 ₍₉₎		Not referred Referred	23(88.46) 3(11.54)	27(90.00) 3(10.00)	25(89.29) 3(10.71)	22(91.67) 2(8.33)	25(89.29) 3(10.71)	20 0	27(87.10) 4(12.40)	23(92.00) 2(8.00)	20(80.00) 5(20.00)	29(85.29) 5(14.71)	241(88.93) 30(11.07)
Covering letter	0.11(0.31)	15.03 ₍₉₎ [*]		Not referred Referred	19(73.08) 7(26.92)	29(96.67) 1(3.33)	25(89.29) 3(10.71)	20(83.33) 4(16.67)	25(89.29) 3(10.71)	17(85.00) 3(15.00)	30(96.77) 1(3.23)	21(84.00) 4(16.00)	23(92.00) 2(8.00)	33(97.06) 1(2.94)	242(89.30) 29(10.70)
Reminder	0.08(0.27)	5.55 ₍₉₎		Not referred Referred	24(92.31) 2(7.69)	27(90.00) 3(10.00)	27(96.43) 1(3.57)	20(83.33) 4(16.67)	27(96.43) 1(3.57)	18(90.00) 2(10.00)	28(90.32) 3(9.68)	22(88.00) 3(12.00)	24(96.00) 1(4.00)	32(94.12) 2(5.88)	249(91.88) 22(8.12)
Follow-up	0.20(0.40)	8.18 ₍₉₎		Not referred Referred	21(80.77) 5(19.23)	24(80.00) 6(20.00)	24(85.71) 4(14.29)	16(66.67) 8(33.33)	24(85.71) 4(14.29)	19 0	23(74.19) 8(25.81)	18(72.00) 7(28.00)	20(80.00) 5(20.00)	27(79.41) 7(20.59)	216(79.70) 55(20.30)
Thank you	0.00(0.06)	8.71 ₍₉₎		Not referred Referred	26 0	30 0	27(96.43) 1(3.57)	24 0	28 0	20 0	31 0	25 0	25 0	34 0	270(99.63) 1(0.37)
Incentives ^g	0.15(0.35)	8.54 ₍₉₎		Not referred Referred	22(84.62) 4(15.38)	28(93.33) 2(6.67)	21(75.00) 7(25.00)	20(83.33) 4(16.67)	26(92.86) 2(7.14)	17(85.00) 3(15.00)	27(87.10) 4(12.90)	20(80.00) 5(20.00)	19(76.00) 6(24.00)	31(91.18) 3(8.82)	231(85.24) 40(14.76)

^a Table adopted from Hult et al. (2008). To enhance readability and comparability of data for statistical testing, percentages for 0s are not reported.^b The Fisher's exact tests were undertaken to confirm obtained results.^c Following the work of Brock (2003), a post hoc statistical power analysis was calculated using G*Power developed by Faul et al. (2007, 2009), and available from <http://www.psych.uni-duesseldorf.de/abteilungen/aap/gpower3/>. $\alpha = 0.05$.^d Dillman's ToDM and/or TaDM mentioned or not for data-collection procedures.^e Mail survey data-collection procedures proposed in Dillman's frameworks.^f We acknowledge the fact that 14 studies is a small sample size for a statistical analysis, but this is for illustration purposes to show how many studies that refer to Dillman's frameworks actually report the survey data-collection procedures that he proposed in ToDM and/or TaDM.^g Both monetary and non-monetary.^h Mail survey data procedures referred or not when Dillman's framework not mentioned for data-collection procedures.^{*} $p < .10$.^{**} $p < .05$.^{***} $p < .01$.

Table 4
Reporting of data-collection procedures across journals by the number of countries surveyed, 2000–2009.^{a,b}

	Mean(Std.dev)	$\chi^2_{(df)}$ ^c	Power (1 – β) ^d	Categories	JIBS n = 45(%)	IBR n = 43(%)	JWB n = 35(%)	MIR n = 37(%)	Total n = 160(%)
<i>One country surveyed</i>									
Data-collection procedures	0.48(0.50)	5.14 ₍₃₎	0.905	Not referred	29(64.44)	23(53.49)	15(42.86)	16(43.24)	83(51.88)
				Referred	16(35.56)	20(46.51)	20(57.14)	21(56.76)	77(48.13)
Pre-notice letter	0.16(0.37)	5.46 ₍₃₎		Not referred	40(88.89)	38(88.37)	25(71.43)	31(83.78)	134(83.75)
				Referred	5(11.11)	5(11.63)	10(28.57)	6(16.22)	26(16.25)
Covering letter	0.13(0.33)	3.47 ₍₃₎		Not referred	38(84.44)	40(93.02)	32(91.43)	30(81.08)	140(87.50)
				Referred	7(15.59)	3(6.98)	3(8.57)	7(18.92)	20(12.50)
Reminder	0.13(0.33)	7.75 ₍₃₎ ^{**}		Not referred	41(97.62)	32(76.19)	30(90.91)	28(87.50)	131(87.92)
				Referred	1(2.38)	10(23.81)	3(9.09)	4(12.50)	18(12.08)
Follow-up	0.26(0.44)	3.47 ₍₃₎		Not referred	35(77.78)	31(72.09)	29(82.86)	24(64.86)	119(74.38)
				Referred	10(22.22)	12(27.91)	6(17.14)	13(35.14)	41(25.62)
Thank-You	–	–		Not referred	–	–	–	–	–
				Referred	–	–	–	–	–
Incentives ^e	0.16(0.37)	8.09 ₍₃₎ ^{**}		Not referred	41(91.11)	37(86.05)	24(68.57)	32(86.49)	134(83.75)
				Referred	4(8.89)	6(13.95)	11(31.43)	5(13.51)	26(16.25)
	Mean(Std.dev)	$\chi^2_{(df)}$ ^c	Power (1 – β) ^d	Categories	JIBS n = 54(%)	IBR n = 25(%)	JWB n = 25(%)	MIR n = 13(%)	Total n = 117(%)
<i>More than one country surveyed</i>									
Data-collection procedures	0.30(0.46)	0.26 ₍₃₎	0.785	Not referred	39(72.22)	17(68.00)	17(68.00)	9(69.23)	82(70.09)
				Referred	15(27.78)	8(32.00)	8(32.00)	4(30.77)	35(29.91)
Pre-notice letter	0.60(0.24)	6.34 ₍₃₎ [*]		Not referred	53(98.15)	21(84.00)	24(96.00)	12(92.31)	110(94.02)
				Referred	1(1.85)	4(16.00)	4(4.00)	1(7.69)	7(5.98)
Covering letter	0.11(0.32)	0.57 ₍₃₎		Not referred	47(87.04)	22(88.00)	23(92.00)	11(84.62)	103(88.03)
				Referred	7(12.96)	3(12.00)	2(8.00)	2(15.38)	14(11.97)
Reminder	0.04(0.20)	1.71 ₍₃₎		Not referred	51(94.44)	24(96.00)	25	12(92.31)	112(95.73)
				Referred	3(5.56)	1(4.00)	0	1(7.69)	5(4.27)
Follow-up	0.14(0.35)	2.92 ₍₃₎		Not referred	46(85.19)	20(80.00)	24(96.00)	11(84.62)	101(86.32)
				Referred	8(14.81)	5(20.00)	14(4.00)	2(15.38)	16(13.68)
Thank-You	0.01(0.10)	1.18 ₍₃₎		Not referred	53(98.15)	25	25	13	116(99.15)
				Referred	1(1.85)	0	0	0	1(0.85)
Incentives ^e	0.14(0.35)	4.20 ₍₃₎		Not referred	50(92.59)	21(84.00)	19(76.00)	11(84.62)	101(86.32)
				Referred	4(7.41)	4(16.00)	6(24.00)	2(15.38)	16(13.68)
Grand total N = 277^b									

^a Table adopted from Hult et al. (2008). To enhance readability and comparability of data for statistical testing, percentages for 0s are not reported.^b See Table 1 for number of countries surveyed.^c The Fisher tests were undertaken to confirm these results.^d Following the work of Brock (2003), a post hoc statistical power analysis was calculated using G*Power developed by Faul et al. (2007, 2009), and available from <http://www.psych.uni-duesseldorf.de/abteilungen/aap/gpower3/>. $\alpha = 0.05$.^e Both monetary and non-monetary.^{*} $p < .10$.^{**} $p < .05$.^{***} $p < .01$.

normalized using a logarithmic transformation. *IBR*, *JWB* and *MIR* are the dummy variables for the journal in which study *i* was published, coded as 1 if the paper appeared in the respective journal and 0 otherwise. For journal dummies, *JIBS* is the base case. The remaining variables are dummies denoting each of the data-collection procedures discussed above. As such, *Pre-Notice*, *Covering*, *Reminder*, *Follow-up*, *Incentives*, and *Thank-You* are dummy variables coded as 1 if study *i* reports utilizing the respective data-collection procedure and 0 otherwise. Also, we include a dummy variable, *Dillman*, i.e. coded as 1 if researchers utilized Dillman's data-collection procedures and 0 otherwise. The base case for the data-collection procedure dummies is where none of the data-collection procedures discussed above has been used. Further, δ_i represents the error term. This empirical model can be used to test the research hypotheses presented earlier, regarding the effect of Dillman's data-collection procedures on survey response rates.

The ordinary least squares (OLS) estimates of Eq. (1) can be seen in Table 5. The regression results show that the model has a statistically significant fit of the data, ($F = 2.43$; $p < .01$) and an *R* squared of 15.8%. While the regression model explains close to 16% of the variation in response rates, more than 84% of the variation in the dependent variable remains unexplained. Further, the adjusted *R* squared and the shrinkage-adjusted *R* squared (Raju, Bilgic, Edwards, & Fleer, 1997) values are only 9.3% and 1.8%, respectively.

The difference between the *R* squared and the adjusted *R* squared and the shrinkage adjusted *R* squared can be attributed to the relatively large number of predictor variables included in the regression model.

The yearly trend variable has a negative statistically significant ($p < .10$) effect on the response rate, indicating that over time, the survey response rates in IB research are declining. The rate of decline is nearly 1 percentage point a year. The dummy variable for Asia has a positive statistically significant effect on response rates, indicating that studies that collect data from Asia have significantly higher response rates than studies collecting data from Europe ($p < .10$). The number of countries surveyed has a strong and significant effect on response rates ($p < .05$). As the number of countries surveyed increases, the response rate decreases. When compared to *JIBS*, *MIR* has a significantly lower survey response rate, while the other two journals do not have statistically different survey response rates.

According to the regression estimates, studies that have specifically followed Dillman's rigorous data-collection procedures have statistically significant and higher ($p < .10$) survey response rates. It can be seen that, on average, the use of these procedures increases the response rate by 13.7 percentage points. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 is supported. A pre-notice letter improves the response rate significantly ($p < .10$), increasing it by 7.4 percentage

Table 5

The effects on the mail-survey response rates.

	Model ^a
Year	–0.92* (–1.85)
North America	–2.07 (–0.63)
Asia	5.73* (1.93)
Other continent	4.13 (1.10)
Ln(number of countries surveyed)	–4.42** (–2.38)
IBR	–6.06 (–1.62)
JWB	–1.24 (–0.30)
MIR	–7.83* (–1.92)
Pre-notice letter	7.39* (1.68)
Covering letter	–2.40 (–0.55)
Reminder	–4.98 (–1.07)
Follow-up	–10.70*** (–3.12)
Incentives	–4.18 (–1.05)
Thank-You	4.35 (0.20)
Dillman	13.73* (1.76)
Intercept	1871.29* (1.88)
Number of observations	210
F statistic	2.43***
Power (1 – β) ^b	0.827
R-squared	0.158
Adj R-squared	0.093
Shrinkage adjusted R-squared	0.018

^a t-Statistics in parentheses.^b Following the work of Brock (2003), a post hoc statistical power analysis was calculated using G*Power developed by Faul et al. (2007, 2009) and available from <http://www.psych.uni-duesseldorf.de/abteilungen/aap/gpower3/>. $\alpha = 0.009$.* $p < .10$.** $p < .05$.*** $p < .01$.

points. This result provides support for Hypothesis 2. Cover letters and reminders, on a standalone basis, do not have significant effects on the survey response rates; neither do the ‘thank-you’ letters or incentives, failing to provide support for Hypotheses 3, 4, 6 and 7. Follow-up letters are statistically significant ($p < .01$) and, surprisingly, negatively related to survey response rates, failing to provide support for Hypothesis 5. This result could be attributed to researchers utilizing follow-up procedures when the survey responses are lacking. Therefore, the use of follow-up letters could be associated with lower response rates, yet one should not conclude that low response rates are a result of using follow-up procedures. They are more likely to be a driver.

5. Discussion and implications for IB research

The objective of this study was to investigate the rigor of mail-survey-administration procedures utilized by IB researchers in the last decade. By doing so, we identified some key trends with respect to data-collection locations, different regions of the world, and the number of countries surveyed in each study.

The most surveyed continent in IB research is Europe, followed by Asia and North America. Considering the under-representation of other regions in the world, IB researchers ought to expand their research to lesser-studied regions, such as South America, Africa, Australia and the Middle East.

While the scope of IB research is expanding and scholars are addressing a more diverse set of countries, survey response rates are dropping. The present work revealed a decline of about one percentage point a year in the response rates reported in leading IB journals. These trends pose increased challenges for empirical research in IB. Researchers are urged to employ more rigorous data-collection procedures, as it is clear that following a systematic framework can improve response rates significantly. Given the accessibility of online surveys, this approach also emerges as a new tool to ensure higher response rates.

The results of our hypothesis testing reveal that Dillman’s data-collection procedures have a positive effect on survey response

rates. According to our results, researchers can increase their survey response rates by 13.7 percentage points by utilizing Dillman’s procedures. Among Dillman’s procedures, the highest impact is seen from utilizing a pre-notice letter. This procedure can increase the response rate by 7.4%.

At a time when IB researchers are confronted with growing reluctance on the part of respondents (whether executives or consumers) to participate in survey research, success of mail surveys remains highly conditional upon following more methodical and systematic procedures for data collection and the implementation of proven strategies for stimulating response rates (e.g., Baruch & Holtom, 2008; Cychota & Harris, 2006; Eichner & Habermehl, 1981). Undertaking cross-culture comparative studies is no small task. Yet, in order to increase response rates significantly, careful adherence to well-established best practice is prudent. Such a disciplined approach should yield more reliable and generalizable insights in multi-country studies.

Without establishing and using a rigorous data-collection procedure, the reliability and validity of findings will continue to be questioned (Hult et al., 2008). While ensuring credibility in data-collection methods may seem straightforward, cross-cultural differences do hamper survey research results (Craig & Douglas, 2000; Hult et al., 2008). However, these disparities could be overcome if, for example, researchers become more thorough in reporting and explaining how and why a particular data-collection strategy is used.

6. Managerial relevance

Findings of this study have important implications for international business practice. The results indicate that much of the survey-based empirical research relies on insights obtained from Europe, North America, and Asia. Therefore, the findings to date are more relevant to managers that are concerned with these three main geographic regions. On the other hand, the number of countries surveyed by international business researchers is increasing, indicating that empirical findings from survey research have implications for an increasingly wider group of practitioners.

The trend in declining survey response rates is a major concern. Somehow, scholars fail to impress executives with the relevance and credibility of their academic work. This suggests a potential gap between what business executives think is important and what the academics are able to deliver. Scholars are advised to frame their research questions in more contemporary, relevant, and managerial-focused contexts if they are to receive a more enthusiastic response from business executives.

7. Limitations and future research directions

Finally, the work presented here has several limitations that can be addressed in future research. Although mail survey was the dominant method of data collection during the period considered in our study, best-practice recommendations suggested here apply just as well to online surveys. Future research should investigate how different data-collection and survey techniques affect response rates in online surveys. Further, a series of factors, such as survey length, research topic, sample and respondent characteristics, the language of the survey, as well as the use of multiple languages, can have an effect on response rates.

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