21st International Conference on Corporate and Marketing Communications

CMC 2016

Integrated Communications and Branding
Past, Present, Future

7th and 8th April 2016
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WELCOME FROM THE CONFERENCE HOSTS

We are pleased to host CMC2016, the 21st International Conference on Corporate and Marketing Communication: Integrated Communications and Branding Past, Present, Future. In the current ongoing scenario of market turbulence, businesses and non-profit organizations are facing new communication challenges from both a marketing and corporate perspective. Societies now look askance at global businesses, consumers are skeptical of promises made, and citizens increasingly distrust institutions, governments and political processes. Consumer trust in business practice is at an all time low. Rhetoric without substance is despised everywhere and (probably) only a marked sense of responsibility can lead to new scenarios of success. In response to such a turbulent environment, practitioners and academics need to devise new strategies, models, processes, systems and practices to move their brands forward via effective brand communication. The focal point of this 2016 conference lies in analysing past, present, and future scenarios in terms of corporate sustainability and responsible communication. Which communication campaigns or practices have proved adequate or inadequate? What, if any, changes are needed? What is the role of corporate and marketing communications in reinvigorating businesses, societies and economies? How can communication build trust and confidence in brands either of a corporate or marketing nature? The same questions apply to institutions, NGOs and other organizations that are inexorably tied up with the business of communication.

The 21st International Conference on Corporate and Marketing Communications is for academic researchers and educators as well as practitioners seeking to promote knowledge, stimulate dialogue and set trends, in the field of marketing and corporate communication, brands and branding. We have accepted over 60 submissions from 11 different countries and are pleased with the reception that we have obtained from scholars around the world. The consistent global support maintained over many years reinforces our conviction that there is an ongoing need to discuss, debate and dissect issues surrounding corporate and marketing communications. Please use this conference as a sounding board, networking venue and debate platform in our journey to heighten knowledge and understanding of these areas of research. We hope you will find the Conference exciting, insightful and penetrating and that it provides you with inspiration and confidence to pursue research in this area of corporate and marketing communications now and in the future.

We thank the academic and administration staff of the Business School, Middlesex University, for hosting the conference this year. Thank you to all who have been such great supporters of this research field and of this conference. Without you, the conference could not happen.

Enjoy the conference!
Professor TC Melewar, Professor Charles Dennis and Dr Pantea Foroudi
CMC CONFERENCE COMMITTEE

Prof Charles Dennis  
Associate Director

Prof TC Melewar  
Conference Director

Dr Pantea Foroudi  
Associate Director

Noreen Dove  
Conference Coordinator

Elena Ageeva  
Conference Coordinator

Karen Korsgaard  
Conference Coordinator

Luther Mayers  
Conference Coordinator
NOTE FROM THE CONFERENCE FOUNDER

I am grateful to Middlesex University Business School for hosting the 21st International Conference in Corporate and Marketing Communications (CMC), and to Professors TC Melewar, Charles Dennis and Dr. Pantea Foroudi for acting as Co-Conference Chairs and for all those faculty and staff who have assisted in some way. This is the second time the conference has been hosted by Middlesex University, with an earlier conference chaired by Professor Lynne Eagle. However, an earlier version of TC Melewar also chaired this conference at Warwick University. I am also grateful to delegates old (some of us are increasingly ‘getting on’) and new, for adding to the sum of knowledge in either communications domain.

It is also CMC’s 21st birthday and as such I am sure celebrations will be built into the event.

I look forward to seeing everyone there, and again reiterate my thanks to all concerned.

Professor Philip J. Kitchen
Conference Founder
Welcome to the Business School, Middlesex University, London. London is one of the world’s most important centres for corporate and marketing communications. Here at Middlesex University, we have the bright lights, theatres, shopping, historic sites and world-leading communications organisations on our doorstep, without the expense and crowds of central London. For more than 130 years we have been home to great minds with a determined and unwavering ambition to improve our world through teaching, learning and research. Our values including striving for excellence, freedom of academic enquiry and professionalism have helped us to grow to become one of the UK’s largest universities with around 40,000 students worldwide (18,500 in London). Middlesex University has been named among the world’s most international universities in the Times Higher Education World University Rankings 2015-2016, ranked 109 in the world for ‘global outlook’. The University’s ranking reflects the global nature and ethos.

With institutions on three continents – and students hailing from more than 140 countries – we offer outstanding teaching, learning and research that know no geographical or academic borders. We are proud to be recognised as a university with a global network of students and staff and an international outlook that informs everything we do, allowing us to make a far-reaching and enduring contribution to the world around us. Middlesex University is committed to ground breaking, innovative research that makes a real difference in the world. Our ambition is to drive positive change to make an impact on business, society and the world in which we live. The Business School’s drive towards achieving that ambition has seen Middlesex climb up the league tables, for example, the Business School is in the top 25 in the UK for aspiring marketers (LinkedIn, 2015), the top 50 in the World for E-Business Masters programmes (Eduniversasl, 2015-16) and the cusp of the top-30 business schools for research (ranked 31 out of 82 by funding for business and management research quality). Our striving for global research excellence sees expression inter alia in attracting high-prestige conferences such as this one. We are proud to host CMC 2016. Enjoy the conference!

Anna Kyprianou
Pro Vice-Chancellor, Dean of Business School Middlesex University
MIDDLESEX UNIVERSITY LONDON

Middlesex University London is located Hendon, North West London, England, in the historic county boundaries of Middlesex, from which it takes its name. It is one of the new universities and is a member of the Million+ working group. As is the case with many former polytechnics, Middlesex can trace its history back to the 19th century.

Today, Middlesex is an international university with 40,000 students studying at our campuses in London, Dubai, Mauritius and Malta. It is our ambition to create positive change by making a lasting impression on society, businesses and the wider world around us.

We are excited to welcome you to our campus in London, where we hope our facilities and surroundings will help inspire an enriching conference.

In the following sections you can find some practical information about the next few days, as well as the programme, submitted papers and abstracts to the conference.

Overview of Location

The conference will take place within the College Building of the Middlesex University London, Hendon Campus.

Registration will take place in the College Building on the Mezzanine. This is on the 2nd level of the Mezzanine, up the stairs in the main entrance. Registration will take place in this location and refreshments will be available within this area.

The Welcome Talk, Keynote Speeches and Closing Comments will be held in the Boardroom (C219).

The sessions will be held in rooms C217, C218, C219, CG47 and CG48. For a detailed overview of the programme, please see page 17.

If you have any questions during the conference, please don’t hesitate to ask any of the conference coordinators on the days of the conference.
GENERAL INFORMATION

Presentation

Please take time to find the room where you are presenting, and leave plenty of time to be able to load your presentation. There will be designated technicians on site to help you with issues that may arise. Please bring a copy of your presentation on a USB flash drive, and make sure it is compatible to use on a Windows Operating System. It is the responsibility of the presenter to upload their presentation on to the PC in the presentation room.

Name Badges

Conference participants are advised to wear their name badges during conference proceedings. Access to all activities (sessions, talks, coffee and tea breaks, lunch etc.) will be dependent upon wearing your name badge.

Transport and Parking

Middlesex University is well served by public transport. There are a number of ways to travel to Hendon campus.

By underground, the nearest station is Hendon Central Station (Northern Line). The walk from the station to Hendon Campus takes approximately 10 minutes. Turn right out of the station, walk up the road to the main junction and then turn right into The Burroughs. As you approach the campus, the Hendon Town Hall and Library are located on the left. Cross the road, continue past the fire station and you will shortly arrive at the main entrance.

Buses 143, 183 and 326 provide a direct service from the main entrance to Archway, Golders and Barnet. These services also provide link to Brent Cross Shopping Centre, Hendon Central Underground and Hendon rail stations.

There is no parking available at Middlesex University.

Taxi Information

Fleet Cabs offers a reliable service for local, long distance and airport transfers. Contact them on 0208 203 6666.

Accessing the Internet

If you would like access to the internet during the conference, please inform the registration desk and they will provide you with access details.

Liability and Safety

Any risk related to participants property in the conference building or the adjoining rounds, including theft or fire shall be borne by the participants. The organiser will not insure good. The organiser shall not be considered liable for damages to property or persons deriving directly or indirectly from participation in the conference, whatever the cause of damage.
CITY OF LONDON

Middlesex University is located in Hendon, a few stops on the Northern Line from the City of London.

Rich and diverse in culture, this exciting city has some of the world’s best sights, attractions and activities to keep you entertained during your visit. At its centre stands the House of Parliament, the iconic Big Ben clock tower and Westminster Abbey, site of British monarch coronations. To take a look at London’s famous skyline you can take in a panoramic view from The Shard or the London Eye, meet a celebrity at Madame Tussauds or examine the world’s most precious treasures at the National History Museum!

Brent Cross Shopping Centre

The nearest shopping centre to Middlesex University is Brent Cross Shopping Centre, with 120 stores including Fenwick and John Lewis. Brent Cross is North West London’s premier shopping destination, and home to over 2,000 leading and designer brands. Explore the handpicked range of restaurants and coffee shops at Brent Cross offering a variety of world cuisines from Italian to Sushi in the food court! For more information, visit www.brentcross.co.uk.
KEYNOTE SPEAKER

Professor Rosa Chun
University College Dublin, Republic of Ireland

Rosa Chun is Chair in Global Leadership, Reputation and Responsibility at UCD. Prior to joining UCD, Professor Chun was Professor of Corporate Reputation at IMD, Switzerland, and held a Chair in Business Ethics and Corporate Social Responsibility at Manchester Business School, U.K. She has taught globally at CEIBS, Rotterdam School of Management, Bocconi, Lugano, Fudan, and Yonsei University where she held a visiting professorship.

Professor Chun's research and consultancy work have focused on developing corporate reputation as a strategic framework for senior management. Alongside her development of the executive and masters program for corporate communications and reputation management, her research demonstrates how firms' performance is linked to reputation, leadership and ethics. These findings are based on extensive empirical work with services (Tesco, House of Fraser), IT businesses (Samsung, Sony), and the governmental and non-profit organizations (Police, Health center, Catholic churches).


Keynote Speech Abstract: Corporate Communication in the Age of Disrepute

In the network society, more and more attention has been given to the function of corporate communication as way to promote and protect reputation. Various communication tactics are used in dealing with negative emotion of stakeholders. In this talk a content analysis shows the ways in which communication can lead to forgiveness or revenge behavior of the stakeholders. It leads to a lively debate as to what defines responsible communication in different cultures.
KEYNOTE SPEAKER

Nicholas Jackson O’Shaughnessy
Queen Mary University of London, UK

Nicholas Jackson O’Shaughnessy is Professor of Communication at Queen Mary University of London and has held chairs at several other British universities. He is the Director of the Queen Mary MSc in Marketing. Prior to this he was a Fellow (now Quondam Fellow) of Hughes Hall in the University of Cambridge, where he was also University Lecturer in Marketing.

Nicholas is the author and co-author of numerous journal articles, chapters and books on marketing, propaganda and political communication, most recently as co-author of Political Marketing: Theories and Concepts (Sage 2013), joint editor of a four-volume series on key readings in Propaganda (Sage 2012) and author of Selling Hitler: Propaganda and the Nazi Brand (Hurst 2016), and of The Packaging of The Reich: Marketing and the Nazi Idea (under submission). He is on the editorial board of various journals and is a Senior Editor of the Journal of Political Marketing. Nicholas has degrees from London, Oxford, Columbia and Cambridge University.

Keynote Speech Abstract: Branding: A New Sociological and Political and Public Language

A question that has often taxed me is whether what we write and teach in Marketing really does capture the essence of modern practice. It is a truism that, with the convergence of quality standards and use-function performance, very often the only basis of product differentiation is the idea of the company itself, its public image; today everything about an organisation talks, a company’s civic self and public persona have become essential criteria in consumer choice. The brand, the corporate being, has emerged as more significant than ever before. And yet, public relations remains a Cinderella subject and is scarcely taught in business schools anywhere, and branding programmes are still viewed as esoteric.

Yet Branding in particular has become a new sociological and political and public language, a form of social being. Even the Foreign Office has been referring to Al Qaeda as a brand for some time now.

We have infantilised this field and neglected the big picture in our pursuit of a narrowly positivist or utilitarian approach, our preoccupation with trivial or non-real problems, and our conceptual incoherence. There is therefore an urgent need to rebalance the subject of academic marketing and to make the great themes central and not peripheral. And, secondly, to re-imagine marketing in general as a major area of social science and a core academic discipline, since it has the potential to explain our world to us with richness and insight, surely criteria that should put it at the heart of the Academy. This whole subject suffers from a poverty of ambition and the way forward lies, inter alia, with the 21st Marketing and Corporate Communications Conference.
SOCIAL EVENTS

**Gala Dinner**

On the 7th April, a Gala Dinner will be held at Hendon Hall Hotel, Ashley Lane, NW4 1HD at 6:30pm. There will be a shuttle service available to transport delegates to the venue.

The Hendon Hall Hotel is an urban country house hotel, set in North London. The hotel offers an irresistible alchemy of Georgian splendour and calm in a quiet residential area of North London. This urban country house hotel in Hendon has a variety of function rooms ideal for events.

We will be hosting the dinner and dance in the Pembrooke Suite. Canapes will be served before dinner, and following the dinner there will be a three man live jazz band.

![Hendon Hall Hotel](image)

**Royal Air Force Museum**

On the 8th April, we will be taking a trip to the Royal Air Force Museum, Graham Park Way, NW4 5LL. A coach will be ready to pick delegates up at 11:15am and return them to Middlesex University London after the tour. Lunch will be served at Middlesex University London.

The RAF Museum, is located on the former Hendon Aerodrome, with five major buildings and hangars dedicated to the history of aviation and the Royal Air Force. It is part of the Royal Air Force Museum, a non-departmental public body sponsored by the Ministry of Defence.

![Royal Air Force Museum](image)
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<td>Marwa Tourky</td>
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<td>E4</td>
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<td>Maria Teresa Cuomo</td>
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## PROGRAMME

**7th April 2016**

**SESSION A: 11.30-12.50**

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<td><em>Satisfaction – Loyalty and Willingness to Pay for Pioneer Label: Conformity with SEM Analysis</em></td>
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<td>Yosini Deliana and Philip J. Kitchen</td>
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<td><em>Investigating the Factors Influencing Customer Satisfaction in the Pakistani Restaurant Industry</em></td>
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<td>Zia Khan, Ammara Mehddi, Aneesa Tajammal and Iram Butt</td>
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<td><em>An Investigation of UK Youth Tribes: A Fashion Marketing Perspective</em></td>
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<td><strong>Chair:</strong> Keith Glanfield</td>
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<td><em>How Chinese and German Companies Communicate on Sina Weibo</em></td>
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<td>Sabine Einwiller and Cindy Ngai</td>
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<td><em>The Effectiveness of Informational Influence on Social Media Marketing and Brand Knowledge</em></td>
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<td><em>A Participatory Approach to City Branding in Digital Era</em></td>
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<td><em>The Role of Cognitive and Emotional Elements and Driving Higher Levels of Brand Loyalty</em></td>
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<td>Ibrahim Alnawas and Jane Hemsley-Brown</td>
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<td><em>Religious Beliefs as a New Antecedent Toward Brand Love in the Islamic Market</em></td>
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<td>Waleed Yousef, TC Melewar, Charles Dennis and Pantea Foroudi</td>
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<td><em>The Way to Role Formation and Enactment for Luxury Consumers: What about France, India and Greece?</em></td>
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<td>George Panigyrakis and Koronaki Eirini</td>
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<td><em>A Picture is Worth a Thousand Words: Understanding Consumer Interaction in Instagram Brand Community</em></td>
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<td>Luis V. Casalóa, Carlos Flavián and Sergio Ibáñez</td>
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<td><em>The Antecedents and Consequences of the Corporate Websites Favourability in the Context of Banking Industry in the United Kingdom and Russia</em></td>
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<td>Elena Ageeva, TC Melewar and Pantea Foroudi</td>
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<td><em>Achieving Stronger Brand Equity Through Enhancing Word-of Mouth Via Online University Corporate Brand Identity</em></td>
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<td>Sidrah Mahboob, Sharifah Faridah Syed Alwi and Dorothy Yen</td>
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<td><em>The Effect of Mobile Internet Provider Services Brand Image on Overall Satisfaction and Brand Loyalty in Indonesia</em></td>
<td>Ranti Yulia Wardani</td>
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<td><em>Gamification in Music Social Network: The Fame Music Case Study</em></td>
<td>Alessandro Pluda</td>
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<td><em>The Impact of Loyalty Cards and its Effects on Small and Medium Sized Businesses</em></td>
<td>Michael Kourtoubelides</td>
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| Session B2: Physical Environment and Communication                                                      |
| Chair: Jane Hemsley-Brown                                                                               |
| Room: C217                                                                                               |
| *Corporate Communication Through Architecture: Connecting Past, Present and Future*                        | Angela Bargenda |
| *The Practice of Internal CSR Activities Within the Cypriot SME Sector*                                  | Ioanna Papasolomou and Yioula Melanthiou |
| *To Study the Effect of Physical Environment Design on Well-Being and its Impact on Brand Performance*   | Suyash Khaneja, TC Melewar, Kailin Wu and Pantea Foroudi |

| Session B3: Branding and Communication                                                                  |
| Chair: Shing-Wan Chang                                                                                  |
| Room: C218                                                                                               |
| *Fit is No Longer a Fit? Introducing Celebrity Corporate Brand and Corporate Brand Enhancement*           | Anisah Hambali, Sharifah Faridah Syed Alwi and John M.T. Balmer |
| *Understanding and Examining Celebrity Trust, its Dimensions and its Impacts On Other Credibility Constructs* | Shahzeb Hussain, TC Melewar, Costas Priporas and Pantea Foroudi |
| *Exploring the Relationship Between Brand Experience and Brand Love*                                    | Véronique Pauwels-Delassus and Lia Zarantonello |
### Session C1: Integrated Marketing Communications

**Chair:** Ioanna Papasolomou  
**Room:** C219

**The State of Integrated Marketing Communications in the Classroom: Practice, Perspectives & Prospects**  
Yvonne Dixon-Todd and Lynne Hall

**Modelling the Relationship Between Adhocracy Culture, Integrated Marketing Communication and Brand Advantage**  
Lucia Porcu, Salvador del Barrio-García, Esmeralda Crespo-Almendros and Juan Miguel Alcántara-Pilar

**Through a Glass Darkly: The Leviathan Concept**  
Philip J. Kitchen

### Session C2: Corporate and Organisational Identity

**Chair:** Costas Priporas  
**Room:** C217

**Corporate Identity Management: A New Mechanism for Implementing CSR**  
Marwa Tourky, Philip J. Kitchen, TC Melewar and Ahmed S. Shaalan

**A Phoenix from the Branding Fire: The Resurgence of Corporate Visual Identity in Social Media**  
Luke Devereux, TC Melewar and Pantea Foroudi

**Social Psychology: A Means of Marketers Maintaining and Building Internal Influence in the Firm by Influencing the Delivery of Brand Promises Made in Marketing Communications Activity**  
Keith Glanfield, Sally Eaves and Anna-Lena Ackfeldt

### Session C3: Branding and Communication

**Chair:** Eleonora Pantano  
**Room:** C218

**Developing Corporate Brand Equity Framework for SMEs**  
Serap Sap and Sharifah Faridah Syed Alwi

**Brand Sensuality and Brand Experience: How Much Does Religion Matter?**  
Tuğra Nazlı Akarsu, TC Melewar, Olga Mourouti and Pantea Foroudi

**Visitor Attraction Marketing and Tourism Destination Branding – Implications for Marketing Practices**  
Peter Björk and Adi Weidenfield
### Session D1: Social Media

**Chair:** Sukhbinder Barn  
**Room:** C219

- **Understanding the Influence of Information Timeliness and Ranking in EWOM on Travellers to Saudi Arabia: Using a Theory of Elaboration Likelihood Model and Attitudes**  
  Abrar Hamdan Alsharif and Ruth Marciniak

- **The Use of New Technologies for Corporate Marketing Communication in Luxury Retailing**  
  Rosanna Passavanti, Eleonora Pantano, Costas Priporas and Saverino Verteramo

- **Effectiveness of Responding’s to Online Complaints**  
  Sabine Einwiller and Wolfgang Weitzl

- **Social Media Marketing and Examination of the Need for Consumer Closure**  
  Ruth Marciniak

### Session D2: Marketing Communications and Ethics

**Chair:** Ebru Uzunoğlu  
**Room:** C217

- **Toward the Characterization of the “Toy Packaging”: An Exploratory Research**  
  Manel Mzoughi and Joël Brée

- **Augmented Reality in Stores for a New Customer Experience. The Case of “The Supermarket of the Future” at Expo 2015**  
  Maria Teresa Cuomo, Francesca Ceruti, Giuseppe Festa, Gerardino Metallo and Debora Tortora

- **Consumer Suspicion as a Communicational Opportunity in Ethical Consumption**  
  Artemis Panigyraki and Claudia Jasmand

### Session D3: Advertising

**Chair:** Yioula Melanthiou  
**Room:** CG47

- **Exploring Digital Native Advertising in Turkey: Insights from Digital Natives and Immigrants**  
  Sema Misçi Kip and Pınar Umul Ünsal

- **The Beauty Phenomenon in Advertising: An Experimental Study on the Role of a Message Source’s Physical Attractiveness on Advertising Effectiveness**  
  Uğur Bakır and Muge Elden

- **The Hidden Practice: TV Viewers’ Ethical Attitudes Towards Embedded Paid Content - The Israeli Case**  
  Dorit Zimand-Sheiner and Tamar Lahav
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<td><strong>Thinking in “One Dimension”. How Does the Position of Health and Taste Messages in the Vertical Plane Influence Consumer Response</strong></td>
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<td>Alexandra Festila and Polymeros Chrysochou</td>
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<td><strong>Role of MNEs in Capability Enhancement of Local Firms and Poverty Reduction</strong></td>
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<td>Suraksha Gupta, Pervez N Ghauri and Fatima Wang</td>
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<td><strong>Usage of Virtual Environment in Terms of Public Relations Professional Associations: A Research on Public Relations Associations’ Websites</strong></td>
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<td>Ibrahim Özbükerçi and Nilay Başok</td>
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<td><strong>Digital Content Marketing and the Practice of Public Relations</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Corporate E-communication: Its Relationship with the Corporate Logo in the Construction of the Consumer's Online Interaction</strong></td>
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<td>Mohammad Uddin Choudhury, TC Melewar and Zhongqi Jin</td>
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<td><strong>The Role of NFC (Near Field Communication) in Building Brand Equity</strong></td>
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<td>Abrar Alsharif</td>
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<td>Angela Bargenda</td>
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<td>Name</td>
<td>Institution</td>
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<tr>
<td>Yioula Melanthiou</td>
<td>University of Nicosia, Cyprus</td>
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<tr>
<td>Yosini Deliana</td>
<td>Padjadjaran University, Indonesia</td>
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<tr>
<td>Yvonne Dixon-Todd</td>
<td>Sunderland University, UK</td>
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<td>Zia Khan</td>
<td>FAST University, Pakistan</td>
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<td>Zhongqi Jin</td>
<td>Middlesex University London, UK</td>
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</table>
Session A1: Retention and Relationship

Satisfaction – Loyalty and Willingness to Pay for Pioneer Label: Conformity with SEM Analysis
Yosini Deliana and Philip J. Kitchen

Investigating the Factors Influencing Customer Satisfaction in the Pakistani Restaurant Industry
Zia Khan, Ammara Mehddi, Aneesa Tajammal and Iram Butt

An Investigation of UK Youth Tribes: A Fashion Marketing Perspective
Socrates Economou
Satisfaction – Loyalty and Willingness to Pay for Pioneer Label: Conformity with SEM Analysis

Yosini Deliana and Philip J. Kitchen

Abstract

West Java is the second Gedong Gincu mango producing center in Indonesia after East Java. Gedong Gincu (Mangifera indica var. Gedong) from this province is considerably different from other types of mangos. However, mango farmers are confronted with a number of problems ranging from marketing, small farmer share, inadequate promotion, to asymmetric information. In order for promoting Gedong Gincu a pioneer brand, which is a brand first launched into the market, has been used. A lot of research on well-known brands has been conducted, but not much has been done on pioneer brands. Sample 201 was taken using a systematic random sampling. The purpose of this study is to find out the correlation between consumer satisfaction, loyalty, and willingness to pay when the customers buy mangos with the pioneer brand. The results reveal that customers’ satisfaction and customer’s retention have positive and significant influence on customers loyalty. Both customers satisfaction and customer loyalty have positive and significant influence on willingness to pay, meanwhile customers retention have no influence on willingness to pay. Further practical and academic implications in marketing communication are discussed in this paper.

Keywords: satisfaction, loyalty, willingness to pay, pioneer label, structural equation modeling, mango

Introduction

Gedong mango Gincu and Arumanis are widely exported to the Middle East (70%). This figure is very small if compared with the market share of other countries such as India, Yemen, Pakistan, Kenya and the Netherlands (44%). Other export destination countries are Singapore at 18% with the main competing countries namely Malaysia, Thailand, India, Pakistan, Philippines (FAOSTAT, 2012 in Purnama, 2014). Indonesian mango export value in the year 2011 reached US $ 2,024,952 (Central Bureau of Statistics, 2012). Mango production in Indonesia reached 2.1 million tons in 2011 and more than doubled from the previous year with production centers in East Java (35%), West Java (17%) and Central Java (16%).

Gedong Gincu production in West Java province from 16 regencies reached 3,346,785 tons in 2012, and Cirebon was the second largest producer after Indramayu with a total production of 685,059 for Indramayu and 620,533 tons for Cirebon (Central Statistic Bureau, West Java province, 2012). Although Cirebon is second only to Indramayu, customers have preference for Gedong Gincu from Cirebon over that from Indramayu (Deliana, 2011).

The main problems faced by mango farmers in Cirebon are marketing, frequent decline in price particularly during the bumper harvest, low farmer share, insufficient promotion and asymmetric information. Gedong Gincu has a distinctive shape, taste and aroma, and this should, therefore, become a differential from other types of mangos like Aromanis (Indonesia Mangifera indica L, Golek (Mangifera spp), and Kweni (Mangifera foetida). In order for Gedong Gincu from Cirebon to have a price differential, it has to have a label as suggested by the Department of Agriculture, Cirebon regency. One of the farmer groups called Pangebangan from Dukupuntang district has started using a brand for their products which are marketed to Bandung. A pioneer brand is a brand that is first launched to the market which is aimed to create brand loyalty to have an enthusiastic response, a positive image and reputation from potential customers in order to open a market. Brand loyalty is particularly advantageous to producers to attract more customers. In this case, a pioneer brand usually has a competitive advantage over later entrants.

Communicating a brand is very important in determining the success of manufacturers in
the long term. By being the first to market Gedong Gincu using the brand, the manufacturers expect to be able to enjoy a sustainable advantage in terms of market share, access to distribution, brand familiarity, brand loyalty, economic scale and profitability. The specific objectives of this research are to analyze to what extent the pioneer brand can build customer satisfaction and loyalty, to analyze the correlation between loyalty and customers willingness to pay for the pioneer label, to analyze the correlation between satisfaction and customers willingness to pay for the pioneer brand, to analyze how the pioneer brand can obtain a positive image and customers’ positive value and to communicate customers expectations for the pioneer label so that customers become loyal to the product.
Investigating the Factors Influencing Customer Satisfaction in the Pakistani Restaurant Industry

Zia Khan, Ammara Mehddi, Aneesa Tajammal and Iram Butt

Abstract
The restaurant industry in Pakistan, similar to any other industry, has become extremely competitive over the years. With occurrence of recent strict controls of food quality control authorities and the sealing of restaurants due to unhygienic conditions, the survival and retention of customers by any restaurant in the region has become extremely difficult. In this context, an investigation of factors affecting customer satisfaction in needed in order to understand the survival and retention of customers. Consistent with previous research, four key components namely quality of physical environment, food quality and service quality and restaurant image have been evaluated as antecedents of customer satisfaction. Sample size of 300 customers is taken for collection and analysis of data. By applying Partial Least Squares based Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM), the results revealed positive relationships between the variables under study. The results demonstrated that with recent raids by food quality control authorities, people have become concerned about the factors related to quality of environmental conditions, food and service quality of the restaurant. The research puts forth few specific implications and recommendations at the end of report that can be useful for management for making decisions or future researchers to study further into the topic.

Keywords: quality of physical environment, food quality, service quality, restaurant image, customer satisfaction

Introduction
Customer satisfaction is a key variable in determining the success of any business. When it comes to service industry, the role of the determinant becomes critical for the survival of any player in a service industry. In the context to Pakistan, the restaurant industry has become one of the most profitable industries, and is attracting multiple national and international fast food chains to expand their markets while targeting Pakistan. This makes it all the more competitive for local chains. Taking under consideration the recent events of sealing of restaurants by food quality control authorities in the province of Punjab due to unhygienic conditions prevailing in the restaurants, it has become a dire need of the restaurant industry to maintain a favorable restaurant image and attain maximum customer satisfaction in order to not only retain but also increase their current customer base for surviving in this highly competitive market. In this era, where social media plays a major role in designing image and perception of customers, it has become easy for customers to share their views about a certain product or service and at the same time more challenging for business to keep themselves away from bad word of mouth especially after an event that disappoints their customers or to shelter themselves from news such as being sealed by food quality control authorities due to unhygienic conditions experience (Namkung and Jang 2007; Sulek and Hensley 2004). The present literature suggests that the key to success in any business, especially service industry is to have a satisfied customer base (Johns and Pine 2002) and it is only after the business has successfully satisfied its customers it can hope to achieve more in the industry. The study focuses on investigating the impact of four major constructs, drawn from present literature that have a positive impact on customer satisfaction in restaurant industry with reference to Pakistan. The study variables have been taken from Ryu, Lee and Kim (2012), with change in environment and addressing one of crucial and most heated topic under consideration in Pakistan, as the issue of several restaurants not meeting the adequate hygienic standards enforced by Government, comes into the light. The consumers have been taken by storm with news of several restaurants being sealed by food quality control authorities. The study comes up as one of pioneering studies in Pakistan as none of the studies have focused
on this issue and performed empirical tests on these variables as done in the present study. This study will add to the existing literature and provide insights to Pakistan’s customers’ view points after the events of sealing of restaurants by food quality control authorities while giving empirical proof that managers must focus on quality of physical environment, service quality, and food quality to improve the image of their restaurant and ultimately increase the satisfaction of customers.

Rationale of the Study
The foundation for conducting the present study is laid on well documented findings observed in present literature that customer satisfaction is one of the most significant goals of all marketing efforts (Johns and Pine 2002) and it plays a pivotal role in the restaurant industry due to the nature of this business. Similarly the importance of restaurant image cannot be undermined experience (Nakung and Jang 2007; Sulek and Hensley 2004). The recent raids by the food quality control authorities have shaken the restaurant industry and have left them in a dilemma - how to either restore or protect their image.

This research aims to identify the elements that influence restaurant image and customer satisfaction and to empirically test these elements in the restaurant setting. This study is important both theoretically and practically. Additionally, this research seeks to contribute to understanding and determining the customer satisfaction phenomenon. Finally, this research will be exclusive in terms of local setting and will provide many implications for restaurant owners, managers and other researchers of this specific community.

Objectives of the Study
The objectives of this research are as follows:

- To study the influence of Quality of Physical Environment on Restaurant Image.
- To examine the influence of Food Quality on Restaurant Image.
- To inspect the influence of Service Quality on Restaurant Image.
- To investigate the influence of Restaurant Image on Customer Satisfaction.

Literature Review and Hypotheses

Development

Quality of Physical Environment
The quality of physical environment, as described by Bitner (1992, p.58) is ‘the built environment’ or, more specifically, ‘the man-made, physical surroundings as opposed to the natural or social environment’, it is the level of cleanliness, the layout of the restaurant, along with its furnishing and ambiance that would enrich the customer experience (Johns and Pine 2002). In context to restaurants, it plays a crucial role in developing the brand image or specifically, the image of the restaurant. The better the ambiance, design and environment of a restaurant the positive would be the image of that respective restaurant in customer’s mind (Booms and Bitner 1982), the restaurant industry can utilize the physical environment to strengthen or develop a positive image of the restaurant among customers, while indirectly enhancing the satisfaction of customers towards that particular restaurant or its service. Positive and direct relationship between physical environment and brand image were also concluded by Baker, Grewal and Parasuraman (1994) and Nguyen and Leblanc (2002). This leads to the first hypothesis development.

H1: The Quality of the Physical Environment has a positive influence on Restaurant Image.

Food Quality
Food quality is one of the most dynamic components of a dining experience (Namkung and Jang 2007; Sulek and Hensley 2004). Food quality means ‘that the food should be safe, fresh, and of appropriate size, nutritional completeness and freedom from impurities’ (IUFoST 2006). Clark and Wood (1999) confirmed that food quality is a prime factor prompting customer loyalty and brand image in restaurant choice. Susskind and Chan (2000) insisted that from the customer’s perspective, food quality is a vital determining factor for visiting a restaurant. Taking into account the previous literature, the authors of this
research make second hypothesis which is as follows;

**H2. The Quality of the Food has a positive influence on Restaurant Image.**

**Service Quality**

Zeithaml (1988) defined service quality as ‘customer’s evaluation of the overall excellence of the service and it is an important determinant of customer behavioral intentions’ (Olorunniwo, Hsu and Udo 2006). Nguyen and LeBlanc (1998) examined the link between service quality and corporate image and reported that customers who experience good service quality over several service encounters tend to form an overall positive image of the firm.

**H3. The Quality of the Service has a positive influence on Restaurant Image.**

**Restaurant Image and Customer Satisfaction**

Customer Satisfaction is ‘an evaluation rendered that the (product) experience was at least as good as it was supposed to be’ (Hunt 1977, p.459). According to Macleit and Mantel (2001) in the case of services, the notion of ‘marketing’ is primarily concerned with satisfying the needs and wants of customers; therefore, customer satisfaction can be viewed as the ‘heart of all marketing activities’

Brand image can be defined as the representative meanings that customers evoke when they encounter the explicit features of a product or service (Padgett and Allen 1997), while in the words of Baloglu and Brinberg (1997, p.11). Brand Image is defined as ‘the sum of beliefs, ideas, and impressions that people have of a place or destination’. For this study, restaurant image is used in the context of brand image.

Ryu, Han and Kim (2008) conducted a study and found that restaurant image was an important element of customer satisfaction and customer perceived value. In context to restaurant industry, Zeithaml et al. (1990) concluded that if a restaurant or a particular eating place fails to follow adequate food hygiene standards which are expected by customers, it is more likely that customer would build negative reviews about the place and asses it of being low in quality as well. If a restaurant fails to meet state or government regulations of proper hygiene and cleanliness, the customers’ evaluation can be severely affected and as found by a number studies, as evaluations of customers’ or perception of the image of restaurant is affected the customer satisfaction will be affected as well (Jang and Liu 2009; Barber and Scarcelli 2009). Likewise extant literature shows that restaurant image significantly impacts customer satisfaction (Ryu, Lee and Kim 2012); therefore, establishing a distinct restaurant image in comparison to competition is crucial. Which leads to development of the fourth and final hypothesis

**H4. Restaurant image has a positive influence on customer satisfaction.**

**Measurement Model**

![Measurement Model](Image)

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**Independent Variables**

- Quality of Physical Environment
- Food Quality
- Service Quality

**Mediator**

- Restaurant Image

**Dependent Variable**

- Customer Satisfaction
Research Design and Methodology
Operationalization of Variables
All the constructs used in the study had been adapted from previous research. All of the measures are adapted from Ryu, Lee and Kim (2012) study. The items were measured on 7-point Likert scale. The detailed operationalization is given below in table 1.

This study mainly focused on the restaurant industry. The target population consisted of male and female customers of restaurants in Lahore. A non-probability sampling technique called convenience sampling was used to collect the data from customers in restaurants. The sample size consisted of 300 customers.

Collection of the responses was done by handing out the surveys to respondents at restaurants such as Ziafat, Hardees, Freddy’s café, Fat burger, Pizza Hut and few other restaurants. Neighborhood areas such as Gulberg and Model Town were also visited along with universities such as Kinnaird College and Fast University Lahore, as they were easily approachable by the researchers. Out of 300 survey questionnaires which were distributed among respondents, total of 226 responses were collected out of which 74 are eliminated due to incomplete, or wrongly filled surveys resulting in a response rate of 75.3%.

Data Analysis
Statistical Tool
Since the objective of study is to predict the effect of variables, and to maximize the variance in dependent constructs along with evaluating the quality of data on basis of research measurement model, Partial Least Squared-Structure Equation Modelling, hereafter referred as “PLS-SEM”, using SmartPLS, seemed to be appropriate for the analysis as recommended by Hair et al (2011).

Sample Demographics
The most of the sample respondents involved in the study were aged between 26 and 41, making the sample representative of young and middle-aged adults. The education level of majority of the respondents was bachelors or undergraduate level making the sample consisted of the educated class. About 67% of respondents were males while reset of them were females. The most preferred restaurant among all was found to be Hardees, followed by Ziafat and Fat burger, whereas mostly people responded that they visit their preferred restaurant on average of once a month.

Principal Component Analysis Results
The Principal Component Analysis (PCA) conducted using SPSS software version 18. For testing whether the PCA is viable or valid enough to obtain reliable results, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity known as KMO & Bartlett’s test was applied (Hair et al, 2010). The underlying principle is to have the values above 0.70 for KMO statistic and significant value of less than 0.05 for Bartlett’s test in order to show viability of the PCA (Hair et al, 2010). This criteria is met as shown in table 2. Furthermore, while using reflective indicator measurement approach to measure the constructs, PCA indicates that all the loading for the indicators are above 0.60 and shows that each indicator lies in its respective variable which signifies that the indicators belong to the variable the researchers intended to measure and since the cross loadings have the difference of 0.2 or higher they can be ignored and conclusion can be made that the indicators are sufficiently reliable for the analysis (Hair et al, 2010).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>No. of Items</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Physical Environment</td>
<td>QPE 1</td>
<td>The restaurant had attractive interior design and décor.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>QPE 2</td>
<td>The dining areas are thoroughly clean.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>QPE 3</td>
<td>Employees are neat and well dressed.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>QPE 4</td>
<td>Background music is pleasing.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food Quality</td>
<td>FQ 1</td>
<td>The food is delicious.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FQ 2</td>
<td>The food is Nutritious.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FQ 3</td>
<td>The restaurant offered a variety of menu items.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FQ 4</td>
<td>The restaurant offered fresh food.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FQ 5</td>
<td>The smell of the food was enticing.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FQ 6</td>
<td>The food presentation was visually attractive.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service Quality</td>
<td>SQ 1</td>
<td>Employees served me food exactly as I ordered it.</td>
<td>Ryu, Lee, and Kim, (2012)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SQ 2</td>
<td>Employees provided prompt and quick service.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SQ 3</td>
<td>Employees provided prompt and quick service</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SQ 4</td>
<td>Employees made me feel comfortable in dealing with them.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurant Image</td>
<td>RI 1</td>
<td>The restaurant is sophisticated.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RI 2</td>
<td>The restaurant has authentic cuisine.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RI 3</td>
<td>It tastes good compared with price.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RI 4</td>
<td>It has a cheerful and enchanting atmosphere.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer Satisfaction</td>
<td>CS 1</td>
<td>I am very satisfied with my overall experience at this restaurant.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CS 2</td>
<td>Overall, this restaurant puts me in a good mood.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CS 3</td>
<td>I have really enjoyed myself at this restaurant.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: All constructs are measured on a seven-point Likert scale.
Table 2. Rotated Component Matrix along with Cronbach’s alpha values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors and items</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 1: Food quality (α= 0.888)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FQ6</td>
<td>.824</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FQ5</td>
<td>.822</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FQ2</td>
<td>.813</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FQ3</td>
<td>.765</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FQ1</td>
<td>.652</td>
<td>.314</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 2: Quality of physical environment (α=0.921)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QPE1</td>
<td>.892</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QPE4</td>
<td>.890</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QPE2</td>
<td>.887</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QPE3</td>
<td>.884</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 3: Customer Satisfaction (α=0.845)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS2</td>
<td>.882</td>
<td>.229</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS1</td>
<td>.863</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS3</td>
<td>.801</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 4: Restaurant Image (α=0.710)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RI2</td>
<td></td>
<td>.823</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RI1</td>
<td></td>
<td>.820</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 5: Service Quality (α=0.730)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SQ2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.895</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SQ1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.859</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: 1. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis, Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
2. Bold values show factor loadings
3. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy 0.772 and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity 0.000

However, it is worth mentioning that the only 2 factors of service quality and restaurant image have been used in place of 4 from Ryu, Lee, and Kim (2012) as the indicators combined gave lower Cronbach values, and factor loadings after the pilot testing. Once eliminated, the loadings became viable for analysis. The possible reasons could be the difference in culture and population as the study is among the first ones to be conducted in Pakistan with these constructs and indicators.

**Partial Least Squares-Structural Equation Modeling: Outer model evaluation: reliability and validity**

Partial Least Squares-Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) has been applied to evaluate the measurement model and the hypothesis testing (Hair et al, 2010). Item statistics presented in table 3 shows that item loadings for all the indicators are above 0.7, which is higher than the specified threshold of 0.40 (Hulland 1999), signifying reliability of indicators. To check whether the constructs are being measured reliably, the composite reliability is checked by following the general rule of thumb stating that the constructs are reliable if composite reliability loading for constructs are above 0.7 for each variable (Bagozzi and Yi 1988). The composite reliability for the constructs included in the study are given in table 3, indicating that all the constructs of the study are reliable.

To validate that measures of the construct are related and actually measure their respective
construct. According to the prescribed threshold for checking convergent validity, average variance extracted, from here onwards referred to as AVE, should be greater than 0.5 (Bagozzi and Yi 1988). Table 3 shows the AVE for each construct and it is evident that the measures are strongly valid with respect to the convergence of the loaded items. Discriminant validity is checked to assure that the constructs under study are distinct or different enough from each other as guided by theory to ensure valid results. Table 4 shows discriminant validity of all constructs included in study from which it is evident that the constructs are distinct from each other as the square roots of AVE, shown in diagonal, are greater than inter-construct correlation (Fornell and Larcker 1981).

Table 3. Composite Reliability and Average Variance Extracted

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Label</th>
<th>C.R loadings</th>
<th>AVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quality of Physical Environment</td>
<td>QPE1</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.902</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>QPE2</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.890</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>QPE3</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.910</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>QPE4</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.893</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FQ1</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.764</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FQ2</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.840</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food Quality</td>
<td>FQ3</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.768</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FQ4</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.798</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FQ5</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.740</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FQ6</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.860</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service Quality</td>
<td>SQ1</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.977</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SQ2</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.735</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurant Image</td>
<td>RI1</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.863</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RI2</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.897</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer Satisfaction</td>
<td>CS1</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.797</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CS2</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.940</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CS3</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.873</td>
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</tr>
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</table>

Table 4. Discriminant validity

<table>
<thead>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Customer Satisfaction</td>
<td>0.872</td>
<td>-0.087</td>
<td>0.796</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food Quality</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.279</td>
<td>0.062</td>
<td>0.899</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of Physical Environment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.379</td>
<td>0.256</td>
<td>0.880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurant Image</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.379</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service Quality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.133</td>
<td>0.865</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Hypotheses Testing

Hypotheses testing are done after the evidence of reliable and valid constructs. The result of each hypothesis is discussed in detail below and shown in Table 5. The t-values were extracted by conducting bootstrapping on data with 5000 subsamples in SmartPLS (Hair, Ringle and Sarstedt 2011).

The path coefficient (β) for the relationship between physical quality of environment and restaurant image is 0.223. It shows that with one unit increase in quality of physical environment, the customer satisfaction increases by 0.223 units (t-value = 3.438 with p < 0.05). Therefore, hypothesis H1 is supported. For the second proposed hypothesis, the coefficient (β) for food quality is 0.218, indicating that with one unit increase in food quality, the customer satisfaction increases by 0.218 units (t-value = 4.072 at p < 0.05). Therefore, hypothesis H2 is supported.

The coefficient (β) for service quality is 0.192, indicating that with one unit increase in service quality the customer satisfaction increases by 0.192 units (t-value = 2.971 at p < 0.05). Therefore, third hypothesis is also supported. The coefficient value for the final hypothesized relationship is 0.379, indicating that one unit increase in restaurant image causes increase in customer satisfaction by 0.379 units along with t-value = 6.510 at p < 0.05, therefore, final and fourth hypothesis of the study is also supported.

Table 5. Hypotheses Testing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original Sample (β)</th>
<th>R-Square</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Result</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quality of Physical Environment -&gt; Restaurant Image</td>
<td>0.223</td>
<td>0.162</td>
<td>3.438</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food Quality -&gt; Restaurant Image</td>
<td>0.218</td>
<td>4.072</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service Quality -&gt; Restaurant Image</td>
<td>0.192</td>
<td>2.971</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurant Image -&gt; Customer Satisfaction</td>
<td>0.379</td>
<td>0.143</td>
<td>6.510</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Discussion and Conclusion

Among the three independent variables' impact on restaurant image, quality of physical environment is found to have a positive and direct effect on restaurant image almost of equal strength as food quality. It can be concluded that that with better quality of physical environment, the image of the restaurant would also be positive in customer's mind. The impact of food quality is then found to be positive on restaurant image. The significance shows that the impact exists between the two and in order to increase the restaurant image, the quality of food must not be compromised. The last independent variable, service quality proved to be the relatively weakest but positive and significant variable on restaurant image, therefore, this variable should also be taken into account in order to build restaurant image.

The variable, restaurant image showed a positive impact on customer satisfaction. The variable also yielded the highest value of beta, (β=0.379, t= 6.510, p>0.00) and is found to have a positive effect on customer satisfaction, indicating that the more positive the image of the restaurant is perceived by the customers, the more satisfied they are likely to feel with the restaurant. The result is
consistent with the previous research conducted by Ryu, Lee, and Kim, (2012).

As evident from the results of this study, Quality of physical environment is found to have the highest degree of affect among the three independent variables, the second strongest is food quality and the weakest impact is from service quality. This conforms to the inferences made by the researchers that the raids of food quality control authorities over restaurants and sealing among few of them for unhygienic conditions has made people more conscious about the quality of the physical environment, the quality of the food (whether it is hygienic and offers high quality). The three variables combined, directly affect the image of the restaurant, if even one of these factors is compromised the image of the restaurant will suffer, and with image going down the drain, the customer satisfaction will decrease as well.

The variables may yield different results in different studies because of difference in cultural, regional, and sample characteristics. Since the results comply with other studies in the literature and show statistical proof of acceptance, it can be said that the study show meaningful results and can be used to derive management decisions.

Customer satisfaction has become more essential for the marketers to focus on in the recent months especially in the areas of Punjab, due to recent raids and suspensions of various restaurants by food quality control authorities. The study tries to unfold the variables those are crucial in gauging the satisfaction of customers.

The three independent variables of the study, contribute as positive contributors of restaurant image and customer satisfaction. The managers of the restaurants can utilize the study results, by understanding the relative importance of these factors and enhance the image of the restaurants among customers and by this way, they can be successful in attaining satisfaction of the customers. As the study reveals that physical environment quality is the most important construct and Food Quality is the second one, among the three independent variables, the managers can focus on these two to enhance restaurant image and plan better strategies to attract and retain customer satisfaction.

There are few limitations of this study which needs to be disclosed for future researchers. Firstly, the data collection was done including only one city and due to time limitation, the sample size was kept small, i.e. 300, therefore, one should be careful while generalizing the results of this study to whole country i.e. Pakistan. An increased customer sample can be taken from multiple cities of Pakistan in order to address this issue.

As the study contributes in the restaurant industry of Pakistan and it focuses on three dimensions of food service quality (quality of physical environment, food quality, and service quality) on restaurant image which then helps to understand the customer response with regards to customer satisfaction. For future, researcher can incorporate the effect of word of mouth, and customer knowledge into the model to generate more specific knowledge in this line of research.

References


An Investigation of UK Youth Tribes: A Fashion Marketing Perspective

Socrates Economou

Abstract
The aim of this research is to analyse the adoption of fashion brands by tribal members when creating a ‘uniform’ to display group identity. The study will investigate the consumer behaviour of some of the twenty-four UK youth tribes identified and created by the Channel 4 television channel. The concept of tribal marketing has been explored by academics and researchers for some time. Maffesoli (1996), in his book The Time of the Tribes, was arguably the first to acknowledge the concept of tribes in modern society. The term ‘neotribes’ was first introduced here in a scholarly context. Cova (1997) first coined the term Tribal Marketing and introduced its significance in postmodern society; Cova and Cova (2002) later found that consumers are less interested in the objects they consume but rather the social linking values that are to be gained.

In the UK, the concept is often considered within the context of the youth. Helyar (2007), when conducting research for the youth-focussed television station Channel 4, identified 23 tribes in the UK. Tribes were broadly centred on common interests such as music and fashion. These tribes continue to develop and adapt where tribes both emerge and disappear fairly regularly. Some of the tribes featured within Helyar’s (2007) study have received academic attention; namely ‘Chavs’ (Nayak, 2006; Hayward & Yar, 2006) and ‘Emo’s’ (Mortara & Ironico, 2013). However, there is a distinct lack of research on such youth tribes from a marketing perspective. Research from a commercial context would be extremely beneficial for marketing practitioners as brand association with tribes can result in brand hijacking and subsequent deterioration of brand image, for example Burberry and Chavs (Parry, 2004; BBC, 2005). Alternatively, the possibility of promotional strategies being built around tribes as a potential viable segment requires exploration.

Later studies have seen the lines reflecting the notion of tribes becoming blurred in the literature and the term has been seemingly used interchangeably in various contexts ranging from vinyl record collectors (Mitchell and Imrie., 2011); to brand communities (Muniz et al., 2001), and sports fandom (Moutinho et al., 2007; Dionisio et al., 2008).

However, it appears that the notion of consumer tribes (Cova et al., 2007) seems to become more prevalent. In the UK, the concept is often considered within the context of the youth. Helyar (2007), when conducting research for the youth-focussed television station Channel 4, identified 23 tribes in the UK. Tribes were broadly centred on common interests such as music and fashion. These tribes continue to develop and adapt where tribes both emerge and disappear fairly regularly. Some of the tribes featured within Helyar’s (2007) study have received academic attention; namely ‘Chavs’ (Nayak, 2006; Hayward & Yar, 2006) and ‘Emo’s’ (Mortara & Ironico, 2013). However, there is a distinct lack of research on such youth tribes from a marketing perspective. Research from a commercial context would be extremely beneficial for marketing practitioners as brand association with tribes can result in brand hijacking and subsequent deterioration of brand image, for example Burberry and Chavs (Parry, 2004; BBC, 2005). Alternatively, the possibility of promotional strategies being built around tribes as a potential viable segment requires exploration.

It is likely that the research will adopt a qualitative research approach. Due to the lack of sampling frame, non-probability sampling methods will be employed. As well as physical data collection, it seems feasible to also consider an online approach in the form of a netnography. It is expected that certain tribes will use brands for both personal and social benefits. Personal gain may stem from the achievement and prestige associated with owning certain brands; while the conspicuous nature of logo’s and symbols of some brands may contribute to consumers gaining social recognition from fellow tribe members.

Due to its non-probabilistic nature, this research will provide exploratory data and therefore should be generalised with caution. Due to the fairly extensive number of UK consumer tribes, it is likely that only a small sample will be analysed. The findings will allow marketers and brand owners to understand the consumer behaviour of UK youth tribes and in doing so provide insights into the feasibility of tribes as a potential segment, as well as informing strategies to minimise the possibility of brand hijacking. This study aims to addresses the fairly scare research of UK youth tribes and aims to analyse these tribes from a marketing perspective as past research has mainly focussed on the contexts of social class and gender studies.

Keywords: tribal marketing, fashion, lifestyles, netnography, consumer behaviour
References

Session A2: Social Media

How Chinese and German Companies Communicate on Sina Weibo
Sabine Einwiller and Cindy Ngai

The Effectiveness of Informational Influence on Social Media Marketing and Brand Knowledge
Shing-Wan Chang

A Participatory Approach to City Branding in Digital Era
Ebru Uzunoğlu, Burcu Yaman Akyar and Pınar Umul Ünsal
How Chinese and German Companies Communicate on Sina Weibo

Sabine Einwiller and Cindy Ngai

Abstract
Globalization, the blurring of national borders and harmonization of products and services have intensified global competition between companies. In China, the second largest economy, many Western companies rival the domestic firms for the attention, preference and affection of Chinese consumers and other stakeholders. Building relationships is considered key to reach this goal, particularly in a collectivistic society like China where relationship (aka guanxi) is highly valued, this seems especially vital for business success (Wong and Chan 1999).

With the proliferation of social network sites (SNS) like Sina Weibo, a microblogging service akin to a hybrid of Twitter and Facebook, the possibilities for relationship building have grown. Web 2.0 technologies enhance the possibilities for participation and interaction that can be applied by firms to foster relationships with their online stakeholders across geographical and cultural boundaries. As corporate and marketing communications are often centrally managed, communication practices on social media are likely to be underpinned by the organizational culture and more importantly, the national culture of the companies. In fact, national culture is said to have an impact on how companies practice communications (Cooper-Chen and Tanaka 2008). Thus, differences in the way companies communicate with their stakeholders online are to be expected.

The main research question of this study concerns the differences and similarities in domestic and foreign firms’ relationship building efforts with their online stakeholders on Sina Weibo. The theoretical basis for the analysis is Kent and Taylor’s (2002) theory of dialogic communication. Research objects are a comparable set of large Chinese and German companies. The ten German companies (drawn from Forbes 2000) active in Sina Weibo were matched with Chinese counterparts of similar size and from the same industry. Industries included IT & Electronics, Retail & Consumer Goods, Transportation, and Conglomerates. The two countries were chosen because they are close trading partners; however their cultures differ considerably. While China’s communication culture is considered high-context, Germany’s is rather low-context (Hall and Hall 1990). Furthermore, China’s culture is characterized by collectivism, and Germany is a rather individualistic society (The Hofstede Centre, n.d.). Because of the differences between China and Germany regarding communication style and culture, we expect differences in the companies’ communication approaches and the effectiveness of relationship building efforts. However, we also expect similarities as a result of specific localization practices possibly adapted by German companies.

Content analysis was applied to analyse the Sina Weibo profiles, i.e. company information, corporate posts and subsequent stakeholder responses. The period of analysis was between May 24 and June 13 of 2015. In total, 200 corporate posts, 1591 fan responses and 65 corporate responses to fans were analysed.

A comprehensive coding scheme was developed drawing on previous research on relationship building and dialogic communication in an online context (McMillan, Hoy, Kim, & McMahan, 2008; Men & Tsai, 2012; Waters, Burnett, Lamm, & Lucas, 2009). Where previous research did not provide any guidance and new measures were created. Analyses of the mainly categorical variables were conducted using SPSS.

The data reveal that the Chinese companies in the sample are more adept when it comes to building relationships and fostering dialogue with their Chinese online stakeholders on Sina Weibo than their German counterparts. Apart from offering explicit contact information, the Chinese companies produced corporate posts with a wide variety of content topics and responded promptly to create an active dialogic loop with their online fans. Their corporate posts, especially those on products...
and services, evoked a much higher volume of responses than posts by German companies. Among all, the posts that employed the strategy of gift-giving received a very high number of responses. On top of the gift giving strategy, the Chinese companies also focused more strongly than their German counterparts on communicating content relating to “relationship building” and “caring/educating publics”. They published posts on safety issues, community issues and festive greetings, which is appreciated by persons socialized in a collectivistic society (e.g. Hofstede and Bond 1988). German companies issued more corporate posts than their Chinese counterparts regarding their products and services. By predominantly using Sina Weibo as a marketing platform for promotion of products and services, German companies appeared to act more goal-oriented and to strive their best for their financial achievements which can be ascribed to the more individualistic and low-context culture practised in the companies’ home country. Companies from both countries posted on “vision and leadership”, which generated a considerable number of positive fan responses. This may result from a sense of loyalty and obedience to autocratic leadership grounded in Chinese culture where a high power distance relationship is expected and accepted (e.g. Hofstede & Bond, 1988).

Despite these central findings, this study has its limitations. Only 20 large companies from China and Germany were included in the sample. Also, we only analysed the corporate-stakeholder interaction in relation to the communication content. Further research should extend the scope to examine the culture-induced communication style employed by different companies on Sina Weibo and other social media and study its effects on online stakeholders’ responses.

Keywords: relationship management, dialogic communication, intercultural communication, social media, sina weibo

To our knowledge, this study is the first to compare cultural differences in corporate and marketing communication efforts on Sina Weibo. Thereby we extend previous research on intercultural communication in an online environment and its effectiveness regarding relationship building. It shows that Chinese companies’ communication efforts are influenced by Chinese culture values. This seems to be an advantage over the communication by their German counterparts regarding the number of fan responses the companies could generate. The largest number of responses resulted from Chinese companies’ gift-giving strategy, which appears to work particularly well with Chinese consumers who have been socialized in a gift-giving culture.

References

The Effectiveness of Informational Influence on Social Media Marketing and Brand Knowledge

Shing-Wan Chang

Abstract

Social media have gained substantial marketing attention and are becoming increasingly popular worldwide. This is because they allow users to generate high level of interactivity, share experiences and search for valuable information about a product or brand, before making the purchase. Despite the importance of social media marketing, research investigating whether consumer attitude towards social media marketing strengthens their brand knowledge remains limited. To date, little is known about whether the informational social influence actually affects consumers' attitude towards social media marketing and two dimensions of brand knowledge. The present study addresses how informational influence could increase the effectiveness of viral marketing in a context of social media. This study attempts to answer three primary research questions: (1) Is informational influence effective in improving the consumers' attitude towards social media marketing, brand awareness and brand image? (2) Does attitude towards social media marketing effectively cultivate brand knowledge, including brand awareness and image? (3) Does social media marketing attitude play a mediating role in the effects of informational influence on brand knowledge (brand awareness and image)? The findings of the study can help companies better understand the importance of a virtual community for social media marketing and its value for brand awareness and image. In addition, this research will add to existing knowledge about viral marketing. Based on the aforementioned discussion, we postulated that informational influence is positively related to consumer attitude towards social media marketing, brand awareness and brand image, whilst consumer attitude towards social media marketing is positively related to brand awareness and image. Moreover, consumer attitude towards social media marketing was hypothesised to mediate not only the relationship between informational influence and brand awareness but also the path of informational influence to brand image.

All scales of the constructs included in the proposed model were drawn from previous studies and modified to fit the research context. An online survey questionnaire was developed to collect data from active social media users. Respondents were asked to recall their last activities on social media and further circle their level of agreements with the descriptions in relation to their specific product/brand page on social media. Data were collected in September 2015. After eliminating the invalid questionnaires with missing values, 307 valid questionnaires were retained from 323 survey questionnaires distributed. Females comprised 79% of the total samples and males 21%. Consistent with the age of online community members, the majority of respondents were between 18 and 34 years of age (92.2%). 90.6% had obtained a bachelor’s or higher degree. Results were analysed using Structural Equation Modeling via two-step approach, suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). The measurement model was first assessed using confirmatory factor analysis. All factor loadings ranged from 0.651 to 0.955 and all constructs were found to be highly reliable (Crobach’s Alpha>0.80). Convergent validity is achieved due to CR>0.60, AVE>0.50, and CR>AVE (Janssens et al. 2008; Fornell and Larcker 1981). Discriminant validity is confirmed because the square root of each AVE is larger than each inter-construct correlation. Harman’s one-factor-test was applied to examine whether the common method variance problem exists in the sample data (Podsakoff et al. 2003). The result showed that no single factor accounted for most of the variance in the variables, implying that common method bias is unlikely to be a serious issue. The SEM model showed the following values: CMIN/DF=1.859, GFI=.957, AGFI=.922, NFI=.963, RFI=.942, IFI=.983, TLI=.972, CFI=.982, RMSEA = .053, all of which meet the respective cut-offs (Janssens
et al. 2008). Hypothesis testing was performed after the overall model fit was confirmed. Informational influence has a non-significant impact on brand awareness (p=0.656; β=0.038), rejecting H1. However, informational influence has strong positive associations with consumer attitude towards social media marketing (β = 0.611; p < 0.001) and brand image (p<0.001; β=0.554), which provide support for H2 and H3. Consumer attitude towards social media marketing enhances brand awareness (p=0.022; β=0.179) and image (p=0.031; β=0.135), in support of H4 and H5. Moreover, the present study found that the proposed model accounted for 37.3% of variance explained for attitude toward social media marketing, 41.7% for brand image, and 4.2% for brand awareness.

To test the mediation effects, we employed the Haynes (2013) bootstrapping method by computing the bias-corrected confidence intervals around the indirect effects. 95% confidence interval of the indirect effects with 5000 bootstrap resamples was generated in the Process software. The results of the mediation analysis show that attitude to social media marketing does not mediate the effects of informational influence on consumer brand awareness and brand image respectively as both of the 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals contained zero. The Sobel test also reports that there is no significant indirect effect of attitude, rejecting H6a and H6b.

Informational influence exerts a greater positive influence on consumer attitude towards social media marketing than brand image. Consumer attitude towards social media marketing was also proven to be a significant determinant of brand knowledge including brand awareness and image. This study extends the existing literature by confirming that informational social influence is a key predictor of social media marketing and brand knowledge improvement. Very few studies from social media marketing context have examined the role of informational influence in fostering a brand. From a practical perspective, the study provides marketers with insight on how informational social influence and social media marketing contribute to forming the strong brand knowledge. Our model results provide some managerial guidelines to marketers and social media platform providers. Marketers should deliver more pleasant, credible, useful, and informative content to social media users in order to strengthen their brands.

**Keywords:** social media marketing, attitude, informational influence, brand awareness, brand image, brand knowledge

**Acknowledgement**

Special thanks are due to Parvathy Sripadhan for survey help.

**References**


A Participatory Approach to City Branding in Digital Era

Ebru Uzunoğlu, Burcu Yaman Akyar and Pınar Umul Ünsal

Abstract
The intense competition witnessed in business environment urges marketers and communicators to adopt differentiation strategies through which products and services are attributed a unique position in the mind of consumers. Undoubtedly, branding efforts are fundamental to differentiation; further contributing to different aspects of a brand such as awareness, identity, image and reputation (Keller 1993; Aaker 1996). Targeting various groups, ranging from locals to the wider business community, from students to members of the talented workforce, and from investors to potential visitors, cities are also subject to branding activities in order to gain a competitive edge in destination marketing. According to Andersson and Ekman (2009, 41), city branding is “the use of various marketing practices to promote a place’s attractiveness for business, tourists, residents and students”.

In an age of digitalization and brand domination, the pressure of competition among cities necessitates the development and maintenance of creative and innovative marketing communications strategies and tactics. For the means of attaining differentiation and emphasizing unique values of a city stemming from its history, nature and cultural heritage, conventional marketing communications efforts and media channels are no longer satisfactory in terms of city branding. As argued by Houghton and Stevens (2011, 45), “... a key reason of failure here [of city branding] is the absence or the inadequacy of a programme for engaging and energising local people, businesses and community groups in shaping, articulating and conveying the brand”. The advent of Internet and particularly social media has emerged as a countermeasure to this potential lack of engagement. With the help of new communication technologies, city branding professionals can benefit from social media tools for facilitating a mutual exchange with target groups, resulting in involvement and participation.

Cities are co-created entities in which various stakeholders literally “have a ‘stake’ of some kind in it” (Stubbs and Warnaby 2015, p115). Thus, not only cities as brands should be communicated in a participatory manner, allowing all stakeholders to have a say in the branding process; but also it is essential to invest in cities in terms of attaining participation of many stakeholders (Kavaratzis and Hatch 2013). Social media, with its inherent features that facilitate dialogue and interaction by nature, can be considered as an opportunity for circulating city brand messages in a collective fashion. Through different functions such as like, comment, share, retweet, repost or hashtag, brand messages can be spread rapidly, thus possibly resulting in enhanced brand awareness. Peer to peer interactions in social media also play a key role in city branding communication process in terms of potentially generating electronic word-of-mouth (Cheung and Thadani 2012; Filieri and McLeay 2014). Such organic communication is a valuable contribution to this process, since brand messages are disseminated voluntarily in-between users themselves in a trustworthy exchange.

As experiencing a city can be truly acquired by actually being there, cities with their touristic, historical and cultural features can be represented visually through pictures in order to provide a pseudo-experience of the reality for potential visitors. In a world where “tourists started to visit churches, not to pray, but to photograph them” (Hosper 2011, 27), branding a city through social media provides an opportunity of creating visual and memorable representations of it. With this in mind, as well as having aforementioned features, Instagram, among many other social media tools, offers an environment in which visual imagery is distinctively dominant. According to Jordan (2013), “photo-based social media sites such as Instagram and
Pinterest, in particular, have ushered in a visual revolution, taking the old adage ‘don’t tell when you can show’ to new heights”. Instagram emerged as a platform where individuals express themselves in an artistic manner; however, over time, brands and organisations discovered its potential of visual storytelling for conveying brand messages. Particularly, city branding, which requires the artistic representation of cultural heritages, can benefit from Instagram as a powerful alternative to traditional methods of visual documentation and printed material. In order to harness Instagram’s full potential, acknowledging the need for a strategic approach is essential in design and execution of a city branding project.

In the light of existing literature, this study aims to identify how visual-oriented social networks, particularly Instagram, offer a participatory approach to contemporary city branding. Previous studies have made early attempts which elaborate on the use and implications of social media in city branding. However, Instagram has not been the subject of scholarly research in this field up to the present. Therefore, this study will not only reveal fruitful insights regarding city branding in social media, particularly in Instagram; but will also provide managerial implications with regard to social media management. In order to make an original contribution to the literature, this study addresses a recent Instagram project, @cityofizmir; which was initiated by a well-respected travel journalist together with Aegean Young Businessmen’s Association (EGIAD) and Izmir Metropolitan Municipality (IBB) for Izmir’s global promotion.

The aim of the project was to highlight existing values of Izmir as well as enhancing the city with new features and values. Furthermore, Instagram content in the @cityofizmir account would also serve as a visual archive of the city. The significance of the project finds ground in the promotion of Izmir whose various cultural and touristic sights has been underappreciated (Günlü, Pırnar, and Yağcı 2009; Köstepen and Öter 2013). Since its launch in April 2015, the account has reached 80,000 followers with more than 500 posts. Therefore, multi-stakeholder approach, the visual and textual content and the conversations in this account will reveal managerial considerations in social media management for participatory city branding. Regarding this aim, the study will illustrate how Instagram is used for the purpose of achieving city branding objectives by focusing on below dimensions:

- How is Izmir represented on Instagram?
  - Theme and frequency of visuals
  - Paid vs. earned contributors: Photos of professionals and amateurs
  - Theme, content and tone of post captions

- To what extent does Instagram enable extensive reach and stakeholder engagement?
  - Likes, comments, mentions, and reposts

- What kinds of dialogues occur in the account in-between stakeholders i.e. in-between followers and/or brand to followers? In what ways do account managers respond to negative and positive comments?

References


Session A3: Branding and Communication

The Role of Cognitive and Emotional Elements an Driving Higher Levels of Brand Loyalty
Ibrahim Alnawas and Jane Hemsley-Brown

Religious Beliefs as a New Antecedent Toward Brand Love an The Islamic Market
Waleed Yousef, TC Melewar, Charles Dennis and Pantea Foroudi

The Way to Role Formation and Enactment for Luxury Consumers: What about France, India and Greece?
George Panigyrakis and Koronaki Eirini
The Role of Cognitive and Emotional Elements in Driving Higher Levels of Brand Loyalty

Ibrahim Alnawas and Jane Hemsley-Brown

Abstract
The aim of this paper is twofold: first, to examine the differential effect of different types of experiences (i.e., product experience, outcome focused, surprise and immersion) on social exchange variables (i.e., satisfaction, trust and value), and emotional brand attachment (i.e., high and low emotional arousal); and second, to test the differential effect of social exchange variables (SEVs) and emotional brand attachment (EBA) on switching resistance loyalty. Survey data were collected from 843 respondents using an online panel in the UK. Structural equation modeling was employed to analyze the data (AMOS 18.0). Two key findings emerged from the findings of the current research, which are against our expectations. First, the relationship between experiences and consumers’ cognitive and emotional outcomes does not follow a specific pattern, and they affect differently consumers’ cognitive and emotional outcomes. Second, given that there are no significant differences between the path coefficients of high and low emotional arousal and that of brand trust and satisfaction, then it is reasonable to conclude that it is not an either/or situation, but rather both cognitive and emotional elements in the customer-service provider’s relationship appear to be equally important in driving higher levels of switching resistance loyalty. The key contribution of this research stems from integrating cognitive and emotional variables into a single model in order to examine their relative contribution to the development of brand loyalty.

Introduction
Published studies indicate that the effect of perceived value (Gil-Saura and Ruiz-Molina, 2009; Sirdeshmukh et al., 2002), satisfaction (Veloutsou et al., 2004; Fornell, 1992); and trust (Ndubisi, 2007; Taylor et al., 2004) on brand loyalty is direct, significant and positive across various industries (Perin et al., 2006), in online (Harris and Goode, 2004) and offline contexts (Sirdeshmukh et al., 2002). However, one notable issue concerning these constructs is that, despite the presence of emotions; trust, satisfaction and value are mainly cognitive in their representation (Nyffenegger et al., 2014; Boonlertvanich, 2011; Bontis et al., 2007; Yang and Peterson, 2004; Bahia et al., 2000; Teas and Agarwal, 2000; Andreassen and Lindestad, 1998; Dabholkar, 1995; Monroe and Chapman, 1987). Against the above argument, a new stream of research has recently emerged, focusing specifically on the emotional aspects in the development of brand loyalty. More specifically, a central construct (i.e., emotional brand attachment) that taps deeply into the affective realm (Pawardhan and Balasubramanian, 2013) has been proposed as another path to loyalty formation. Emotional Brand Attachment (EBA), which essentially captures the strength and the deep emotional bonds between the brand and the customer (Thomson et al., 2005), usually manifests itself via three variables: passion, affection and connection (Proksch et al. 2015; Reimann et al., 2012; Thomson et al., 2005).

There are two roots to the development of brand loyalty in a service context; one is cognitive in nature, i.e., is based on object-relevant belief (Park and MacInnis 2006), and manifests itself via trust, satisfaction and perceived value; and the other is inherently emotional and exhibits itself via passion, affection and connection. Social Exchange Variables (SEVs) magnify the cognitive aspects in the service provider-customer relationship, but they ignore, to a large extent, the emotional elements in that relationship. On the other hand, while EBA variables augment the emotional elements in the service provider-customer relationship, they largely ignore the cognitive elements. Such conclusions, however, reveal two significant gaps in service marketing literature.

First, the majority of previous studies examined the contribution of SEVs and EBA variables to the development of brand loyalty in isolation, i.e., they tend to focus on one set of variables (SEVs or EBA variables) when delineating the path to brand loyalty. Thus, it remains largely unclear whether both cognitive and emotional elements are equally important in their contribution to the enhancement of brand loyalty, or whether one set is more important than the other. Examining such issues becomes critical as the review of the literature indicates that there is only one study which has investigated the
combined effect of cognitive and emotional components on brand loyalty, and it was restricted to one service sector only (i.e., the airline industry) (Nyffenegger et al., 2014). Second, the cognitive nature of SEVs and the deep emotions manifested in EBA variables would suggest that each group of variables may have different roots to its formation. In other words, those variables that significantly affect SEVs may not necessarily affect EBA variables or may have a weaker effect, and vice versa. However, the variation and the differential effect of certain types of antecedents on cognitive and emotional variables was only noted recently (Nyffenegger et al., 2014). In this vein, Nyffenegger et al. (2014) examined the impact of partner quality and self-congruence on customers’ emotional and cognitive outcomes and found that both variables have a differential effect on this.

Although the current research builds on the work of Nyffenegger et al. (2014) in order to fill the above gaps, their study demands attention for a number of reasons. Initially, Nyffenegger et al. (2014) investigated the effect of brand relationship quality (BRQ), which manifests itself via two cognitive components (i.e., trust and satisfaction) and three emotional factors (i.e., passion, intimacy and commitment), on attitudinal and behavioral loyalty. The authors considered trust and satisfaction as a unidimensional construct and called it ‘cold BRQ’; they also treated passion, intimacy and commitment as a unidimensional construct, and labeled it as ‘hot BRQ’. This way of conceptualization and measurement, however, raises a few issues. First, the differential effect of hot BRQ and cold BRQ on attitudinal and behavioral loyalty that the authors found may not be ascribed to cognitive or emotional issues, but rather to the differences in the number of emotional factors (i.e., three) compared with that of cognitive factors (i.e., two). Second, treating trust and satisfaction as a unidimensional construct and passion, intimacy and commitment as another unidimensional construct will only allow us to observe the inter-variations among the variables at the aggregate level. As such, the variations between trust and satisfaction, on the one hand, and between passion, commitment and intimacy, on the other hand, cannot be observed when examining their effect on brand loyalty. Additionally, the variations among the five variables when investigating their impact on brand loyalty become blurred. As the key point of spurring this stream of research is to study the differential effect of cognitive and emotional elements on brand loyalty, then examining the above variations becomes critical. Finally, the emotional elements (passion, commitment and intimacy) that the authors examined tap into the higher-arousal emotions (Batra et al., 2012; Sternberg, 1986). However, researchers indicate that there are two forms of emotional arousal: high and low (Batra et al., 2012; Perlman and Fehr, 1987; Sternberg, 1986), which the authors did not consider when examining the effect of emotions on brand loyalty.

Therefore, our study extends the work of Nyffenegger et al. (2014) as follows. First, Nyffenegger et al. (2014) examined the effect of cognitive and emotional elements on attitudinal and behavioral loyalty, which has certainly advanced our understanding of this. However, recent research indicates the centrality of a specific form of loyalty called ‘switching resistance loyalty’. This form of loyalty, which has recently received increasing attention (Haj-Salem and Chebat, 2014; Kim and Gupta, 2012; Lam et al., 2010; Gärling et al., 2008), is concluded to be a more important determinant than attitudinal and behavioral loyalty in preventing customer defection to optimize customer retention management (Tsai, 2014). This research, therefore, aims to examine the combined effect of cognitive and emotional elements on switching resistance loyalty.

Second, the model includes three cognitive elements, namely trust, satisfaction and perceived value, to equalize them with the emotional elements. Third, the concept of EBA is utilized, rather than BRQ, to investigate the effect of emotions on switching resistance loyalty, because it contains variables that tap into low-arousal (i.e., affection) and high-arousal emotions (i.e., passion and connection). Fourth, we relied on the concept of experience quality (EQ), which is defined as the customer’s cognitive and emotional evaluation of all direct and indirect encounters with the service provider relating to his/her purchasing behavior (Maklan and Klaus, 2013: 228), in order to identity new antecedents that would have a differential effect on customers’ cognitive and emotional outcomes. In this vein, leading researchers on the concept of EQ indicate that the service
experience can be measured via cognitive elements such as outcome focus and product experience (Klaus and Maklan, 2013; Maklan and Klaus, 2011); and emotional components including fun, participation, immersion and surprise (Chang and Horng, 2010; Kao et al., 2008). Thus, we chose two cognitive and two emotional elements to examine their differential effect on SEVs and EBA variables. Finally, we tested our models across four unique service sectors, namely banks, hotels, grocery stores and restaurants.

**Model Suggested and Hypotheses Development**

**Cognitive EQ & SEVs & EBA Variables**

This research chose product experience and outcome focus as two cognitive components of EQ; and immersion and fun as two emotional elements of EQ. Based on our interpretation of the literature, it is expected that the cognitive components of EQ will have a more significant effect on SEVs compared to EBA variables, whereas the emotional components will have a more significant effect on EBA variables compared to SEVs. The potential effect of cognitive and emotional components of EQ are discussed below.

**Product experience.** Customers’ perception of having choices and the ability to compare offers from the same service provider have a number of benefits to customers. These include, but are not restricted to, reducing the opportunity costs of time and the real costs of inconvenience and search expended (Srinivasan et al., 1998); allowing customers to choose more advantageously (Ratner et al., 1999); meeting customers’ expectations and solving their problems (Schwartz et al., 2002); increasing the perceived likelihood of finding the ideal product (Schwartz, 2004); making customers choose the product that offers most satisfaction for money (Davies and Ward, 2002); enhancing customers’ knowledge about a product category and improving their purchase decision processes (Huffman and Houston, 1993). In sum, the availability of alternatives at a single service provider enhances customers' perceptions of which alternative should be chosen (Biehal and Chakravarti, 1986).

**Outcome focus.** Customers often incur significant financial costs in searching for, buying, and obtaining the service, above and beyond the price paid to the service provider (Lee et al., 2001). Lovelock et al. (2009: 142) indicate that there are non-monetary costs associated with obtaining the service such as: time costs, which are inherent in service delivery; physical costs, which include going to the service factory and waiting to receive the service; and psychological costs, which are related to mental effort, perceived risk, cognitive dissonance, or fear attached to obtaining a particular service. In this sense, outcome focus suggests that a service provider reduces the time required to complete service purchase, delivery and consumption; eliminates inconvenient procedures during search and delivery processes; educates customers on what to expect; retraining employees to be friendlier and more helpful; and offers mail or online delivery of activities that previously required a personal visit.

Based on the above discussion, it could be concluded that the benefits associated with product experience and outcome focus are less emotional in nature, since they emphasize the functional rather than the emotional aspects of the customer experience. Therefore, such benefits would tie in more with SEVs (i.e., increasing customers’ confidence in the quality and reliability of the brand and enhancing customers’ perceptions that the focal brand and its utilitarian value exceed that of other alternatives), than to EBA variables, which require consumers to experience deep, frequent and intense emotions during their journey. Accordingly, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H1a: product experience will have a more significant effect on brand trust than it will have on low emotional arousal

H1b: product experience will have a more significant effect on brand trust than it will have on high emotional arousal

H1c: product experience will have a more significant effect on satisfaction than it will have on low emotional arousal

H1d: product experience will have a more significant effect on satisfaction than it will have on high emotional arousal

H1e: product experience will have a more significant effect on brand value than it will have on low emotional arousal

H1f: product experience will have a more significant effect on brand value than it will have on high emotional arousal
H2a: outcome focus will have a more significant effect on brand trust than it will have on low emotional arousal
H2b: outcome focus will have a more significant effect on brand trust than it will have on high emotional arousal
H2c: outcome focus will have a more significant effect on satisfaction than it will have on low emotional arousal
H2d: outcome focus will have a more significant effect on satisfaction than it will have on high emotional arousal
H2e: outcome focus will have a more significant effect on brand value than it will have on low emotional arousal
H2f: outcome focus will have a more significant effect on brand value than it will have on high emotional arousal

Emotional EQual SEVs & EBA Variables
Immersion refers to accessing a holistic experience that ‘involves the entire living being’ (Schmitt, 1999: 60) and the involvement of consumers in the enjoyment of the consumption when they spend their time and money on obtaining the service (Kao et al., 2008; Pine et al., 1999). According to Firat et al. (1995: 52), consumers go to market to produce their own identity and therefore seek "to experience immersion into thematic settings rather than merely to encounter finished products". Pine and Gilmore (1999) also noted that consumers’ total physical and mental immersion in the environment that constitutes an experience (together with their active participation therein) will help to concretize something that will be memorable for them.

Surprise concerns the freshness, uniqueness and distinctiveness of an experience because consumers encounter unique stimuli from unexpected situations during consumption of services (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982). Due to its intrinsic arousal, the emotion of surprise can amplify subsequent affective reactions (Charlesworth, 1969). This characteristic of surprise can be explained by the theory of excitation transfer, in which residues of activation from prior stimulation combine with excitation in subsequent stimulation. The combined activity is then expected to intensify the emotional experience during the subsequent stimulation (e.g., Zillmann, 1983).

Based on the above discussion, it could be assumed that the benefits associated with immersion and surprise are less cognitive in nature, since they emphasize the emotional rather than the functional aspects of the customer experience. Therefore, such benefits would tie in more with EBA variables, which require consumers to experience deep, frequent and intense emotions during their journey, than to SEVs. Accordingly, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H3a: immersion will have a more significant effect on low emotional arousal than it will have on brand trust.
H3b: immersion will have a more significant effect on high emotional arousal than it will have on brand trust.
H3c: immersion will have a more significant effect on low emotional arousal than it will have on satisfaction.
H3d: immersion will have a more significant effect on high emotional arousal than it will have on satisfaction.
H3e: immersion will have a more significant effect on low emotional arousal than it will have on brand value.
H3f: immersion will have a more significant effect on high emotional arousal than it will have on brand value.

H4a: surprise focus will have a more significant effect on low emotional arousal than it will have on brand trust.
H4b: surprise will have a more significant effect on high emotional arousal than it will have on brand trust.
H4c: surprise will have a more significant effect on low emotional arousal than it will have on satisfaction.
H4d: surprise will have a more significant effect on high emotional arousal than it will have on satisfaction.
H4e: surprise will have a more significant effect on low emotional arousal than it will have on brand value.
H4f: surprise will have a more significant effect on high emotional arousal than it will have on brand value.

SEVs & EBA Variables ↔ SRL Variables
By drawing on the work of Oliver (1999), Grisaffe and Nguyen (2011) conclude that EBA offers a special promise as an affective basis of "committed exclusive repurchase, often against all odds, at all costs, despite situational incentives to switch loyal brand repurchasing" (1057). The authors also noted that revenue generated from emotional loyalty to a brand is less vulnerable to fluctuation, and that EBA represents an essential means of “realizing devoted,
Hallberg (2003: 231) points out that firms which are truly committed to nurturing brand loyalty must develop their programs around building EBA, "not just be content with repeat buying". If this achieved, according to Hallberg (2003), firms will increase the financial success of their programs and will eventually make the brand a category leader. Hallberg (2003: 232) further concluded that consumers who are highly attached to a brand will buy twice as much, and often three to four times more, compared to consumers who are slightly less attached to the brand. In the customer-firm relationship, Fleming, Coffman, and Harter (2005) conclude that customers who were passionate about firms had significantly lower attrition rates and higher levels of expenditure than those who were not.

There are a number of reasons behind the above conclusions. First, deep and intense emotions represent a strong means of captivating experience-driven consumer brand attachment (Thompson et al., 2006). They reflect a consumer-centric, relational, and storytelling approach that inspires and captivates consumers, and also contributes to building and shaping profound and enduring affective ties between brands and consumers (Roberts, 2004). As such, emotional-based brand loyalty involves the engagement of consumers in a deep, enduring, and passionate emotional connection with the brand, which goes beyond the benefits obtained from the delivery of the core service (Morrison and Crane, 2007). Second, a benefit-driven branding approach cannot offer a long-term competitive advantage since it is readily imitated and easily duplicated, especially when the benefits are linked to technological and product design features. A benefit-driven branding approach is also unlikely to break through the clutter of a saturated marketing environment with an overwhelming number of brands that are fighting to claim unique and distinctive characteristics (Thomson et al., 2006). Thus, as an affective basis of service brand experiences can offer more important value to consumers (Sweeney and Soutar 2001), the following is hypothesized:

H5a: High emotional arousal will have a more significant effect on switching resistance loyalty compared to brand trust
H5b: Low emotional arousal will have a more significant effect on switching resistance loyalty compared to brand trust
H5c: High emotional arousal will have a more significant effect on switching resistance loyalty compared to satisfaction
H5d: Low emotional arousal will have a more significant effect on switching resistance loyalty compared to satisfaction
H5e: High emotional arousal will have a more significant effect on switching resistance loyalty compared to brand value
H5f: Low emotional arousal will have a more significant effect on switching resistance loyalty compared to brand value

Methodology
Data Collection
The survey data were collected using an online panel based in the UK. The panel was accessed via a specialized market research company (CINT UK). The data were collected from four different service sectors: hotels, restaurants, banks and supermarkets. The survey started with a filter question (if respondents answered 'No', they moved directly to the exit page). Originally, 843 questionnaires were collected and 237 were excluded due to their partial completion or early exit, resulting in 606 usable questionnaires for the final analysis. At the sector level, the 606 usable questionnaires were as follows: (162) hotels, (151) restaurants, (140) banks and (153) supermarkets.

Measurement Validation
A factorial analysis was first performed to ensure a clear ten-factor model. Surprisingly, the initial results did not provide support for that since 'brand passion' and 'brand connection' loaded significantly on the same factor. Batra et al. (2012) and Thomson et al. (2005) noted that brand affection represents low emotional arousal, while brand passion and connection represent high emotional arousal. Accordingly, the three components of EBA became two components and were labeled as follows: low emotional arousal, while brand passion and connection represent high emotional arousal. Accordingly, the three components of EBA became two components and were labeled as follows: low emotional arousal (brand affection) and high emotional arousal (brand passion and brand connection). Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted using AMOS (18.0). The results suggest sufficient reliability for all the scales (see table 1)

Our proposed model was tested as nine first-order factors correlated with each other. This
conceptualization provided a good fit: CMIN/DF (2.305), RMSEA (0.047), NFI (0.94), RFI (0.928), IFI (0.973), TLI (0.965) and CFI (0.972). The model was then compared with five alternative models (see table 2). Although the comparison indicates that the first-order factors can be conceptualized as second-order factors, the goodness-of-fit measurements of the most competing alternative models were just better than the proposed model. Overall, the comparison suggests that our proposed model is acceptable and has a good fit.

Hypotheses Testing
AMOS (18.0) was also used to model the structural relationships proposed by our model. The goodness-of-fit measurements of the structural relationships met the conventional standards: CMIN/DF (2.516), NFI (0.927), RFI (0.916), IFI (0.950), TLI (0.943), CFI (0.950) and RMSEA (0.052). We then followed the work of Nyffenegger et al. (2014) in order to test for the differential effect of product experience, outcome focus, immersion and surprise on trust, satisfaction, value, low emotional arousal and high emotional arousal (H1a-f, H2a-f, H3a-f and H4a-f), based on $\chi^2$ (Chi2) difference test. The $\chi^2$ value of our general (unrestricted) structural equation model was compared with the $\chi^2$ value of a special (restricted) model. In such a restricted model, the effect of, for example, outcome focus on trust and low arousal was forced to be equal. If the difference in $\chi^2$ is larger than 3.84 (based on one degree of freedom), the worsening of the goodness of fit (within the restricted model) is significant. To further explain these procedures, we hypothesized in (H1a) that outcome focus will have a more significant effect on trust than it will have on low emotional arousal. In this case, we first ran an unrestricted model containing all the constructs and wrote down the $\chi^2$ value, we then ran the model containing all the constructs but forcing the path coefficients between outcome focus and trust and that between outcome focus and low emotional arousal to be equal, and wrote down the $\chi^2$ value. We then compared the two $\chi^2$, and if the differences was significant, H1a would be accepted.

Following the above procedures, we found full support for H1a-f, given that the differences in the $\chi^2$ values were all significant. With regard to H2a-f, partial support was found for H2b, d and f. Regarding H3a-f, four hypotheses were accepted (i.e., H3a, b, d and f). However, with respect to H4a-f, no support was found for the differential effect of surprise on SEVs compared with EBA. Finally, concerning the last set of hypotheses (H5a-f), only two sub-hypotheses were accepted (i.e., H5c and d).

Discussion and Conclusion
From a broader view, two key conclusions emerged from the findings of the current research, which are against our expectations. First, the relationship between experiences and consumers’ cognitive and emotional outcomes does not follow a specific pattern, and they affect differently consumers’ cognitive and emotional outcomes. For example, product experience has a significantly higher effect on trust and satisfaction compared to low/high emotional arousal, indicating that this experience has a significantly higher effect only on cognitive outcomes (H1a-f). Outcome focus has a significantly higher effect on perceived value, satisfaction and trust compared to high emotional arousal (H2b, d and f), but not on low emotional arousal (H2a, c and e), indicating that this cognitive experience not only drives higher levels of cognitive outcomes of the service experience but also drives higher levels of specific forms of emotions (i.e., low emotional arousal). Immersion has a significantly higher effect on low/high emotional arousal compared to brand trust (H3a and b). On the other hand, immersion has a significantly higher effect only on high emotional arousal compared to satisfaction (H3c and d) and brand value (H3e and f), indicating that this experience drives higher levels of high emotional arousal compared to cognitive outcomes, but does not drive higher levels of low emotional arousal compared to cognitive outcomes. In other words, this kind of emotional experience affects both cognitive outcomes and low emotional arousal equally; on the other hand, its effect on high emotional arousal and cognitive outcomes is significantly different. Surprise has a high effect on both cognitive and emotional outcomes, and therefore, no significant differences were identified between the path coefficients, indicating that this experience strongly drives both cognitive and emotional outcomes, rather than emotional outcomes only (H4a-f).

The second key conclusion is that among the cognitive variables that affect switching resistance, only satisfaction was insignificant,
while for emotional variables, both low and high emotional arousal were significant. However, given that there are no significant differences between the path coefficients of high and low emotional arousal and that of brand trust and value, then it is reasonable to conclude that it is not an either/or situation, but rather both cognitive and emotional aspects in the customer-service provider’s relationship appear to be equally important in driving higher levels of switching resistance loyalty.

Theoretical Contributions
The current research contributes to the literature in several ways. First, prior research tends to examine the contribution of SEVs and EBA variables to the development of brand loyalty in isolation, i.e., they tend to focus on one set of variables (SEVs or EBA variables) when delineating the path to brand loyalty. However, the current research integrates both sets of variables into a broader conceptualization and investigates their combined and differential effect on switching resistance loyalty. Second, the current research examines the assumption which suggests that each group of variables (i.e., SEVs and EBA) may have different roots to its formation and finds that such an assumption does not hold true. Third, the suggested model was tested across four unique service sectors, namely banks, hotels, grocery stores and restaurants in order to enhance the generalizability of the results.

Managerial Implications
The current research has a number of managerial implications. First, managers need to take into account the cognitive and the emotional aspects when designing, developing and delivering service experiences. The importance of having a deep understanding of the different elements that constitute service experiences stems from the differential effect of such elements on consumers’ cognitive and emotional outcomes. Thus, when designing service experiences, managers need to specify upfront the responses they aim to generate from their clients in order to match those experiences with the required customer response. For example, the results indicate that product experience, which is a cognitive experience, only affects satisfaction, trust and value, but has no effect on clients’ emotional outcomes. On the other hand, immersion, which represents an emotional experience, influences higher levels of high emotional arousal compared to cognitive outcomes (i.e., trust, satisfaction and value), but does not generate significantly higher levels of low emotional arousal compared to those cognitive outcomes. Second, managers need to understand that cognitive and emotional elements in the customer-service provider’s relationship are both necessary for building and developing switching resistance loyalty.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean (SD)</th>
<th>Regression Weights</th>
<th>Cronbach Alpha</th>
<th>CR</th>
<th>AVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Visiting XYZ helps me truly enjoy myself</td>
<td>3.42 (0.74)</td>
<td>.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Immersion</td>
<td>Visiting XYZ helps me get away from stress of daily life</td>
<td></td>
<td>.770</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>When I visit XYZ I forget that time is passing</td>
<td></td>
<td>.737</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I become so involved in the process/facilities when I visit XYZ that I forgot everything else</td>
<td></td>
<td>.806</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I stick to XYZ as my only choice to patronize</td>
<td>3.31 (0.91)</td>
<td>.803</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Switching Resistance Loyalty</td>
<td>During my travel I patronize XYZ whenever possible</td>
<td></td>
<td>.810</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I am not susceptible to being wooed away from XYZ</td>
<td></td>
<td>.784</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Trust</td>
<td>I trust XYZ</td>
<td>4.04 (0.72)</td>
<td>.849</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I rely on XYZ</td>
<td></td>
<td>.904</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>XYZ is an honest brand</td>
<td></td>
<td>.707</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>XYZ is safe</td>
<td></td>
<td>.883</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Value</td>
<td>What I get from XYZ is worth the costs</td>
<td>3.91 (0.76)</td>
<td>.852</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All things considered (price, time, and effort), XYZ is a good buy in the (category)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.859</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Compared with other (category) brands, XYZ is good value for money</td>
<td></td>
<td>.826</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>When I use XYZ, I feel I am getting my money’s worth</td>
<td>.802</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I am consistently satisfied with my decision to use XYZ</td>
<td>3.85 (0.91)</td>
<td>.843</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I am completely satisfied with XYZ</td>
<td>.887</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>XYZ offers exactly what I expect</td>
<td>.895</td>
<td></td>
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<td>Low Arousal Emotion</td>
<td>Affectionate</td>
<td>3.14 (0.75)</td>
<td>.694</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Loved</td>
<td>.803</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Peaceful</td>
<td>.867</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Friendly</td>
<td>.839</td>
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<td>High Arousal Emotion</td>
<td>Passionate</td>
<td>2.97 (0.92)</td>
<td>.882</td>
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<td>Delighted</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Captivated</td>
<td>.831</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Connected</td>
<td>.877</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bonded</td>
<td>.874</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Attached</td>
<td>.853</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outcome Focused</td>
<td>Staying with XYZ makes the process much easier</td>
<td>3.95 (0.75)</td>
<td>.731</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>XYZ gives me what I need swiftly</td>
<td>.813</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I prefer XYZ over an alternative provider</td>
<td>.868</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The people at XYZ can relate to my situation</td>
<td>.826</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Product Experience</td>
<td>I can compare different offers from XYZ to make certain I get the best offer</td>
<td>3.63 (0.87)</td>
<td>.728</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I hardly have to visit other XXX because I get all that I need from XYZ</td>
<td>.727</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>XYZ offers different options to choose from</td>
<td>.721</td>
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<tr>
<td>Surprise</td>
<td>The internal design of XYZ is distinctive</td>
<td>3.50 (0.81)</td>
<td>.710</td>
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<td>The décor of XYZ is surprisingly attractive</td>
<td>.810</td>
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<td></td>
<td>The service offered by XYZ makes me feel special and valued</td>
<td>.725</td>
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<td>The service offered by XYZ is consistent and reliable</td>
<td>.702</td>
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Table 2

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<th>NFI</th>
<th>RFI</th>
<th>IFI</th>
<th>TLI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
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<tr>
<td>Model 1 (nine first-order factors): Trust, satisfaction, value, high emotional arousal, low emotional arousal, product experience, outcome focused, immersion and surprise</td>
<td>2.305</td>
<td>.908</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>.928</td>
<td>.973</td>
<td>.965</td>
<td>.972</td>
<td>.047</td>
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<tr>
<td>Model 2 (two second-order factors and four first-order factors): 1st second-order factor (SEVs), 2nd second-order factor (EBA), and four first-order factors (product experience, outcome focused, immersion and surprise)</td>
<td>2.316</td>
<td>.9055</td>
<td>.937</td>
<td>.928</td>
<td>.971</td>
<td>.966</td>
<td>.971</td>
<td>.047</td>
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<tr>
<td>Model 3 (four second-order factors): 1st second-order factor (cognitive EQ), 2nd second-order factor (emotional EQ), 3rd second-order factor (SEVs), and 4th second-order factor (EBA)</td>
<td>2.299</td>
<td>.904</td>
<td>.937</td>
<td>.939</td>
<td>.971</td>
<td>.966</td>
<td>.971</td>
<td>.046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model 4 (two second-order factors):</td>
<td>2.631</td>
<td>.881</td>
<td>.923</td>
<td>.915</td>
<td>.958</td>
<td>.952</td>
<td>.958</td>
<td>.052</td>
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<td>Hypotheses: Antecedents of SEVs and EBA Variables</td>
<td>Standardized Regression of the 1st half of the hypothesis</td>
<td>Sig. Level</td>
<td>Standardized Regression of the 2nd half of the hypothesis</td>
<td>Sig. Level</td>
<td>$(\Delta \chi^2)$ based on one degree of freedom</td>
<td>Acceptance/Rejection</td>
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<tr>
<td>H1a: product experience will have a more significant effect on brand trust than it will have on low emotional arousal</td>
<td>0.208</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>-0.087</td>
<td>n.s</td>
<td>13.62&gt;3.85</td>
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<tr>
<td>H1b: product experience will have a more significant effect on brand trust than it will have on high emotional arousal</td>
<td>0.208</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>-0.094</td>
<td>n.s</td>
<td>13.15&gt;3.85</td>
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<td>H1c: product experience will have a more significant effect on satisfaction than it will have on low emotional arousal</td>
<td>0.112</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>-0.087</td>
<td>n.s</td>
<td>4.54&gt;3.85</td>
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<td>H1d: product experience will have a more significant effect on satisfaction than it will have on high emotional arousal</td>
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<td>H1e: product experience will have a more significant effect on brand value than it will</td>
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<td>0.05</td>
<td>-0.087</td>
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<tr>
<td>H1: product experience will have a more significant effect on brand value than it will have on high emotional arousal</td>
<td>0.145</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>-0.094</td>
<td>n.s</td>
<td>8.0&lt;3.85</td>
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<tr>
<td>H2a: outcome focus will have a more significant effect on brand trust than it will have on low emotional arousal</td>
<td>0.159</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.084</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>2.60&lt;3.85</td>
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<td>H2b: outcome focus will have a more significant effect on brand trust than it will have on high emotional arousal</td>
<td>0.159</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.028</td>
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<tr>
<td>H2c: outcome focus will have a more significant effect on satisfaction than it will have on low emotional arousal</td>
<td>0.278</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.084</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>3.25&lt;3.85</td>
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<tr>
<td>H2d: outcome focus will have a more significant effect on satisfaction than it will have on high emotional arousal</td>
<td>0.278</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.028</td>
<td>n.s</td>
<td>11.17&gt;3.85</td>
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<td>H2e: outcome focus will have a more significant effect on brand value than it will have on low emotional arousal</td>
<td>0.245</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.084</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>2.398&lt;3.85</td>
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<td>H2f: outcome focus will have a more significant effect on brand value than it will have on high emotional arousal</td>
<td>0.245</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.028</td>
<td>n.s</td>
<td>9.0&gt;3.85</td>
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<td>H3a: immersion will have a more significant effect on low emotional arousal than it will have on brand trust</td>
<td>0.382</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.182</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>17.16&gt;3.85</td>
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<td>H3b: immersion will have a more significant effect on high emotional arousal than it will have on brand trust</td>
<td>0.456</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.182</td>
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<td>H3c: immersion will have a more significant effect on low emotional arousal than it will</td>
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<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.289</td>
<td>0.01</td>
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<td>Effect on Satisfaction</td>
<td>Effect on Emotional Arousal</td>
<td>p-Value</td>
<td>Test Statistic</td>
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<td>H3d: Immersion will have a more significant effect on high emotional arousal than it will have on satisfaction</td>
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<td>0.289</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>8.73 &gt; 3.85</td>
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<td>H3e: Immersion will have a more significant effect on low emotional arousal than it will have on brand value</td>
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<td>0.314</td>
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<td>0.357 &lt; 3.85</td>
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<td>0.314</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>5.390 &gt; 3.85</td>
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**H4a-f: The differential effect of surprise on SEVs and EBA Variables**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Effect on Low Emotional Arousal</th>
<th>Effect on High Emotional Arousal</th>
<th>p-Value</th>
<th>Test Statistic</th>
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<tr>
<td>H4a: Surprise will have a more significant effect on low emotional arousal than it will have on brand trust</td>
<td>0.372</td>
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<td>H4b: Surprise will have a more significant effect on high emotional arousal than it will have on brand trust</td>
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<td>H4c: Surprise will have a more significant effect on low emotional arousal than it will have on satisfaction</td>
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<td>0.267</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>1.5 &lt; 3.85</td>
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<td>0.267</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.58 &lt; 3.85</td>
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<td>0.202</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>3.5 &lt; 3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4f: Surprise will have a more significant effect on high emotional arousal than it will have on brand value</td>
<td>0.329</td>
<td>0.202</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>2.8 &lt; 3.85</td>
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**Consequences of SEVs and EBA Variables**

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<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Effect on Switching Resistance Loyalty</th>
<th>Effect on Brand Trust</th>
<th>p-Value</th>
<th>Test Statistic</th>
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<td>H5a: High emotional arousal will have a more significant effect on switching resistance loyalty compared to brand trust</td>
<td>0.259</td>
<td>0.227</td>
<td>0.01</td>
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<td>p Value</td>
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<td>H5b: Low emotional arousal will have a more significant effect on switching resistance loyalty compared to brand trust</td>
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<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.227</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5c: High emotional arousal will have a more significant effect on switching resistance loyalty compared to satisfaction</td>
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<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.098</td>
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<td>H5d: Low emotional arousal will have a more significant effect on switching resistance loyalty compared to satisfaction</td>
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<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.098</td>
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<td>H5e: High emotional arousal will have a more significant effect on switching resistance loyalty compared to brand value</td>
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<td>H5f: Low emotional arousal will have a more significant effect on switching resistance loyalty compared to brand value</td>
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<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.157</td>
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</table>

- Social Exchange Variables
  - Trust
  - Satisfaction
  - Perceived Value

- Emotional Brand Attachment
  - Passion
  - Affection
  - Connection

- Cognitive EQ
  - Product Experience

- Emotional EQ
  - Immersion
  - Surprise
Religious Beliefs as a New Antecedent toward Brand Love in the Islamic Market

Waleed Yousef, TC Melewar, Charles Dennis and Pantea Foroudi

Abstract
This study contributes to the growing research on Muslim consumers by investigating whether their religious beliefs influence them to love certain brands; this is achieved by testing religious beliefs as one of brand love’s antecedents. Drawing on the theory of planned behaviour as well as attachment theory, the authors propose that considering consumers’ beliefs assist companies in inspiring brand love, which leads to brand loyalty, word-of-mouth and repurchase intention. The authors develop a conceptual framework that offers propositions regarding the key determinants and consequences of Islamic brand love as a newly proposed concept.

To investigate the proposed relationships, the following questions must be answered; how do religious beliefs influence Muslim consumers towards brand love? How are Muslim consumers influenced by their Sharia sources (subjective norms, religious beliefs, and perceived behaviour control)? How can these Sharia sources influence brand loyalty, word-of-mouth and repurchase intention? Do Muslim consumers strictly follow the Sharia sources while behaving towards brand love? Finally, we ask whether the brand love concept in Islam is different from the concept as it exists in the current literature. In addition, this study investigates the relationships between Islamic brand love and brand loyalty, word-of-mouth and repurchase intention.

A large body of studies have considered Muslim consumers from different perspectives. It has been discussed that the influence of culture in general and religious beliefs in particular on behaviour is relatively high, as people can like, love, or hate based on their religious beliefs (Kotler, 2000). In addition, Muslim consumer behaviour is significantly influenced by their Sharia sources (Chachi and Latiff, 2008). There is an ongoing initiative to simplify manufacturing and production processes and globalization; the concept of Halal is worthy of consideration by marketers (Addis and Holbrook, 2001). In addition, the discipline of consumer research requires more consideration of understanding Muslim consumers (Izberk-Bilgin, 2012).

Muslim consumers have been considered from different perspectives. For instance, Izberk-Bilgin (2012) has studied the influence of religiousity on consumer behaviour, considering the Muslim consumer behaviour toward non-Islamic brands. Their study was based on non-Islamic brands which are performing in Muslim countries. On the other hand, Essoo and Dibb (2004) have studied Islamic roles in the banking sector and highlighted Islamic banking, and explained how it can shape Muslim consumer behaviour. In addition, Carbone and Haeckel (2002, p.87) stated that consumer behaviour is based on religious teachings regarding social customs and laws. For instance, the concept of halal (permissible) food confuses the majority of multinationals targeting Muslims. Halal covers the aspects of preparation, display, sanitation and storage, among others. Given the speed of technological advancement, ongoing initiatives to simplify manufacturing and production processes and globalization, marketers should understand the concept of halal fully (Addis and Holbrook, 2001).

Considering the importance of understanding Muslim consumers, there are few studies that link Muslim consumers with the concept of branding. For instance, the concept of brand love has been researched within the marketing literature considering different antecedents and outcomes. But there is no study linking Muslim consumer behaviour toward brand love, especially when highlighting the importance of understanding Muslim consumers as an attractive segment for both academia and business, considering the fact that brand love is considered as the
highest level of satisfaction (Fournier and Mick, 1999).

Barbra, Caroll and Ahuvia (2006) define the brand love concept as the degree of passionate, emotional attachment a satisfied consumer feels for a particular brand. Fournier (1998) stated that consumers could develop a relationship with a brand in different categories such as; love and passion. Similarly, Caroll and Ahuvia (2006) categorised the consumers/brand relationships as: passion for brand, brand attachment or declaration of love toward the brand.

The theory of interpersonal love has been used in the marketing context (See: Shimp and Madden, 1988); however, Batra, Ahuvia and Bagozzi (2012) state that the theories of interpersonal love are not suitable for brand love research. They supported their argument by highlighting the differences between the different types of interpersonal love, such as parental love or romantic love; therefore, theories of interpersonal love cannot be applied to brand love. On the contrary, it is argued that the concept of brand love can be measured using interpersonal love theories only if an exploratory study is included beforehand (Albert, Merunka and Florence, 2008).

Brand love has been linked with different branding constructs such as brand loyalty, brand trust, brand likeability and brand commitment (Albert and Merunka, 2013; Nguyen, Melewar and Chen, 2013; and Batra, Ahuvia and Bagozzi, 2012). In particular, brand loyalty was considered as a main consequence of brand love (Batra, Ahuvia and Bagozzi, 2012). Brand love as a construct can lead to other psychological consequences, besides the branding constructs which have been highlighted above. Brand love can provide intrinsic rewards, positive effects or frequent thoughts. Brand love can be influenced by other psychological factors such as cultural identity, religiosity or strongly held values. Thus, consumers might love a brand because by using it they can gain something else that they love (Batra, Ahuvia and Bagozzi, 2012). In addition, Roy, Eshghi and Sarkar (2013) have studied brand love considering two important factors: consumer controlled or uncontrolled experience with a brand, as consumers can love a brand through a word-of-mouth without even experiencing it. Moreover, the individual personality differences can lead to brand love. For instance, a brand can be loved if it represents a consumer personality. Figure 1 illustrates the main factors that influence brand love and the key outcomes of brand love.

Few previous studies on Muslim consumers (Alserhan, 2010; Alserhan, 2012; Jafari 2014) have linked Muslim consumers with Islamic branding. Alserhan (2010) defined Islamic branding as ‘those brands which are matching with the Muslim Sharia compliant’. Similarly, Paul (2011) stated that Islamic brands must consider the five pillars of Islam (Shahada, Salat, Sawm, Zakat and Hajj) in order to win Muslim consumers. In this article, the authors aim to examine religious beliefs as a new antecedent to brand love and therefore, this article proposes a new construct which is Islamic brand love. Regarding the high influence of religious beliefs stated in the literature and the brand love antecedents. This study hopes to shed light on Muslim consumer behaviour towards the concept of Brand Love in Saudi Arabia. The study will attempt to understand Muslim consumers’ beliefs toward brand love. This research paper suggests that religious beliefs play an important role in creating feelings of brand love. This paper will provide guidelines for managers to have their brands loved by Muslim consumers in specific, and consumers of different backgrounds in general.

The study suggests that religious beliefs have a strong causal relationship with brand love. Since love in marketing can lead to a high level of satisfaction (Fournier and Mick, 1999), this study will contribute to an exciting body of literature by considering brand love in an Islamic perspective, defining brand love based on religious beliefs, and developing a new scale for it.
It is vital for brand managers to focus on consumers’ beliefs to create feelings of love toward their brands. In addition, policymakers can benefit from this research by considering Muslim consumers through customising their products according to Islamic rules.

Sales managers can benefit from this research, as it is suggested that Islamic brand love leads to purchase intention, thereby increasing sales. In addition, once a brand is loved based on spiritual feeling, sales managers can guarantee a high level of brand loyalty, since brand loyalty is one of the major consequences of Islamic brand love as it is discussed in the literature. Finally, it is suggested that a brand which is loved based on Islamic beliefs will encourage its lover to spread a positive-word-of-mouth. Thus, marketing managers will have their brand promoted by their customers.

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Holy Quran


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Strauss, D. 2006. FT.com site: Mideast consumer boycott hits Danish products. *FT.com, 1*.


The Way to Role Formation and Enactment for Luxury Consumers: What about France, India and Greece?

George Panigyrakis and Koronaki Eirini

Abstract
This paper aims to examine the how individual's cross-nationally form and enact their luxury consumer's role and their identity's role in this process. The countries of analysis include a country with a long tradition to luxury (France), an emerging economy (India) and a country in crisis (Greece). Through Structural Equation Modelling and Multi Group Analysis and proposed Model is tested and the conclusions suggest a similarity in the role formation and enactment, despite several differentiating points. Managerial and Academic implications are discussed.

Keywords: luxury role enactment, cross cultural studies

Purpose of the Research and underlying theory
The lack of trust in the future, the global economic turbulence and the social unrest, have had a psychological impact on luxury consumers, depicted in the smaller figures in luxury sales. Luxury brands are urged to reconsider their relationship with their customers and identify and strengthen the points of connection. But does that question not refer to the formation and enactment of the luxury brand consumer's role?

No studies have, to our knowledge, approached luxury consumption from a role theory perspective. A social psychology approach is suitable for a study, primarily based on the subjective meaning included in brands, and belongs to the wider field of consumer culture theory, which studies consumption choices and behaviors from a social and cultural perspective. It sees consumption as an interconnected system of commercially produced images, texts, and objects that certain groups use, when constructing practices, identities, and meanings, in their attempt to make collective sense of their environments and to orient their members’ experiences. Especially in today's post post-modern era, as Holt (2002) underlined, consumers desire brands which serve as a resource in their identity projects, providing them with original and relevant cultural materials. One of the key theoretical perspectives of consumer culture theory is symbolic interactionism, an approach to the study of human group life and conduct, which sees reality as a social and developed interaction with others (Blumer, 1969). According to it, people do not respond to reality directly. Instead they respond to their social understanding of reality.

Although many approaches to the study of socialization have been advocated and employed (Zigler & Child, 1969:451-68), the social learning orientation (Bandura, 1969) has been most fruitful in terms of theoretical and empirical findings. A person's behavior may be best understood as the expression of multiple social roles. A role is basically a cluster of social cues that guide and direct an individual's behavior in a given setting and involves the conduct associated with certain socially defined positions, rather than the particular individuals who occupy them.

When an individual decides to take up one of those roles and behave as expected from the behavioral protocol, he takes on a set of identities (Stryker, 1980). This means that identities are a conception that individuals hold for themselves and refer to what it means for them to be who they are. Within the identities, several categories of sources of identification can be traced, referring to how the individual defines him/herself within that identity. According to social identity theory, the self-concept is comprised of a personal identity encompassing idiosyncratic characteristics (e.g., traits) and a social identity encompassing salient group classifications (e.g., religious affiliation) (Ashforth & Mael, 1989) and a role identity encompassing the characteristics of the particular role. Any stable individual
difference can thus impact on the way an experience is lived.

Within the multitude of roles that people enact, norms and expected behaviors regarding consumption are learned since childhood through the socialization process (Moschis & Churchill 1978). The relationship between consumption and a person’s various identities has been extensively discussed in the context of consumer behavior (White & Argo 2009). Consumers consider their material possessions parts of themselves (Belk, 1988) and use brands and products that enable their enacting of their various social identities (Kleine, Kleine, and Kernan 1993). The link between consumption and consumers’ identities extends far and beyond material goods, as consumption activities can reinstate harmony to unsatisfying self-concepts (Schouten, 1991). Under this scope, this paper aims to examine, the how individual’s cross-nationally form and enact their luxury consumer’s role and their identity’s role in this process. The countries of analysis include a country with a long tradition to luxury (France), an emerging with an increasing income economy (India) and a country in crisis (Greece).

Conceptual Framework
Even though marketing-related studies acknowledge cross cultural consumer behaviors as understudied samples, not much is known on how this role is formed and enacted. There is still a gap in literature in assessing relations between values and personality constructs moderated by ethnic groups in a holistic and structural model. Hence, it is mandatory to keep up with an updated view on this specific segment of population to understand how it responds to advertising at the outset. Using role theory as a support theory, the luxury consumers’ role formation (expressed through brand experience) is modeled as the focal point of this study. Accordingly, the luxury consumers’ identity is constructed as antecedent (consisting of luxury values and personal traits), and role enactment (expressed through brand attachment) as its outcome. As aforementioned, an individual’s identity consists of a social, a personal and a role-part, which are in this case expressed through national cultural, human personality and luxury values, respectively. Finally, ethnicity is constructed as the model’s moderator to test the difference of strengths between the other constructs (See Picture 1).

Picture 1: Conceptual Framework

Given the need to understand the contemporary view on their role among luxury consumers, hypotheses are developed to first test the effect of the individual’s identity on role formation, and secondly the effect of experience towards role enactment. As past studies have shown a positive relation among these three constructs, the following hypotheses are formulated (See Picture 2):

H1: Luxury Consumers’ Identity will positively affect their brand experience
H2: Brand experience will positively affect brand attachment

Due to the differences of culture embedded in ethnic groups, it is postulated that the perception of the role formation and enactment of the French, Indian and Greek consumers will be different. Consequently, their brand experience and brand attachment will also be different. Therefore, the following hypotheses are formulated:

H3: Effects of luxury consumers' identity on brand experience will be significantly different among luxury consumers to ethnicity.

H4: Effects of brand experience on brand attachment will be significantly different among luxury consumers according to ethnicity.

Research Method
An online survey was designed to investigate the conceptual model. Personalized emails with a link to the survey were sent to professors from business schools in India, France and in Greece, respectively (data found from the palmes-of-excellence ratings). Those willing to assist in the research, passed it on to individuals who had bought at least one luxury product. The sample was recruited in a 8 month period (December 2014-July 2015). The study achieves a representative sample through the collection of questionnaires from a variety of cities. In July 2015, a total of 876 valid questionnaires had been collected.

To test the hypotheses, a structured questionnaire divided into three parts was applied; the first one focuses on values (individual and national ones) and traits (personality), the second one on brand experience and the third one on brand attachment. The study adapted existing measurement scales to derive the set of items (See Picture 3). All measures used a 5-point Likert-type response format, with strongly disagree and strongly agree as ends. Before handing out the questionnaire, it was submitted to three academics and experts of the field for content validity. A pilot test was also run among 50 consumers to reassure that there were no misinterpretations or misunderstandings of the terms included.
Structural equation modeling (SEM) allows concurrent modeling of relationships among multiple independent and dependent constructs (Gefen, Straub, and Boudreau, 2000). There are two approaches to estimate SEM parameters, namely the covariance-based approach and the variance or component-based approach (Haenlein & Kaplan, 2004). Partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLSSEM), which uses a variance-based approach, is increasingly being adopted in various research disciplines, including Marketing, in recent years (Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, and Mena, 2012). The software SmartPLS 2.0 was used to run a path modeling analysis and subsequently a multi-group analysis (MGA) (Ringle, Wende, and Will, 2005).

**Results**

All constructs in the overall model satisfy the requirements for composite reliability (CR) and Cronbach alpha greater than 0.70. Acceptable convergent validity and discriminant validity, whereby each loading is greater than 0.50, average variance extracted (AVE) is greater than 0.50 and square root of AVE is greater than each correlation coefficient, are all achieved, as shown in Table 1 and Table 2 (Hair et al., 2011).

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**Results**

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Table 1: Overall discriminant validity

**Results**

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Table 1: Overall discriminant validity
In order to perform MGA according to ethnicity in a later stage, convergent validity and discriminant validity for each ethnic group were also tested to ensure the consistency and rigor of the measuring instrument. Table 3 and 4 show that the criteria pertaining to AVE and CR are met. Although the Cronbach alpha value for attitude of the Greek group is below 0.70, the construct is retained due to acceptable AVE and CR values.

Table 1: Overall convergent validity

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Table 3: Convergent validity by ethnicity

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Table 4: Discriminant validity by ethnicity
For the structural model, bootstrapping was used to determine whether path relationships for overall and ethnicity-based models are significant or not. Bootstrap sub-samples with 5,000 cases were created to allow the procedure to estimate the model for each subsample (Hair et al., 2011). The t-values for each path relationship and decision to hypothetical testing are shown in Table 5.

Given the parameters of PLS-SEM, a blindfolding procedure was performed to assess the predictive capability of the model. Cross-validated redundancy (Q2) estimates latent construct; therefore, it is the sole interest in this study. The Q2 result higher than 0 indicates that there is a predictive relevance in overall and ethnicity-based models (Fornell & Cha, 1994). R squared (R2) values for attitude and intention are found to be substantial and moderate, respectively (Cohen, 1988).

Findings for the models are shown in Table 6.

To rigorously compare the results across three ethnic groups, t-statistics were calculated to evaluate the differences in path coefficients across models. A procedure described by Chin, Marcolin and Newsted (2003), as shown in Figure 1, was used to perform MGA. As there are three ethnic groups, three separate comparisons were tested in the analysis.

Table 7 shows the comparison between French and Indian consumers and t-value results. Only the effect of conscientiousness on brand experience is found to be significantly different. Table 8 shows the comparison between French and Greek consumers and t-value results. Only the effect of extraversion on brand experience is found to be significantly different.

### Table 5: Path coefficients

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<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Path Relationship</th>
<th>Beta Value</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Decision</th>
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Table 5: Path coefficients
Table 6: R² and Cross validated redundancy

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Figure 1: Formula for multi-group analysis

\[ t = \frac{Path_{group_1} - Path_{group_2}}{\sqrt{\frac{(m-1)^2}{m+n-2} \cdot S.E.2_{group1} + \frac{(n-1)^2}{m+n-2} \cdot S.E.2_{group2}}} \] * \( \sqrt{\frac{1}{m+n}} \)

Table 7: Multi-group comparison between French and Indian consumers

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<th>Indian Beta</th>
<th>Indian Std. Error</th>
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Table 8: Multi-group comparison between French and Greek consumers

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<tr>
<td>SDV vs. BE</td>
<td>0.304</td>
<td>0.134</td>
<td>0.146</td>
<td>0.105</td>
<td>0.946</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OD vs. BE</td>
<td>-0.013</td>
<td>0.116</td>
<td>0.132</td>
<td>0.099</td>
<td>0.595</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EV vs. BE</td>
<td>0.202</td>
<td>0.104</td>
<td>0.275</td>
<td>0.093</td>
<td>0.524</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UV vs. BE</td>
<td>0.292</td>
<td>0.107</td>
<td>0.293</td>
<td>0.121</td>
<td>0.201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXT vs. BE</td>
<td>-0.099</td>
<td>0.124</td>
<td>0.307</td>
<td>0.131</td>
<td>2.175**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CON vs. BE</td>
<td>0.073</td>
<td>0.134</td>
<td>0.035</td>
<td>0.089</td>
<td>0.246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OP vs. BE</td>
<td>0.039</td>
<td>0.117</td>
<td>-0.046</td>
<td>0.010</td>
<td>0.553</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BE vs. BA</td>
<td>0.435</td>
<td>0.111</td>
<td>0.477</td>
<td>0.078</td>
<td>0.320</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9: Multi-group comparison between Greek and Indian consumers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relationship</th>
<th>Greek Beta</th>
<th>Greek Std. Error</th>
<th>Indian Beta</th>
<th>Indian Std. Error</th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SDV vs. BE</td>
<td>0.402</td>
<td>0.089</td>
<td>0.146</td>
<td>0.095</td>
<td>1.860**</td>
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<tr>
<td>OD vs. BE</td>
<td>-0.011</td>
<td>0.089</td>
<td>0.132</td>
<td>0.093</td>
<td>0.589</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EV vs. BE</td>
<td>0.195</td>
<td>0.100</td>
<td>0.275</td>
<td>0.093</td>
<td>0.589</td>
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<tr>
<td>UV vs. BE</td>
<td>0.166</td>
<td>0.101</td>
<td>0.293</td>
<td>0.121</td>
<td>0.806</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXT vs. BE</td>
<td>-0.120</td>
<td>0.100</td>
<td>0.307</td>
<td>0.131</td>
<td>2.587***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CON vs. BE</td>
<td>0.394</td>
<td>0.078</td>
<td>0.307</td>
<td>0.085</td>
<td>3.037***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OP vs. BE</td>
<td>-0.030</td>
<td>0.092</td>
<td>-0.046</td>
<td>0.108</td>
<td>0.113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BE vs. BA</td>
<td>0.361</td>
<td>0.080</td>
<td>0.477</td>
<td>0.078</td>
<td>1.043</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Discussion & Implications

Merging the personal, social and role identity of the luxury consumer, this research focuses on the role of luxury values, personality and national culture on brand experience. The study is a first-of-its-kind research focusing on luxury value perceptions in a cross-national context through the identity perspective. The choice of countries (i.e. France, India and Greece) provides a unique dimension to compare the luxury value perceptions in individualist and a collectivist cultural context. Overall, the findings demonstrate the centrality of value perceptions in influencing consumer purchase intentions regarding luxury goods. However, considerable cross-national variations exist, which offer important theoretical insights and strategic implications for managers in developing global luxury brand strategy which is also sensitive to local differences.

The initial findings have shown a link between identity, brand experience and brand attachment among luxury consumers in a holistic manner. Brand attachment is found to be significantly predicted by brand experience, and such experience is also significantly predicted by identity. However, not all elements if identity are found to have a significant effect on experience. From seven factors, the overall model indicates that only self directed symbolic values, experiential values, utilitarian values and conscientiousness are found to be significant antecedents to experience. This relates well to their concern about the skepticism towards luxury consumption. When the overall model is divided into three models based on ethnicity, the findings are generally the same, but they provide more details. Self directed symbolic values, experiential values and utilitarian values are shown to be consistent predictors of brand experience across ethnic groups. Nevertheless, conscientiousness only appears in Indian consumers as an added determinant of experience. It is therefore evident that, despite being largely similar in their luxury roles, Indian and Greek consumers’ role can be predicted by additional identity factors. Hence, it is necessary to look at the findings of the latter stage.

This study supports the results that similarities among identities are increasing for luxury consumers, rendering to a more homogenous target group for marketers. Despite the fact that certain traits, differ the process of role formation and enactment presents many similarities. Culture has an influential role in forming and bringing change in attitude and behavior. It provides insights into the rationale as to what drives people to behave and why. Hence, understanding ethnic identities and their respective cultural values continues to be a key to success of social marketing programs. However, the dynamism and complexity of the society has directed people towards more exposure and interaction. This may well harbor or expedite the process of acculturation as individuals begin to learn and adopt cultural values and practices from one another. As such, it is imperative for managers and marketing departments to monitor and apprehend what sets ethnic groups apart and what integrates them before approaching them to ensure a favorable response.

References

Session A4: Social Media and Branding

A Picture is Worth a Thousand Words: Understanding Consumer Interaction in Instagram Brand Community
Luis V. Casalóa, Carlos Flavián and Sergio Ibáñez

The Antecedents and Consequences of the Corporate Websites Favourability in the Context of Banking Industry in the United Kingdom and Russia
Elena Ageeva, TC Melewar and Pantea Foroudi

Achieving Stronger Brand Equity Through Enhancing Word-of-Mouth Via Online University Corporate Brand Identity
Sidrah Mahboob, Sharifah Faridah Syed Alwi and Dorothy Yen
A Picture is Worth a Thousand Words: Understanding Consumer Interaction in Instagram Brand Community

Luis V. Casaló, Carlos Flavián and Sergio Ibáñez

Abstract
Consumers are increasingly using social media to get information about brands and interact with fellow consumers with similar interests. Among the several social networking sites (SNS) available nowadays, Instagram is experiencing a steady increase in the amount of active users. As a result, Instagram adoption is continuously growing among top brands (Shively, 2015), which motivate the development of brand communities in Instagram. Previous research has focused on the analysis of brand communities in more traditional SNS such as Facebook (Hassan, 2014), but the relevance of Instagram seems to be greater as the amount of interactions with brands (as a percentage of followers) is much higher in Instagram than in other SNS (Elliot, 2014). Therefore, there is both a managerial and an academic need to better understand consumers’ interactions in Instagram.

To move on this topic, this study is designed to identify some of the factors that influence consumer interaction intentions and actual behaviors (i.e. like, share and comment) in a brand’s official Instagram account. Due to the specific characteristics of Instagram, which provides a place for visual storytelling for everyone with a creative desire, this study considers hedonism as a relevant factor that may influence consumer interaction. Hedonism is associated with a cool, fun and exciting experience (Chen and Wells, 1999) that may result in enjoyment. Indeed, social media serves, among others, as a way to escape from boredom, to pass time, or to relax (Lee and Ma, 2012). Therefore, perceived hedonism in Instagram may produce a positive reaction (satisfaction) and affect consumer interaction intentions. In addition, satisfaction may also be a crucial variable affecting consumer interaction in Instagram, as satisfaction is the result from a global evaluation of all the aspects that exist in a relationship (Anderson and Sullivan, 1993). If a consumer is satisfied with an Instagram account, he or she will be prompted to continue following this page as perceptions are higher than expectations. Finally, we consider that consumer interaction intentions will positively affect behavior as traditionally noted in previous research (e.g. Ajzen, 1991). As a result, this work proposes the following hypotheses:

H1: Perceived hedonism in an Instagram account has a positive effect on user satisfaction.

H2: Perceived hedonism in an Instagram account has a positive effect on user intention to interact in that Instagram account.

H3: Satisfaction with an Instagram account has a positive effect on user intention to interact in that Instagram account.

H4: User intention to interact in an Instagram account has a positive effect on user interaction behaviors in that Instagram account.

Data to test these hypotheses was collected from a brand’s official Instagram account focused on fashion with more than 30,000 followers, who were invited to participate in the research. Specifically, 459 participants firstly answered a questionnaire including multiple-item measurement scales adapted from previous literature regarding perceived hedonism (Nambisan and Baron, 2007), satisfaction and interaction intentions (Casaló et al., 2010). These scales used seven-point Likert-type response formats, which respondents rated from 1 (“strongly disagree”) to 7 (“strongly agree”). Secondly, one month later, we measure the number of publication likes, comments and shares done by participants in the brand’s official Instagram account. To confirm the dimensional structure of the scales, we use confirmatory factor analysis, obtained through the statistical
software EQS v.6.1 and with robust maximum likelihood as an estimation method. Convergent validity is assured since factor loadings of the confirmatory model are statistically significant (level of .01) and greater than .5 points. As well, discriminant validity was tested by checking that the square root of the average variance extracted is higher than correlations among constructs.

To test the hypotheses, we develop a structural equation model that gives support to our four hypotheses and achieves acceptable values of model fit ($c^2 = 81.775$, 40 d.f., $p < .01$; NFI = .962; NNFI = .979; CFI = .985; IFI = .985; RMSEA = .037; 90% confidence interval of RMSEA (.020; .053); normed $c^2$ (df/d.f.) = 2.044). Specifically, perceived hedonism positively affects satisfaction ($\gamma = .724$, $p < .01$) and interaction intentions ($\gamma = .142$, $p < .05$). Similarly, satisfaction has a positive effect on interaction intentions ($\beta = .795$, $p < .01$), which in turn positively affects consumer interaction behaviors ($\beta = .157$, $p < .01$) in that Instagram account (that is, the number of likes, shares and comments).

Finally, rival model analyses confirm that consumer intentions mediate the effect of both perceived hedonism and satisfaction on consumer interaction behaviors. In sum, this work confirms the relevance that perceived hedonism has on Instagram, as it is the key to activate a satisfaction-intention-behavior chain that may help increase the number of consumers’ interactions in a brand’s official Instagram account in terms of publications likes, shares and comments. Instagram may inspire consumers to see a business differently thanks to visual language (through pictures and videos), and hedonism is crucial in this creative context.

These results offer interesting implications for both theory and management. Theoretically, this work confirms the relevance that perceived hedonism has on Instagram, as it is the key to activate a satisfaction-intention-behavior chain that may help increase the number of consumers’ interactions in a brand’s official Instagram account in terms of publications likes, shares and comments. Instagram may inspire consumers to see a business differently thanks to visual language (through pictures and videos), and hedonism is crucial in this context. Practically, our results suggest that the contents published by brands on Instagram should be funny and pleasant in order to help their consumers have a hedonic experience by spending some enjoyable and relaxing time. In this respect, we strongly recommend to: (1) generate new content frequently (so that consumers will not be bored looking at the same pictures anytime they access the account), and (2) be creative (e.g. by using double sense, creating new and attractive hashtags, including a great emotional load, mixing fantasy and reality, etc.) since this must be crucial to help the brand’s official Instagram account stand out from the mainstream. In sum, brands must try to capture what makes their consumer smile and what they are passionate about.

**Keywords:** Instagram, consumer interaction, hedonism, brand community, social media

**References**


The Antecedents and Consequences of the Corporate Website Favourability in the Context of Banking Industry in the United Kingdom and Russia

Elena Ageeva, TC Melewar and Pantea Foroudi

Abstract
The purpose of the present study is to investigate the features of corporate website favourability, explore its antecedents and consequences in the banking sector in UK and Russia. This study aims to explore consumers’ perceptions and practices surrounding the favourable corporate website and the main features influencing the suitability of favourable corporate websites at the consumer level. Given the aim of this research, its two underlying questions are: what is the impact of the specific antecedents of corporate websites favourability on corporate image, corporate reputation, identification and loyalty? What are the main favourable influences of corporate websites favourability on corporate image, corporate reputation, identification and loyalty. By addressing these questions, this investigation is expected to be of value in advancing current knowledge by offering a threefold theoretical contribution to the literature as a theoretical extension of the level of conceptualisation and measurement. Furthermore, it is hoped that this investigation will make a considerable managerial contribution to the understanding of decision-makers and graphic designers about the whole relationship between corporate website favourability, its antecedents and its main consequences.

Keywords: corporate website favourability, corporate identity management, corporate communication, corporate image

Introduction
The advances in Internet technology are the biggest distributed forceful source of information, which has experienced vast growth since it’s beginning. Therefore, the Internet has gained a vital role in many parts of our lives and has changed the expectations and patterns of web users, and transformed the way businesses attract consumers and retain existing customers (Lin, 2013). Companies struggle to acquire relationships with their customers; in fact, in this new marketplace good service is no longer enough to effectively differentiate companies in competitiveness (Berry et al., 2002; MacMillan and McGrath, 1997; Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004; Schembri, 2006). Thus this forms a great need for corporates to design favourable websites in order to maintain competitive (Beatty et al., 2001; Birchfield, 2003; Cyr, 2008; Lin, 2013; Tarafdar and Zhang, 2008). Favourable corporate website is a way for companies to reveal their corporate identities (Abdullah et al., 2013; Bravo et al., 2012; Olins, 1989), a crucial element of the corporate identity management (Opoku et al., 2006), an instrument to reflect a corporate image to signal its uniqueness (AbuGhazaleh et al., 2012), an indication for a company’s corporate reputation (Argyriou et al., 2006), an instrument to bring the confidence to users and enhance identification (Wang et al., 2006), and consequently a major determinant for constructing online loyalty (Kabadayi and Gupta, 2011).

When planning the website corporations have many design concerns (Lin, 2013), thus companies should learn how to make an effective website to satisfy the expectations of the customers (Scheffelmaier and Vinsonhaler, 2002). The effectiveness and quality of the website is most significant since, for some companies, it characterises the dominant or even the only interface with the customers (Palmer and Griffith, 1998). The interest in corporate website has increased at a phenomenal rate (Gardner, 2008; Hendricks, 2007; Ranganathan, and Ganapathy, 2002; Scheffelmaier and Vinsonhaler, 2002; Shchiglik and Barnes, 1998). However, despite the significant and positive view of the favourable corporate website, limited empirical research to capture the true meaning of the concept has been carried out.
in this area (Cox and Emmott, 2007; Hendricks, 2007; Lombard and Hite, 2007; Tarafdar and Zhang, 2008; Taylor et al., 2002). Furthermore, too little study has been made of the relationship between the favourable corporate website, its dimensions, antecedents and consequences (Cox and Emmott, 2007; Hendricks, 2007; Lombard and Hite, 2007; Taylor et al., 2002). From this point, one purpose of the present study will be to investigate the notion of corporate website favourability, in particular in banking industry in UK and Russia, due to the dramatic increase of interest in services from academics and practitioners in today’s global economy. The other is to examine the antecedents and consequences of the under-researched construct of corporate website favourability, with particular reference to corporate image, corporate reputation, identification and loyalty.

Literature Review
The major European global companies communicate their corporate identity across countries via their corporate websites (Halliburton and Ziegfeld, 2009). Website of the company is designed to represent the ambitions and values of the organisation and its business, playing an essential part an organisation’s presentation of itself to inside and outside stakeholders (Van den Bosch et al., 2006). The creation and maintenance of a favourable website is an essential strategy for company success in the marketplace (Kim et al., 2001; Palmer, 2002; Tarafdar and Zhang, 2008). A corporate website, projects corporate identity (Topalian, 2003, Abdullah et al., 2013; Booth and Matic, 2011; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Pollach, 2005; Topalian, 2003), which is “the visual manifestation of the company’s reality” (Argenti, 2007, p. 66) that is revealed through the organisation’s website, motto, name, and other tangible matters. Opoku et al. (2006) concluded that “websites are an important element of corporate identity management in today’s competitive environment” (p.20).

Favourability represents consumer’s positive attitude towards the company (Suh and Amine, 2007) and is related to audience’s taste (Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001). The favourability of a corporate website appeals as the extent to which consumers positively regard the corporate website. Corporate website, as a channel of corporate communication, are powerful tool to project corporate identity (Abdullah et al., 2013; Booth and Matic, 2011; Pollach, 2005; Topalian, 2003). Alhudaithy and Kitchen (2009, p. 58) noted that ‘websites offer the opportunity for marketers to utilize a wide assortment of cues such as colours, images and sounds to attract consumers’ attention and generate favourable attitudes’. Corporate website enables a company to build an image of itself in the consumer’s mind (Tarafdar and Zhang, 2008). An enduring, favourable corporate image ensures a favourable reputation and develops a positive attitude in stakeholders towards the organisation (Balmer and Wilson, 1998; Carter, 1982; Van Riel, 1995; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). Therefore researcher constructed definition based on literature review: corporate website favourability is the extent to which company projects its corporate identity through corporate website, as a primary vehicle of corporate visual identity (Abdullah et al., 2013; Booth and Matic, 2011; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Pollach, 2005; Topalian, 2003), to gain positive attitudes from the consumers, by transmitting consistent images and messages about the nature of organisation to a company’s audience that enables a company to build positive image of itself in the consumer’s mind (Alhudaithy and Kitchen, 2009; Ahern-Connolly and Broadway, 2007; Braddy et al., 2008; Shin and Huh, 2009; Pollach, 2005; Winter et al., 2003).

Conceptual Model
The literature review for this research has resulted in the creation of a conceptual framework which begins with a set of factors as antecedents to corporate website favourability and simultaneously illustrates their outcomes. Constructs that are considered in this study: Navigation, Visual, Information, Usability, Customisation, Security, Availability, Website Credibility, Customer Service, Corporate Social
Responsibility, Perceived Corporate Culture, Corporate Website Favourability, Corporate Image, Corporate Reputation, Identification and Loyalty, Satisfaction, Attractiveness. The antecedents to corporate website favourability are the factors which predict, foster or weaken the perception of corporate website during consumption. The antecedents in this study are: Navigation, Visual, Information, Usability, Customisation, Security, Availability, Website Credibility, Customer Service, Corporate Social Responsibility, Perceived Corporate Culture, Corporate Website Favourability. The consequences in this study are: Corporate Image, Corporate Reputation, Identification and Loyalty. The mediators are Satisfaction and Attractiveness. The constructs definitions are presented in the Table 1, the conceptual model is illustrated in Figure 1 and hypothesis are shown in Table 2.

Table 1: The main constructs and their definitions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Definitions</th>
<th>Major references</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corporate website favourability</td>
<td>Corporate website favourability is the extent to which company project their corporate identity through corporate website, as a primary vehicle of corporate visual identity, to gain positive attitudes from the consumers, by transmitting consistent images and messages about the nature of organisation to a company’s audience that enables a company to build positive image of itself in the consumer’s mind.</td>
<td>Abdullah et al. (2013); Ahern-Connolly and Broadway (2007); Booth and Matic (2011); Braddy et al. (2008); Chen and Wells (1999); Dou et al. (2002); Galewood et al. (1993); Haliburto and Ziegfeld (2009); Hamill (1997); Melewar and Karaosmanoglu (2006); Pollach (2005, 2011); Shin and Huh (2009); Tarafdar and Zhang (2008); Winter et al., (2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Navigation</td>
<td>Navigation is the extent to which users can navigate the website and represents those characteristics that help users navigate the website better.</td>
<td>Cyr (2008); Cyr and Head (2013); Ganguly et al. (2010); Gefen et al. (2000); Keeney (1999); Kumar Roy et al. (2014); Tarafdar and Zhang, (2005, 2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual</td>
<td>Visual elements of the website consist of graphic design’ and ‘structure design that creates the overall look and feel of the website to provide the companies with dimension of difference.</td>
<td>Cyr (2008); Cyr and Head (2013); Ganguly et al. (2009); Melewar et al. (2001); Wang and Emurian (2005); Foroudi et al. (2014); Garrett (2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information</td>
<td>Information on the website referrers to the quality of the content, the way it is arranged and how relevant it is to the purpose of the website.</td>
<td>Cyr (2008); Cyr and Head (2013); Ganguly et al. (2009); Bruce (1998); Tarafdar and Zhang, (2005,2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usability</td>
<td>Usability refers to the effort required to use the website, with which the user is capable of learning to manage the system with ease.</td>
<td>Casalo et al. (2008); Davis (1989); Flavia’n et al. (2006); Nielsen (1994); Tarafdar and Zhang (2005, 2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customisation</td>
<td>Customisation is the ability of a website to tailor products, services, and the transactional environment to individual customers.</td>
<td>Fan et al. (2013); Kabadayi and Gupta (2011); Srinivasan et al. (2002); Tarafdar and Zhang (2005, 2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security</td>
<td>Security refers to the degree to which the website can be perceived as safe and has the necessary provisions for executing secure transactions .</td>
<td>Devaraj et al. (2002); Koufaris, and Sosa (2004); McKnight et al. (2002); Tarafdar and Zhang (2005, 2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability</td>
<td>Availability is the correct technical performance of the website.</td>
<td>Alwi and Ismail (2013); Parasuraman et al. (2005); Tarafdar and Zhnag (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Website Credibility</td>
<td>Website credibility is the degree to which consumers believe in the website expertise and trustworthiness.</td>
<td>Goldsmith et al. (2000); Lowery and DeFleur (1995); Metzger et al. (2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer Service</td>
<td>Customer service is the degree of how efficient, helpful and willing service is provided to the consumers.</td>
<td>Kaynama and Black, (2000); Wolfinbarger and Gilly (2003); Xie, et al. (1998); Parasuraman, et al. (1991)</td>
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<td>-----------------------</td>
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<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)</td>
<td>Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) is the consumers’ perceptions of corporate environmental responsibility, that includes the social involvement, responsiveness, and accountability of companies, and consumers’ expectations of corporations.</td>
<td>Chaple and Moon, (2005); Klein and Dawar (2004); Glavas and Kelley (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Corporate Culture</td>
<td>Perceived corporate culture is the consumers perceptions about the companies’ values, beliefs and behavior running and resulting from corporate identity.</td>
<td>Deshpande and Webster (1989); Melewar (2003); Ravasi and Schultz (2006); Cui and Hu (2012)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate Image</td>
<td>Corporate image is the overall immediate impression left on the minds of customer in comparison to its competitors and represents an asset which allows companies to differentiate and increase the chances of success.</td>
<td>Balmer et al. (2011); Bravo et al. (2009); Gray and Balmer (1998); Karaošmanoğlu et al. (2011); Mazursky and Jacoby (1986); Richard and Zhang (2012); Williams and Moffit (1997); Zimmer and Golden (1988); Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate Reputation</td>
<td>Corporate reputation concerns judgment that results from the reception of direct and indirect experiences and information of a company over time.</td>
<td>Alesandry (2001); Fombrun and Shanley (1990); Ruth and York (2004); Gray and Balmer (1998); Gotsi and Wilson (2001); Herbí and Milewicz (1994); Markwick and Fill (1997); Yoon et al. (1993); Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identification</td>
<td>Consumer identification represents the strong social relationships between the consumer and the company, such that consumers perceive themselves by the same attributes that they believe define the company.</td>
<td>Bhattacharya and Sen (2003); Dutton et al. (1994); Einwiller et al. (2006); Homburg et al. (2009); Knight and Haslam (2010); Marin et al. (2012); Rooney et al. (2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loyalty</td>
<td>Loyalty is the consumer’s psychological attachment and intention to continue doing business with the company, expressed over time, where several alternatives are available.</td>
<td>Bergeron (2001); Gefen (2002); Jacoby and Kyner (1973); Liang et al. (2008); Zeithaml et al. (1996)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attractiveness</td>
<td>Attractiveness is how exciting, attracting, appealing, fun and subjectively pleasing the company is in the mind of consumers.</td>
<td>Alwi and Ismail (2013); Cao et al. (2005); Tractinsky et al (2006)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>Satisfaction- customers’ evaluations of a product or service with regard to their needs and expectations.</td>
<td>Anderson and Sullivan (1993); Flavian et al (2006); Law and Bai (2008); Oliver (1980)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 1. Framework

Table 2. Hypothesis

| RQ: What is the impact of specific antecedents of corporate website favourability on corporate image, corporate reputation, identification and loyalty? |
| Question 1: What are the factors that contribute to corporate website favourability? |
| **H1** | The more favourably the navigation is perceived by consumers, the more favourable the attitude consumers have towards the favourability of the corporate website. |
| **H2** | The more favourably the visual is perceived by consumers, the more favourable the attitude consumers have towards the favourability of the corporate website. |
| **H3** | The more favourably the information is perceived by consumers, the more favourable the attitude consumers have towards the favourability of the corporate website. |
| **H4** | The more favourably the usability is perceived by consumers, the more favourable the attitude consumers have towards the favourability of the corporate website. |
| **H5** | The more favourably the customisation is perceived by consumers, the more favourable the attitude consumers have towards the favourability of the corporate website. |
| **H6** | The more favourably the security is perceived by consumers, the more favourable the attitude consumers have towards the favourability of the corporate website. |
| **H7** | The more favourably the availability is perceived by consumers, the more favourable the attitude consumers have towards the favourability of the corporate website. |
| **H8** | The more favourably the website credibility is perceived by consumers, the more favourable the attitude consumers have towards the favourability of the corporate website. |
| **H9** | The more favourably the customer service is perceived by consumers, the more favourable the attitude consumers have towards the favourability of the corporate website. |
| **H10** | The more favourably the corporate social responsibility is perceived by consumers, the more favourable the attitude consumers have towards the favourability of the corporate website. |
| **H11** | The more favourably the corporate culture is perceived by consumers, the more favourable the attitude consumers have towards the favourability of the corporate website. |

Question 2: What are the main influences of corporate website favourability on corporate image, corporate reputation, identification and loyalty?

| **H12** | The more favourable the attitude that consumers have towards a company’s corporate website favourability, the more favourable the image of the company among consumers. |
Proposed Methodology
This study adopts a mixed-method research design. To reach the goals of this research, the two paradigms of positivism and idealism, whose popularity has grown in marketing studies in the past decade, will be embodied in two ways, first ‘qualitative’ and then ‘quantitative’. The first stage uses a qualitative method as the more appropriate, because of the present lack of understanding of ‘corporate website favourability’ and its relationship to favourable corporate image, corporate reputation, identification and loyalty. For this reason, this study adopts Churchill’s qualitative paradigm (1979). In addition, following a review of the literature and having examined the instrument design and scale validity, in-depth interviews will be carried out with key informants (i.e., communication managers and decision makers), coupled with focus group discussions with employees and consumers (users) in UK and in Russia. According to Deshpande (1983), qualitative methods should combine with quantitative methods to examine a domain that is unknown or has received relatively little attention to date. Therefore, quantitative methods will be preferred for the second stage of the present study. In the second stage a positivist paradigm (using the quantitative method) will be used to examine the proposed hypotheses and their causal relationships, together with validation of the scales. A self-administered questionnaire to measure each of the constructs of the study will be established on the basis of the literature reviewed and of the qualitative research, to quantify, supplement and enhance the first stage. The scales will be purified on the basis of the qualitative and quantitative evaluation of the research survey. In this stage, before conducting the main survey this study uses two types of validity: face validity and content validity. After its items are revised, the questionnaire will be distributed among the employees and students to evaluate its validity and reliability and ensure that the “measures are free from error and will therefore yield consistent results” (Peter, 1979, p. 6). After a pilot study (pre-test), a self-administered questionnaire will be distributed to gauge consumers’ perceptions of the impact on its corporate image, corporate reputation, identification and loyalty of the corporate website favourability of HSBC Plc in UK and Sberbank in Russia. According to the Ahearne et al. (2005), Bhattacharya et al. (1995), Bhattacharya and Elshbach, (2002), Elshbach and Bhattacharya (2001), specific company need to be accessed. The questionnaire will be designed to measure the research constructs. The subjects of the research will be asked to indicate the degree of their agreement with each item on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from (1) ‘strongly disagree’, to (7) ‘strongly agree’. Parts of the questionnaire will be taken from former valid

| H13 | The more favourable the attitude that consumers have towards a company’s corporate image, the more favourable the reputation of the company among consumers. |
| H14 | The more favourable the attitude that consumers have towards a company’s corporate reputation, the more they identify themselves with that company. |
| H15 | The more consumers identify themselves with the company, the more they loyal with that company. |
| H16 | The more favourable the attitudes that consumers have towards a company’s corporate website favourability, the more satisfied consumers are towards the company. |
| H17 | The more satisfied the consumers are towards a company’s corporate website favourability, the more favourable the image of the company among consumers. |
| H18 | The more favourable the attitudes that consumers have towards corporate website favourability, the more consumers are attracted towards the company. |
| H19 | The more consumers are attracted towards the company website favourability, the more favourable the image of the company among consumers. |
questionnaires and other parts extracted from the qualitative study.

This research examines the perceptions of HSBC consumers in the UK and Sberbank consumers in Russia. The context of the study in HSBC in UK and Sberbank in Russia were chosen for the following reasons: 1) there is a vast increase in the internet usage in whole world, thus many consumers perceive the companies through their websites; 2) banks are efficient users of online technology due to intangible, informative nature of banking (Alsajjan and Denies, 2010, p.957). 2) only few studies focused on website dimensions in non-western countries (e.g. Alsajjan and Denies, 2010; Cyr et al., 2008; Fan et al., 2013) and majority of research focuses on consumers in western countries (Alsajjan and Denies, 2010); 3) non-western countries had little research attention, however they can greatly benefit from the research in Internet and IS (Alsajjan and Denies, 2010; Moon and Kim, 2001; Fusilier and Durlabhji, 2005). The discussion above points out the fact that the study of favourable corporate website is overdue in Western and non-Western settings for those who need a fuller understanding of how to construct favourable corporate website that leads to favourable corporate image, reputation, consumer identification and loyalty. This study, therefore, seeks to shed light on antecedents and consequences of corporate website favourability in Western and non-Western setting and specifically focuses on elements of favourable corporate website. Since conducting a research in all the Western and non-Western setting can be a challenge, UK, as one of the top 5th largest advanced economies by nominal GDP in 2014 (IMF 2014) was chosen to represent Western countries and Russia, as one of the top 5 developing economy according to GDP in 2014 (IMF 2014), was selected to represent non-Western countries. Although the characteristics of non-Western countries are relatively different, Russian is obviously different from the Western countries. Besides, there are similarities between Russia and other non-Western countries. Therefore, Russia could in fact represent emerging markets in a non-Western context and UK developed markets in Western context.

HSBC Plc. in UK was chosen based on Brand Finance research in 2014, HSBC is the third most valuable brand in the UK. HSBC Bank Plc. in Uk is the number one global brand within the banking industry, according to BrandFinance Global Finance 500(100). In the middle of the global financial crisis, HSBC was one of the few firms to report a profit for 2009. Since the financial crisis, HSBC has held a strong position and is rated 32nd for strategic assets of value in Best Global Brands (2013) by Interbrand and is one of the largest UK-based global companies in the world. In Russia, Sberbank was chosen based on Brand Finance Global Banking 500(100) ranking in 2014, where it is the strongest Russian brand in the world and is the 17 in the globe. Robust growth in the banking industry over the last decade, has widened the scope of banking services in Russia. According to the Sberbank’ website in 2014: 1) the Russian banking system is dominated by the Sberbank, which accounts for 26% of the industry; 2) a new image of Sberbank is being formed as a modern, high-tech and customer-friendly company; 3) Sberbank has over 13 million active online banking users.

The survey will be applied to individuals who live or study in the UK and in Russia. Descriptive statistics for the UK and Russian samples will be derived by employing the statistical package for social science (SPSS). Following Churchill’s recommendations (1979), exploratory factor analysis (EFA), a fundamental technique, and coefficient alpha will be used in the early stages of this research for scale validity (Aaker, 1997) to help reduce the numbers of observed research indicators (Hair et al., 1998). Structural equation modelling (SEM) using Analysis of Moment Structure (AMOS) will be implemented in order to test the measurement model and the hypotheses of the research.
Conclusion
This study makes a number of contributions, it contributes to the literature on corporate websites by clarifying the concept of corporate website favourability, in addition to specifying its antecedents and consequences. As well as this study concerns with the examination of a favourable corporate website construct within the context of the banking industry in UK and Russia. It also develops a research model which clarifies the relationships between the construction of corporate website favourability, its antecedents and its consequences. The study stream on corporate websites has not yet reached agreement about what a favourable corporate website is; (Gardner, 2008; Hendricks, 2007; Ranganathan and Ganapathy, 2002; Scheffelmaier and Vinsonhaler, 2002; Shchiglik and Barnes, 1998). A few research have been completed in various contexts (Cox and Emmott, 2007; Hendricks, 2007; Lombard and Hite, 2007; Tarafdar and Zhang, 2008; Taylor et al., 2002). In addition, it’s also adds to the current state of knowledge in marketing research to establish the dimensions of a corporate website favourability. Furthermore, it is hoped that this investigation will make a considerable managerial contribution to the understanding of decision-makers and graphic designers about the whole relationship between favourable corporate website, its antecedents and its main consequences. A clear understanding of the nature of the relevant concepts can help managers and designers to devise favourable corporate websites, which are likely to advance a favourable corporate image, corporate reputation, identification and loyalty.

References


Achieving Stronger Brand Equity through Enhancing Word-of-Mouth via Online University Corporate Brand Identity

Sidrah Mahboob, Sharifah Faridah Syed Alwi and Dorothy Yen

Abstract
This paper focuses on developing online corporate brand identity to achieve stronger brand equity through increased word of mouth (WOM) recommendation. Whilst traditional communication is aimed at more integrated marketing communication (IMC) with single stakeholder namely the customers, and addresses only product or service brand identity at a time, websites and social media platforms enable the organisation to address its corporate brand identity to a much larger audience and increases positive word of mouth recommendation more collectively or effectively altogether. This is even crucial at a highly competitive business/service related context such as higher education (HE) that has myriad of stakeholders to address. Previous work on this topic include: examining student’s perception of the university, marketing strategies of universities, or general overviews of corporate branding in universities (Binsardi and Ekwulugo 2003; Melewar and Akel 2005; Chapleo 2007; Bennet and Ali-Choudhury 2009). Although these studies provide a useful insight into understanding the role of corporate branding, and its multidimensional nature (Urde 2003) in universities, each study comments mainly on a single factor of the corporate brand process, the rational or emotional values, thus giving a partial view of corporate branding. For example the study by Melewar and Akel (2005) examined the corporate visual identity of a particular university which included changes to the logo, typography and colour. Binsardi and Ekulugo’s (2003) study looked at market opportunities and examined student’s perception of UK education. However corporate branding is an overall university level branding concept (Chapleo 2015b) and studies examining corporate branding often minimise corporate branding to a single dimension such as corporate personality (for example Davies and Chun 2002) (Anisimova 2007) yet it is widely recognised corporate branding merges thinking from organisational and marketing discourse (Knox and Bickerton 2003), but many studies focus on the marketing perspective. Consequently there remains subjectivity and limited applicability of the studies to other institutions and HE regions. This research will help address this gap between corporate branding and universities with regards to understanding corporate branding better as an institution-wide matter and its applicability in HE.

Introduction
Whilst traditional communication is aimed at more integrated marketing communication (IMC) with single stakeholder namely the customers, and addresses only product or service brand identity at a time, websites and social media platforms enable the organisation to address its corporate brand to larger audiences and increases positive WOM recommendation more collectively or effectively altogether. This is even crucial at a very highly competitive business/service related context such as the higher education (HE) that has myriad of stakeholders to address.

Despite the importance of branding adoption in universities widely discussed amongst both academics and practitioners as competition intensifies and branding becomes important for differentiation in the homogenous marketplace, there are limited common models applicable to higher education (Chapleo 2015b), particularly due to; brand
proliferation, internal resistance to the notion, media fragmentation, and greater scrutiny from consumers (Jevons 2006; Chapleo 2015a). Many of the models are market-based commercial models that are applied in universities which need ‘cultural adjustment’ hence they don’t wholly fit universities (Chapleo 2015b; 157) as there is a lack of a model which captures the essence of the university (Bulotaite 2003). Models such as Keller (2003) and LePla and Parker’s Integrated Brand Model (2002) highlight it is critical for the organisation to have a clear ‘brand principle’ however this may be difficult to express for university brands (Chapleo 2015b, 157; Hankinson, 2001).

Yet, corporate branding is crucial to be addressed within the HE context, not just its brand. Therefore, this study proposes that universities need a more integrated communication approach to address corporate branding to multiple stakeholders as this could increase brand differentiation and reaching target audiences more effectively through the university website as a communication tool. The objective of this paper thus is to examine developing online corporate brand identity (website) to achieve stronger brand equity through enhancing word-of-mouth recommendation of the university.

The remainder of this paper is organised as follows: firstly a brief literature review is presented exploring corporate branding in HE, online university corporate branding and WOM across multiple stakeholders. Next the methodology is described followed by results of the study. The discussion and conclusions are presented and finally the implications of the research.

Literature Review

Corporate Branding - Why do universities need to develop a corporate brand, not only manage their brand?

There is consensus among both academics and practitioners of the importance of branding as a source of sustained competitive advantage (De Chernatony and McDonald 2005) including in HE (Brunzel 2007) and as an effective use of resources (O’Cass and Voola 2011). Bennett and Ali-Choudhury (2009; 85-86) note a university brand is

‘a manifestation of the institution’s features that distinguish it from others, reflect its capacity to satisfy students’ needs, engender trust in its ability to deliver a certain type and level of higher education, and help potential recruits to make wise enrolment decisions’.

Branding is necessary and beneficial for universities in areas such as differentiation, creating awareness of course offerings and communicating the university’s strengths (Bennet and Ali-Choudhury 2009; Mighall 2009).

Fundamental changes in the HE market over the past 20 years have seen increased competition, consequently universities have adopted marketing practices including branding (Hemsley-Brown and Goonawardana 2007; Chapleo 2015b). Universities, due to their structure and additional organisational objectives (Stride and Lee 2007) do not inherently possess brands (Chapleo 2004) but by default take up such positions in a bid to offer distinctiveness otherwise risk losing out on recruiting students and staff, funding opportunities, and competing in national and global markets (Constantinides and Stagno 2012). Additionally it is noted branding maybe a solution to universities today as they continue to face an identity crisis (Chapleo 2011), which is driven by various political and market forces including: tuition fees, increased competition (Brunzel 2007; Hemsley-Brown and Oplatka 2006; Maringe 2006), changing behaviour of consumers, government influence, funding availability, influence of technology and the internet, and new entrants to HE marketplace (Edmiston-Strasser 2009).

Further, stakeholders including students as consumers of education have become more savvy and meticulous in their decision making and now need a stronger justification for
pursuing their education. This puts pressure on universities to be more innovative not only in their offering but also in their brand communication. Previously public sector branding including universities have relied on branding for differentiation in name, logo and design, mainly the visual identity part of branding and product offering. However most if not all UK universities now occupy the same position and have reached this stage of differentiation through tangible elements such as the name, logo, and product offering, hence there is little brand differentiation in UK HE (Chapleo 2005; 2015a). Today, few universities stand out in the marketplace with their product offering and services; hence universities must do more to ensure they remain competitive, distinctive and attractive to stakeholders, through communicating the corporate brand more effectively to stakeholders. One way to compete in the homogenous and competitive market today is for universities to adopt a corporate branding strategy (Whelan and Wohlfeil 2006) to differentiate particularly as products and services become similar whereas organisations are inevitably different (Aaker 2004) and to communicate the core values of the university.

Corporate branding ‘represents an opportunity for organizations to enhance and sustain their distinctiveness through linking corporate characteristics to products and services, thereby, allowing unique synergies to be developed’ (Anisimova 2007; 395). It is organisation-wide and moves from a marketing-communication activity to a strategic framework which is more sophisticated and includes the culture of the organisation (Chapleo 2015a) giving institutions a clearer sense of direction beyond just its marketing approaches by defining what the institution is and what it can authentically offer (Mighall 2009) to differentiate from rivals.

For its success, it is important that corporate branding is understood across the university to achieve stronger brand equity which refers to the tangible and intangible values of the organisation (Argyriou et al 2006). Assuming brand equity is simply logos and colours must be avoided (Edmiston-Strasser 2009), instead brand equity as Schultz and Schultz (2004; 309) define it is ‘the composite of the brand’s presence, identity/image, perceived quality, and commitment among constituents’. In a university context, this is long term strategic level view, which is more sophisticated taking into account the organisation’s culture and structure (Chapleo 2015a). Benefits for the university to focus on achieving stronger brand equity include; increased number of stakeholders supporting the university brand, achieving clarity, increased stakeholder interaction with the university, new consumers, and opportunities for extending the university corporate brand to new areas.

Chapleo (2010; 2011; 2015a) note that brand management models applicable to UK universities are not served well by existing models and this area is underexplored. Thus this research is timely responding to calls for clearer understanding and application of branding practices and models in HE. This research works towards developing a framework for corporate brand communication applicable to HE that will systematically and comprehensively guiding management on online corporate brand identity in universities to achieve stronger brand equity.

Corporate identity approach in higher education

The understanding of brand communication in HE context has included the rational and emotional factors of the brand. Although studies have included the dimensions of branding (image, identity and reputation) identity is mainly understood through its visual perspective (Melewar and Akel 2005) including identity through promotional media (Gray et al 2003) or establishing identity between HE policy and university marketing activities (Lowrie 2007). Although useful, these studies relate to as specific university or HE region’s identity with limited applicability to other institutions in the UK. Therefore this work extends the current discourse of
Corporate identity understanding in universities by projecting a consistent and unified identity to multiple audiences through communicating the core values of the university via the website which is not limited to a particular university. Further Balmer (2008; 1997; 340) examine identity and note three main approaches to corporate identity namely corporate identity with graphic design, with integrated corporate communication and with a multidisciplinary approach. This study looks at communicating the corporate identity through several of these approaches which includes the design of the website and corporate communication of the brand essence to stakeholders, henceforth this study is an integrated approach to corporate identity which will result in stronger corporate brand equity.

**Communicating University corporate brand: Offline or Online?**

Various factors contribute to the difficulty of managing a brand both online and offline including: globalization, faster pace of innovation, advancement in technology (Abratt and Kleyn 2012; Balmer 2012; Kaufmann et al 2012), growing competition (Morgan-Thomas and Veloutsou 2013), increase of demanding consumers (Kaufmann et al 2012; Klaus and Maklan 2007), changing expectations of stakeholders (Argyriou et al 2006) and the increased use and reliance on the internet (Zhao and Zhao 2012).

For universities what is communicated (identity) is more of its differentiated programmes (example of product brand) or faculty/department (example of service brand) and occasionally its reputation (example of corporate brand level) (Nguyen and LeBlanc 2001). The major reason behind this was the lack of understanding of the marketing team/administrators of what corporate brand is and its role in enhancing the university reputation as a whole to all its multiple stakeholders, rather than only a single stakeholder such as the student/consumer. Perhaps this is why these universities are still proving difficulty in getting talented students, recruiting top expertise academics, and attracting funding. Also, universities have left it to individual departments to deal with the marketing and branding and communication activities of the university, albeit this may have worked previously the current market conditions mean universities must address branding as an organisation-wide concern. UK universities currently communicate their brand at a more product and service brand level; this study would like to extend previous work (especially Chapleo 2011; 2012; 2015a and Vernuccio 2014) on how universities can enhance the corporate branding and communication across multiple stakeholders online through the website increasing its brand awareness by communicating their core values. The brand identity is visible in the offline offerings and activities of universities however online is where universities can improve their web branding (Chapleo 2011), as universities are struggling to maintain a strong presence online. Although universities are not able to control the external environment they operate in but they are able to control their response through an effective integrated communication approach via online.

This research will help universities to develop their corporate brand identity online through the website to help universities to understand their essence which appears lost in today’s marketplace, as there much is imitation and following the practices of other universities. Additionally it will help the university understand its corporate brand, product brand and service brand activities collectively. Universities are failing to detect their identities, the essence of who they are is not there, many universities communicate much in a monotone although the tangible differentiation can be seen (name, logo, design) but you can no longer feel the essence or the core values of what the university is or what it stands for. The university website is needed to help convince the university promise, by promise we mean the core values of the university, who they are, what makes them different to other universities. This is critical especially for stakeholders to understand who the university is and what it
can offer different to other universities. This will help universities to position themselves better in the marketplace. Further online corporate brand identities are vital for several reasons including: tools for projecting the university’s brand promise, reaching out to wider audiences, providing website visitors of with information about the university. Despite the literature on websites, little is known about how universities portray themselves through their website (Saichaie and Morphew 2014) although it has been highlighted corporate identity is critical in an online context (Rowley 2004). This research examines how the university is able to develop an online communication tool which it already uses– the website more effectively so users are able to recommend the university. Online, the university is able to project a unified and consistent view of the university, which will assist in gaining a competitive advantage through its distinctiveness online.

Online University corporate branding: What it is, and its effect on corporate image and WOM across multiple stakeholders

Universities were one of the first organisations to have web presence and engage in online services (Tuzun et al 2013). Murthy et al (2011; 1) refer to websites as ‘the flagships of institutions’. Organisations including universities have recognised the importance of integrating websites and social media into the activities because of the changing decision and purchase behaviour of stakeholders especially consumers (Constantinides and Stagno 2012). Concurrently universities use the website to communicate with stakeholders their offering and distinctive qualities (Anctil 2008).

Today the online visibility of organisations such as universities is important especially in crowded and homogenous marketplaces. The university website acts as a primary source of information for interested stakeholders including potential students by providing an insight into the institution its purpose, vision, and current activities (Thelwal et al 2007). Website design has over the years been the subject of many research studies (Demangeot and Broderick 2010; Eroglu et al 2003). Yolcu (2011) advocate university websites serve multi-purposes including: promoting the university, providing specific information about the university and its offering, financial assistance for potential students, latest research developments, news posting, and a recruiting point for students and staff. (Norris 2012) note many universities still fail to utilise their website’s potential, and not optimising the online experience of their websites, leaving critical information about the university absent from the online channel making it ineffective. Henceforth university websites need improving to become more effective in communicating the university’s corporate brand values. Universities are failing to create websites that communicate their values clearly, they cannot risk losing opportunities given the conditions of the industry, the importance of communicating the corporate identity (Peterson 2006) and website development for brand equity (Argyriou et al 2006).

Universities risk losing potential students and revisits from due to a poorly developed website. The website engages users with the organisation (Weiss 2008; Constantinides and Stagno 2012) and offers interactivity and support hence it is seen as a more effective communication tool than traditional tools (Leng 2012; Simoes and Soares 2010). Research studies examining university websites have mainly focused on the design and usability of websites, predominantly commenting on one section of the university website such as specific departments or the homepage (Saichaie and Morphew 2014; Tuzun et al 2013; Iamanauskas et al 2012; Kasli and Avcikurt 2008; Hite and Railsback 2010; Sengel 2014; Kim 2011; Hasan 2013; Sandvig and Bajwa 2004; Iamanauskas et al 2013). The website is a method that universities are already using to communicate with stakeholders, its development it crucial as other methods to improve the perception of public service organisations including advertising methods are “liable to criticism as being a waste of public money” (Whelan et al
2010; 1165). Henceforth this study provides insight into how the university is able to improve and develop a resource already used to enhance WOM and achieve stronger brand equity. Models of website evaluation such as e-service quality (Zeithaml et al 2000), and the technology acceptance model (Davis 1985) focus on how the functional and technical (hard core) attributes of the website work online and not the softer aspects. Henceforth this research responds to the calls for a more integrative view of user interaction with the brand online (Morgan–Thomas and Veloutsou 2013) which include all aspects of the website, this is from a university’s website perspective.

Methodology

A qualitative methodology was adopted for this research, through two focus group discussions (FGDs). FGDs designed to collect information about a particular subject are ideal if the researcher would like to gain understanding of participant’s views of the subject (Churchill 1979). The aim of the FGDs was to increase the authors understanding of online corporate branding in higher education and how university websites were perceived by international students. The ideal number of participants for a FGD is between seven to ten, two FGDs have been conducted so far, the first discussion consisted of eight participants, and the second had seven. Participants were mixed undergraduate, postgraduate and research students. Demographics of the participants is presented in the tables below.

The two FGDs took place within two universities in the UK. FGDs were audio recorded to ensure accuracy of information was presented at the transcribing stage. An interview schedule developed from the literature review served as a framework for the FGDs. The average time for each FGD was just over ninety minutes. Prior to the FGD,

<table>
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<tr>
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Table 1: Focus group two: demographics of participants

This will help understanding online corporate branding and how a university is able to gain a competitive advantage through the website.

Participants received an information sheet explaining the purpose and procedure of the research. Consent forms were given for participants to complete, which included information about: confidentiality, anonymity, consent for voluntary participation, withdrawal and participant’s permission to be audio recorded (Morgan 1996).

The researcher also provided a blank sheet of paper to participants so they could note down any additional information they felt would be useful for the researcher. The study involved constant comparison between the literature, new materials and previous data that was collected, several themes have emerged from the literature and the FGDs.
Analysis
Data was analysed using a ‘direct content analysis’ approach whereby the analysis starts with theories or pre-existing research findings used to direct the coding procedure of the research (Hsieh and Shannon 2005), this is ideal as it assists with ‘either supporting and/or extending existing theory’ (Hamzah et al 2014; 2303). After conducting the FGDs the researcher then prepared the full transcripts of the FGDs ensuring the audiotape was listened to several times to ensure any amendments were made accordingly to confirm accuracy of the transcript. After reading and re-reading the transcripts analysis of the FGDs following Hsieh and Shannon (2005) was carried out which established several themes from the findings, significant sentences were highlighted in different colours identifying sub-themes, this helped with gaining a thorough understanding of the findings and exploring the data in-depth. Coding of the FGDs was conducted manually according to the themes that appeared in previous literature and theory (Claes and Heymans 2008). The researcher then summarized the themes and coding, subsequently revising the themes where necessary.

Discussion
There were several key themes of the FGDs that emerged. A sample quotes related to each theme is presented in the table below.

Theme one: Identification of Higher Education branding and differentiation reaching maturity
Universities are no longer just institutions for learning but continually operate similar to businesses (Brunzel 2007) especially due to heightened competition. This was noticed by participants with universities focussing more on marketing and branding efforts. Many participants expressed higher education will be dominated with a number of universities that are the “big players” who will have a substantial role in steering the direction of higher education in the future and there is little differentiation amongst universities particularly in course offering, marketing and promotional techniques and tools both online and offline. Participants acknowledged all universities whether they knew it or not have adopted branding practices.

The understanding of corporate branding was varied and included: identity, image, brand promise, representation, differentiation (Ind 1997; Blamer and Gray 2003), promoting the services of the university, and trying to create a unique distinction separate from other universities. The image of the university was important to most participants. Participant’s highlighted students have a pivotal role in projecting the image of the university especially when recommending the university, henceforth it is important for universities to ensure they are meeting the needs of students which will enhance the university’s corporate image and students will recommend the university if they have a positive experience. It was also mentioned top universities may have to pay less attention to the corporate brand compared to other universities as they are already established and have positioned themselves well in the marketplace already (Kang and Norton 2006). Corporate identity was mainly associated with the visual aspects of such as colour and logo (Balmer and Gray 2003). Also participants mentioned personality values that shaped corporate identity (ranking, location, national identity, product identity, modern, vibrant). University corporate identity is important in developing the university corporate brand (Abratt and Kleyn 2012). Participants noted it was important for universities to differentiate themselves in a homogenous and crowded marketplace, most universities are currently failing to do this and their products and services are very similar if not the same.

Theme two: Identification of the university website as the most effective communication tool
Participants in both of the discussions had emphasised the visibility and presence of the university is necessary online. This is in line with Rowley (2004) who notes visual corporate identity is vital in an online context. Participants had emphasised the website is the most important tool for effective
communication and for students when deciding on university to choose to study at and gaining information about the university. This supports the views of Leng (2012) and Simoes and Soares (2010) who highlight the website due to its interactivity and support is effective in communicating the organisation’s values. Particularly for international students they rely on the university website as the main if not only source of information gathering when deciding on the choice of university to study at. Additionally the university website is able to provide users with all the information they need to either make a decision to apply at the university as is the case for students or to recommend the university to others based on their user experience of the university website which creates a positive image of the university brand. The website allows direct engagement of the university with stakeholders (Constantinides, 2010), including potential students during the process of searching for universities to study at.

Theme three: identification of university differentiation through the website

It was noted that university websites are similar in design to corporate websites (Hite and Railback 2010). The discussions indicated differentiation including online is necessary for universities and a well-designed and impactful website is needed for gaining a competitive advantage among other universities. Participants expressed the university website identity is crucial for differentiation and that universities are yet to fully grasp this. For many participants the website could be improved in many ways. Student feedback is pivotal especially with understanding how the university brand is perceived and whether the messages intended by the university are aligned with what is in the minds of stakeholders and also when designing the website too. Although in one of the discussions participants mentioned the university website had been redesigned recently many of the changes and features were not student friendly: highlighting the website is now too complex, and in some areas there is content overload which has steered them away from the website. Henceforth the university has spent time and resources on redesigning the website which is not in their favour and deters visitors from finding out information about the university and interacting with the university online. Suggested changes to the website included: more media related content, consistency between departments online, live chat with university staff for queries, information on student’s perspective of the university and information targeted specifically at international students such as do’s and don’ts. The findings show with the website universities must go beyond what they are currently doing as the traditional values of the university are served well on university websites however it is the emotional and distinctive features of the university which need to be portrayed better which will provide authenticity and differentiation for the university (Chapleo 2011; 2015a), so through effective integrated communication approach the possibility of real differentiation can be realised.

Based on the literature review and the findings of the FGDs a preliminary conceptual model has been drawn for this study.

An integrated communication approach is important for universities to adopt. The findings of this research show possible differentiation can be realised through communicating the university’s corporate brand values online through the website. How this can be achieved is by including more emotional and distinctive information about the university to differentiate from others. This will clearly communicate the university’s values which will provide a positive experience to visitors based on this recommend is likely.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Quotation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Identification of Higher Education branding and differentiation reaching maturity | “I see it becoming more of a business and focus more on profit and turn over more than students as this university has shown...this doesn’t bring in the quality so this doesn’t enable the university to progress further it’s more of a business rather than an education institute” (P2:D1)  
“i think generally it is more business orientated ...very competitive in terms of their strategies and in terms of attracting students”(P3:D2)  
“so it’s less focussed on education and more on a global brand” (P2:D1)  
“in terms of the monetary aspects of things so funding like if you see like smaller universities are getting less funding from the government and like universities that have a better name” (P6:D1)  
“well i think corporate branding is a holistic branding activity” (P7:D2)  
“I would say branding of this university, well universities in general is similar to a business” (P2:D1)  
“meeting the requirements of the student they can build their corporate image because the students are the only you know entity who are going into the market who are who are building their image and who are destroying their image...about the facilities which universities providing about the quality about the standards of the university and this is the students who are attracting others towards the university if I’m not happy with the university I will never ever suggest anyone” (P7, D1)  
“I mean it’s really hard to differentiate an image from an identity...it is important because at the end of the day every university is teaching the same thing in order for them to differentiate themselves that image and that identity is necessary” (P6:D1) |
| Identification of the university website as the most effective communication tool | “Like to enhance the image of the university then they can attract more students also through the website”(P3:D1)  
“thing is, that’s there probably their most useful instrument for advertising for passing information so yeah” (P2:D2)  
“in this era it is very important... door to the world” (P4:D2) |
| Identification of university differentiation through the website     | “online presence is really important because like i think earlier we kind of established everyone searched online in the start just to find the university so that says a lot i think” (P6:D1)  
“it’s too complex i think... i prefer less information on the homepage” (P7:D2)  
“It’s easier to get information from our website as compared to some others... yeah well managed and easy access to information” (P6:D1)  
“I like the simplicity of it” (P2:D1)  
“Invest more money in the design” (P5:D2)  
“...not every department did that so consistency in that would be good, that’s another thing I would say consistency” (P2:D1)  
“maybe ahh include the students prospective of it” (P2:D1) |

(note: P (participant), D (discussion)).

Figure 1: conceptual model online corporate identity for stronger brand equity
Conclusion
Despite the increased recognition of the importance of branding in universities there is a lack of understanding, developing and managing a university brand. University are complex entities that have struggled to express a succinct brand (Waeraas and Solbak 2009), due to their diversity they tend to have culture that is less supportive of commercial branding approaches, and lack the resources to implement this (Chapleo 2015a). Hence conventional branding approaches are not appropriate in higher education (Jevon 2006). Corporate branding is one way forward for universities to develop to differentiation in the homogenous marketplace focusing on communicating the university brand values. This approach is more strategic level, and sophisticated (Edmiston 2009). The research extends current corporate branding research by broadening our understanding of corporate branding in services and online. The present study finds three themes in reflection to student’s perceptions of corporate branding in higher education and online including: identification of HE branding and differentiation reaching maturity, identification of the university website as the most effective communication tool and the identification of university differentiation through the website. This research argues building a corporate brand identity online through the website is the most important for communicating the university’s essence; and to ensure not just purchase intention, revisit and behavioural intention but also authenticity and offer originality through the website is a source of competitive advantage for universities. Henceforth the website is an important tool in effectively communicating the history but also in rebranding and reshaping the corporate brand. The website is key in projecting the image of the university (Murthy et al 2011) as a well-developed website meeting the needs of stakeholders will get stakeholders talking about the university. The findings highlighted the various issues and solutions to the university website and how to develop the website to provide distinctions that will differentiate the university from other competitors by including emotional and distinctive information about the university. The findings are currently limited due to only two FGDs being conducted so far.

Theoretical Implications
The objective of this research was to examine online corporate brand identity to enhance word of mouth recommendation to achieve stronger brand equity. An overall conceptual model for brands in the HE sector remains challenging. This study contributed in three ways (1) the findings of this study showed the university’s website is critical for communicating the university brand values. (2) The findings show how developing the online corporate brand identity is able to have a positive effect on stakeholders which is likely to lead to increased recommendation of the university and help the university to achieve a stronger brand equity, this is where universities can differentiate through effective use of the website as a communication tool. (3) The findings indicated the website can be a source of competitive advantage and universities must recognise this to differentiate and offer distinctiveness compared to rivals. This indicates universities must go beyond communicating the traditional values and must include authentic and distinctive information about the university. This demonstrates how a university can secure its reputation through the delivery of a clear online identity and through an integrated communication approach.

Managerial Implications
Corporate branding is important for differentiation (Roy et al 2014) and positioning the organisation (Balmer 2012) this is applicable to universities too offline and online. The website is important to all organisations (Peterson 2006), with universities the website becomes even more crucial as you cannot ‘see’ their products, therefore this research will support fitting the university website in the branding and communication strategy. Management must ensure they take advantage of opportunities available to them including through the website. If not universities risk missing opportunities for recruiting students and staff by not including critical information about the
university on the website therefore it is likely to become ineffective as it is not making use of its full potential when communicating to stakeholders. Once completed it is anticipated this research will provide guidance on how the university is able to reach out further to its stakeholder, and how management is effectively able to implement and include the website in the overall branding and strategy of the university to gain a better position than its rivals and increase its word of mouth recommendation. One of the most important elements of the process is making sure that student feedback is taken into account on how to improve the website to effectively communicate with stakeholders.

References


Session B1: Retention and Relationship

The Effect of Mobile Internet Provider Services Brand Image on Overall Satisfaction and Brand Loyalty in Indonesia
Ranti Yulia Wardani

Gamification in Music Social Network: The Fame Music Case Study
Alessandro Pluda

The Impact of Loyalty Cards and its Effects on Small and Medium Sized Businesses
Michael Kourtoubelides
The Effect of Mobile Internet Provider Services Brand Image on Overall Satisfaction and Brand Loyalty in Indonesia

Ranti Yulia Wardani

Abstract
The objective of this research is to examine the effect of mobile Internet provider brand image on overall satisfaction and loyalty in Indonesia. The statistical analysis in this research is Structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis. The research results found that only experiential that significantly impact on overall satisfaction and loyalty intention. The other variables symbolism, social, functional, and appearance have negative impact on overall satisfaction and loyalty intention. The statistical results shows that only experiential that significantly impact on overall satisfaction and loyalty intention, it means that the practitioners should utilized the first experience of the users to be more influential and give a good impression at the beginning usage by users. The limitations of this research are small sample sizes; it didn’t include monetary variable; focuses of this research on mobile internet services in Indonesia which could not be concluded in general impact of brand image, loyalty on satisfaction.

Keywords: mobile Internet services, brand image, satisfaction, loyalty intention, Indonesia

Introduction
The increasing number of competitive competitions among mobile device manufacturers and Internet service providers, the great hope for the users of the mobile Internet to get a quality commensurate with their price to get the benefits of these devices. Benefits of using the mobile Internet will be very meaningful if users get good quality. Some of the limitations of mobile Internet devices that can inhibit the use of Internet access among others: slow access, the device displays a resolution of small and low, the battery life is limited, less speed, and the difficulty to transfer data (Kamba et al, 1996). With these limitations user will weigh and choose the brand devices and Internet service providers. Therefore, providing mobile Internet devices and services of high quality is an important factor for mobile Internet business to gain a sustainable customer loyalty.

Based on several studies the relationship between loyalty and satisfaction. The experience of the users on the satisfaction and dissatisfaction in the use of mobile Internet devices become a benchmark for assessment of a product with a particular brand. Customer satisfaction and loyalty of the most physical goods and services have been carried out in several studies but still there is little research on differences in satisfaction of some brands of devices and mobile Internet service provider in Indonesia. This study will measure the difference in the satisfaction of each of the mobile Internet provider that is used to access the internet.

This study builds upon the following research questions:
1. Is there any influence of the brand image benefits provider to the overall satisfaction of the customer?
2. Is there any influence of the brand image benefits provider to customer loyalty intention?
3. Is there any influence overall satisfaction with customer loyalty intention?

The purpose of this study was to determine the influence of the brand image benefits of provider of mobile Internet on satisfaction and brand loyalty.

Overall, this study would contribute insights for service providers, as well as forming the basis for comparison in the future performance of the wireless network operators and mobile device manufacturers the Internet in terms of user satisfaction in Indonesia. For academic research can contribute methodologies for measuring satisfaction of different test for each network operator in Indonesia and test its effect on customer satisfaction and loyalty.
This study will focus on measuring the differences in satisfaction with the use of the network service provider located in Indonesia. In Indonesia alone there are ten mobile network operators. The samples in this study are mobile Internet users. Samples are students, workers, teachers, and others who have had experience of using mobile Internet. The population of this research is the whole mobile Internet users in Indonesia.

**Literature Review**

Recently the data shows the growth of mobile Internet users. According Dimitria (2012) present the use of feature phones still dominates the Indonesian market with a percentage of 86%. Trend of increasing use of mobile devices should also be supported by improved quality of service providers.

**Brand**

Brand is one important element in the product or service offerings. A brand identity can distinguish the products or services to one another. Although in general the public might think the only brand as a logo, but in fact the brand is a combination of all the elements between the physical and emotional characteristics of a company, product or service assessed by consumers in all viewpoints (Roellig, 2001). The most basic tool to be able to differentiate your product or services is a brand that combines the names, letter, symbol, or design that can identify the product or services, and the source to be able to distinguish the product competitor (Arens et al, 2011). Users could not explain or differentiate one product with another product without the brand.

Branding is important because it could communicate the concept of branding in the business. The objective of branding is to attract consumer to be interested in the products or services offered by symbolized in a brand. The other objectives in the products or services are consumer expectation can be represented by the brand and can be recognized easily by consumers. Visual expression of the brand is most successful when the brand can be associated with all of the core attributes and can build a positive emotional connection between consumers, both internally and externally.

For consumers the brand provides instant recognition and identification. Brand could promises consistency, quality standards believed, taste, size, or even psychological satisfaction. Brands should be built in the image, understanding, and relationships that can differentiate association with other brands. Advertising for a brand that has been built in a product/service that is different from other products, will be more effective if the product has been exploiting the position of the target market. Ideally when consumers see the brand, instantly they will understand the brand promises and have confidence in its quality.

Brand Image benefit in this research consist of experiential benefit, symbolic benefit, social benefit, functional benefit, and appearance benefit. Experiential benefit: experiential, as part of an integrated communications strategy which involve feeling, sensing, acting and relating. This experiential would help consumer to learn about each brand product or services. Brian (2010) defines symbolic benefits as extrinsic advantages of product consumption that correspond to non-product-related attributes and relate to underlying needs for social approval or personal expression and outer-directed self-esteem. Social value is social benefits gained by the user when they can connect to others via mobile Internet (Sheth et al, 1991). Functional value can be defined as functional or technical or practical benefits that users can earn by using the mobile Internet (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001). Brand experience as sensations, feelings, cognition and behavioral responses are induced by stimuli associated with a brand that is part of the brand and identity design, packaging, communication and the environment defined by Brakus et al (2009). Blijlevens et al (2009) defines that the appearance of the product can help companies in communicating and helping consumers to assess a product on the functional, aesthetic, symbolic or ergonomic motif.
Brand Loyalty

The purpose of giving the brand is the brand loyalty. It helps the two sides both consumers and advertisers. For consumer brands can reduce the time for shopping. For advertisers, brands can build brand equity that is the entirety of what consumers, distributors, dealers, and even competitors feel and think about the brand in some period to come. High brand equity can provide advantages for sellers of products, customer loyalty, inelasticity price and long-term profitability. The loyalty of a customer can be nine times more profitable than a consumer who is not loyal. But building brand equity requires time and money. Values and priorities of the brand will increase market share. In general, the larger the market share won by advertisers who expend time and cost a lot more.

Brand awareness becomes important in the communication process products or services, since it was the beginning of the next step of the process of interaction (Rossiter and Percy, 1987). Without the brand awareness then no other effects of communication would happen. Brand is the first thing that needs to be known by consumers if they want to buy or consume a product or service. Behavior associated with the brand and interest to purchase will not be formed if there is no brand awareness in consumer minds. The main objective of the vendor product or service is to get the loyalty to the brand, which is a direct result of consumer habits and buying back. Brand loyalty is the value of brand equity. The concept of brand loyalty has been widely discussed in the literature of traditional marketing with a major emphasis on two different dimensions of the concept: loyalty behaviors and attitudes. Oliver (1999) defines brand loyalty as: held firm commitment to repurchase or recurring subscriptions. Consumers will choose a product or service consistently in the future, which leads to recurring choose the same brand, even though there is a situation and influence of marketing efforts that have the potential to cause the behavior to switch to another brand. Arens et al, (2011) which defines brand loyalty is the decision of the consumer either consciously or unconsciously expressed through interest or behavior to buy the same brand in a sustainable manner.

Oliver (1999) explained about “action inertia” which has some phases of loyalty: Cognitive loyalty is first loyalty phase, the brand attribute information available to the consumer indicates that one brand is preferable to its alternatives; the second phase is affective loyalty. In this phase is a liking or attitude toward the brand has developed on the basis of cumulatively satisfying usage occasions. Third phase is conative loyalty. Conative (behavioral intention) stage happen because consumer has been influenced by frequently episodes of positive affect toward the brand. This phase shows a brand-specific commitment to repurchase. Then action loyalty as an action control sequence, some previous phase of loyalty form the firm to act. This action loyalty will support consumer to be loyal and could prevent doubt to act.

Brand loyalty is the main objective of the product development efforts, successful sale and impact of the marketing program (Kabiraj and Shanmugan, 2011). Consumer loyalty is part of the belief and trust that hold a central role that could trigger to increasing the loyalty of both behavior and attitudes which in turn results in a marketing related effects of factors.

Satisfaction

Consumer satisfaction is a feeling that the results of the consumption standard of pleasure than displeasure (Oliver, 1999). Satisfaction is the main goal of the consumer. Although transactions have taken place between producers and consumers, but the satisfaction is still a major issue in business. Satisfaction should be able to happen every time a consumer uses the product, or consumers do not want to think that they have to get the exchange rate of the same product. Satisfaction would lead to more exchanges; satisfaction will make consumers to buy them back; and a satisfied customer will tell others about the products that consumers use (Arens et al, 2011). Positive words about products or
services by word of mouth can provide more sales and contribute to the good reputation for the company. Positive words about the products or services are important in marketing. This becomes more important in the era of social networks like Facebook and Twitter. If satisfaction is the main goal of the company's consumer products or services must make customer satisfaction as the basic goals of the company. If the product or service of the company provides poor performance, the negative effects will be worse for the company. Satisfaction is the overall experience perceived by the customer from the beginning to the end use of the product or service usage of the product or service providers (Johnson and Fornell, 1991).

**Brand Image Benefits and Overall Satisfaction**

Stephen et al., (2007) there are four image benefits (experiential, social, functional image benefits and appearance enhances benefits) have positive significant effects on satisfaction. Wardani and Warsono (2012) study found that value structures (functional value, emotional value, social value, and monetary value) simultaneously affect the satisfaction of mobile Internet usage of Indonesian respondents. Reynolds and Beatty (1999) found that social and functional benefits positively related to satisfaction. According to Tsai (2005) symbolic value positively related to repurchase intention. Neupane (2015) research study on retail super market chain found that there is a positive relationship between brand image and customer loyalty intention. Alhaddad (2015) research study on Sport-wear found that brand image also has significant positive effects on brand loyalty. Sallam (2015) research study on internet service providers found that brand image had more positive impact on customers’ loyalty than corporate image. Al-Msallam (2015) research study on three different hotels found that brand image is positively associated with customer satisfaction.

H1: Brand image has a significant positive effect on overall satisfaction.

**Brand Image Benefits and Loyalty**

Stephen et al (2007) study found that there are two brand image benefits appearance and functional have significant impacts on loyalty intention. The relation benefits consisted of social, confidence and special treatment benefit have a direct influence on passive loyalty reveal by Vazquez-Carrasco and Foxall (2006) in their studies. Reynolds and Beatty (1999) found that there is a positively associated between relationship benefits (functional and social) with satisfaction, loyalty, word of mouth and purchases.

Tsai (2005) revealed that symbolic value, affective value and tradeoff value in interaction are positively related to repurchase intention. Brakus et al (2009) study found that brand experience has a behavioral impact and brand experience affects consumer satisfaction and loyalty directly and indirectly through brand personality. Kressmann et al (2006) used functional attributes used as a formulation consisted with cost, engine power, safety, gas consumption, appearance, and quality. Kressmann et al (2006) hypothesized the greater the functional congruity with a brand, the greater the brand loyalty. Their study found that functional congruity predicted brand loyalty positively and significantly.

Saeed et al (2013) research study on IT found that there is a positive relationship between brand image and brand loyalty. Neupane (2015) research study on retail super market chain found that there is a positive relationship between brand image and customer loyalty intention. Alhaddad (2015) research study on Sport-wear found that brand image also has significant positive effects on brand loyalty. Rahayu (2015) research study on low cost airlines industry proved that brand image significantly influence brand loyalty.

H2: Brand image has a significant positive effect on loyalty intention.

**Overall Satisfaction and Loyalty**

Stephen et al, (2007) revealed that overall customer’s satisfaction fully mediate the
relationship between functional image benefits and loyalty intention. Ismail et al (2006) study found that customer satisfaction partially mediate the relationship of reliability and customer loyalty. Neupane (2015) research study on retail super market chain found that there is a positive relationship between customer satisfaction and loyalty intention.

Da Silva and Syed Alwi, 2006 research on the effect of online and offline corporate brand image on satisfaction and loyalty. Their research revealed that corporate brand image on satisfaction and brand loyalty are positively significant. Rahayu (2015) research study on low cost airlines industry proved that customer satisfaction has a significant influence on brand loyalty. Christodoulides and Michaelidou (2011) research study on e-tailers focusing on hedonic product in UK found that e-satisfaction is a strong determinant of e-loyalty. Anderson and Sullivan (1993) study found that satisfaction has positive impact on intention to do next purchase (figure 1).

H3: Overall satisfaction has a significant positive effect on loyalty intention.

Research Method

Unit of Analysis
In this research study, the unit of analysis is the individual with characteristics that are described. In this case, the respondents are the people belonging to Indonesian who have experienced in using the mobile Internet. The population in this study is people who use mobile Internet. Samples are mobile Internet users. In this study, the limited sample nonprobability called convenience sample (Cooper and Schindler, 2001).

Research data type
The data will be used in this research is the primary data. Primary data will be observed by collecting directly from the respondents that experienced in using the mobile Internet. The dependent variables in this study are overall satisfaction and brand loyalty.

This research will use quantitative data, data that is expressed in numbers. Quantitative data types will be using parametric statistical procedures (Triton 2006). According Ghozali (2009) scale of measurement is a process in which a number or symbol attached to a characteristic or property of a stimuli in accordance with the rules or procedures have been established.

Variable Operational Definitions
There are seven variables in this research study. These research study variables are overall satisfaction, loyalty intention, functional, symbolic, social, experiential, and appearance enhance. The operational definitions will be describes as the following table:

Research data type
The data will be used in this research is the primary data. Primary data will be observed by collecting directly from the respondents that experienced in using the mobile Internet. The dependent variables in this study are overall satisfaction and brand loyalty.

This research will use quantitative data, data that is expressed in numbers. Quantitative data types will be using parametric statistical procedures (Triton 2006). According Ghozali

Figure 1: Research model
2009) scale of measurement is a process in which a number or symbol attached to a characteristic or property of a stimuli in accordance with the rules or procedures have been established.

**Variable Operational Definitions**

There are seven variables in this research study. These research study variables are overall satisfaction, loyalty intention, functional, symbolic, social, experiential, and appearance enhance. The operational definitions will be describes as in the following table:

**Survey Instruments**

There are seven questions will be used to measure overall satisfaction. There questions to measure brand loyalty. Experiential benefit will be measured using four questions regarding to the experiential side. Symbolic variable will measure by using three questions. There are two questions regarding to social benefit variable. Functional benefit will be measured by using three questions regarding to the functional side. There are three questions regarding to appearance enhance variable.

The scale of measurement that will be used is the nominal measurement scale and scale interval. Survey questions will be used in questionnaire is a seven-point likert-type scale with the range from 1 (strongly disagree) and 7 (strongly agree).

In this research study questionnaire also use four additional questions. These additional questions are needed to understand the demographic data of the respondents and the mobile internet services that respondents use.

**Data Collection Technique**

Samples were selected according to convenience sampling. Used convenience sampling reason is that researchers have the freedom to choose anyone they found. Data collection will be conducted in public places such as campuses, malls, cafes, canteens and resting places. Questionnaires were administered to respondents in

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**Table 1: Description of Variables**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Source(s)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall satisfaction</td>
<td>Consumer satisfaction is a feeling that the results of the consumption standard of pleasure than displeasure</td>
<td>Stephen et al, (2007), Oliver (1980), Oliver, (1999).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loyalty Intention</td>
<td>Brand loyalty is held firm commitment to repurchase or recurring subscriptions.</td>
<td>Oliver (1999), Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman (1996), Stephen et al, (2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functional</td>
<td>Functional value can be defined as functional or technical or practical benefits that users can earn by using the mobile Internet</td>
<td>Stephen et al, (2007), Sweeney and Soutar, (2001).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symbolic</td>
<td>Symbolic benefits as extrinsic advantages of product consumption that correspond to non-product-related attributes and relate to underlying needs for social approval or personal expression and outer-directed self-esteem.</td>
<td>Tsai (2005), Stephen et al, (2007), Brian (2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Social value is social benefits gained by the user when they can connect to others via mobile Internet</td>
<td>Sweeney and Soutar’s (2001), Stephen et al, (2007), Sheth et al, (1991).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiential</td>
<td>Brand experience is a combination of sensation, feeling, cognitive and behavioral responses induced by stimuli associated with a brand that is part of the brand and identity design, packaging, communications and environment</td>
<td>Stephen et al, (2007), Brakus et al (2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appearance enhance</td>
<td>Appearance of the product can help companies in communicating and helping consumers to assess a product on the functional, aesthetic, symbolic or ergonomic motif</td>
<td>Stephen et al, (2007), Blijlevens et al (2009)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Indonesia directly. The target number of respondents was 250 respondents.

Data Analysis Method
Hair et al (2006) stated suggest in assessing the degree of measurement error present in any measure then the researcher must address two important characteristics of a measure: a) validity is the degree to which a measure accurately represents what it is supposed to, b) reliability is the degree to which the observed variables measure the “true” value and is “error free”; thus, is the opposite of measurement error.

Cronbach’s Alpha method will be used to test the reliability level. The Reliability level could be measured by Cronbach’s Alpha base on alpha scale range from 0 to 1. 0.00-0.20 is less reliable, > 0.20-0.40 is slightly reliable, > 0.40-0.60 is reliable enough, > 0.60-0.80 is reliable, > 0.80-1.00 is very reliable (Triton, 2006).

Factor analysis is one of the techniques to measure validity test. If the output shows loading factor more than 0.4, it means the result is valid.

The hypotheses will be analyzed by using Structural equation modeling (SEM). Hair et al (2006) explained that SEM is part of the statistical models that try to explain the relationship between multiple variables. Hair et al describe about the role of theory in SEM. i) There are some fundamentals role played by theory in SEM: a) specifying relationship that define the model; b) establishing causation, particularly when using cross sectional data, and c) the development of modeling strategy.

The following information will be used as an evaluation criteria goodness of fit to test whether a model could be accepted or rejected:

a) Chi-square test, where the models were considered good or satisfactory when the Chi-square value is low (Hair et al, 2006).

b) In this regards with the SEM do not expected to have p values for the \( \chi^2 \) test to be small (statistically significant) or in another words in SEM p value should have \( p > 0.05 \)

c) Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) shows the good model can be expected when a model is fit in a population (Hair et al, 2006). A good RMSEA value is in the range between 0.03 or equal to 0.08.

d) Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) is a non-statistical measure that has a range of values between 0 as a poor fit up to 1.0 as a perfect fit (Hair et al, 2006). GFI value > 0.90 is considered to be good. A high value in this index indicates a “better fit”.

e) Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI), which is the recommended level of acceptance when AGFI has a value equal to or greater than 0.90 (Hair et al, 2006).

f) CMIN/DF is The Minimum Sample Discrepancy Function divided by Degree of Freedom. Chi-square divided by its DF-called chi-square relative. When the CMIN/DF is comparatively less than 2.0 is indicative of an acceptable fit between model and data (Byren 1988 in Ghozali, 2013).

g) Normed Fit Index NFI (NFI), which is a ratio of the differences in the \( \chi^2 \) value for the fitted model and a null model divided by the \( \chi^2 \) value for the null model (Hair, et al, 2006). The range of NFI is 0 and 1 (as a perfect fit).

h) Comparative Fit Index (CFI), which is an incremental fit index that is an improved version of the normed fit index (NFI). When the value is close to 1, indicating the highest level of fit (Hair, et al, 2006). The recommended value is CFI ≥ 0.94.

i) Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) an index that compares an incremental model tested against a baseline model, where a model of ≥ 0.95 and a value close to 1 indicates a very good fit (Hair, 2006).

Descriptive statistics were used in this research study. Descriptive statistics present a quantitative description and calculation of statistical data describes the characteristics of samples or the relationship between variables in the sample (Babbie, 2004).

Data Analysis
Data has been collected from the survey which undertaken in Indonesia. There are 244 samples data in this research that would be tested. The amount obtained after filtering the data that appropriate for this study. Data obtained by a convenience sample method described in section three.
From the data describe about the profile of the respondents. The respondents are 49.2% male and 50.8% female. The range of the respondents age are 98% under 25 years old and 2% respondents are in the range of 25-35 years old. Respondents education are 85.2% senior high school, 4.5% diploma, 5.7% undergraduate, and 4.5% graduate. The data profile of the respondents as the following table 2:

Table 2: Respondents Profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>49.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>50.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age (years)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 25</td>
<td>239</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-35</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior High School</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>85.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The figure 2 shows the mobile internet providers that used by respondents. The graphs shows that Telkomsel dominated 44.7%, Indosat 17.6%, XL Axiata 11.5%, Three 22.1%, Axis 0.8%, Smart telecom 4%, others 4%.

The table 3 shows the result validity test of all variables. The Cronbach’s Alpha range between 0.707-0.867. Therefore all variables are considered to be reliable.

Table 3: Reliability Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>Item (N)</th>
<th>Reliability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>0.867</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loyalty intention</td>
<td>0.759</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiential image</td>
<td>0.864</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symbolic image</td>
<td>0.768</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social image</td>
<td>0.826</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functional image</td>
<td>0.705</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appearance image</td>
<td>0.797</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Validity test is run to measure whether instruments tools could measure function of measurement. Validity test result from each of the variables shows in the table 4a and 4b. The table 4a shows that satisfaction, loyalty, experiential, and symbol have loading factor more than 0.4. The factor loading shows the range from 0.596-0.910.

Table 4a: Satisfaction, Loyalty, Experiential, Symbol Validity Tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component Matrix</th>
<th>Component Matrix</th>
<th>Component Matrix</th>
<th>Component Matrix</th>
<th>Component Matrix</th>
<th>Component Matrix</th>
<th>Component Matrix</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SAT 1</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>LOY 1</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>EX 1</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>SY 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAT 2</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>LOY 2</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>EX 2</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>SY 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAT 3</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>LOY 3</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>EX 3</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>SY 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAT 4</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>EX 4</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAT 5</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table 4b shows that social, functional, and appearance have loading factor more than 0.4. The factor loading shows the range from 0.401-0.856.
Table 4b: Social, Functional and Appearance Validity Tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extra</th>
<th>Extraction</th>
<th>Extraction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SO1</td>
<td>0.926</td>
<td>0.888</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SO2</td>
<td>0.859</td>
<td>0.818</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hypotheses Test

SEM was used to test all the hypotheses in this research. One of the steps in SEM is assessing measurement model validity. In the table 5 shows the results of goodness of fit. There are nine indices of absolute indices that fit with the cut off values as the fit requirements.

Table 5: The results of evaluation criteria goodness of fit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goodness of Fit index</th>
<th>Cut off value</th>
<th>Test Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Chi-square</td>
<td>Smaller</td>
<td>2.049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Significance</td>
<td>≥ 0.05</td>
<td>0.842</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. RMSEA</td>
<td>≤ 0.08</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. GFI</td>
<td>≥ 0.90</td>
<td>0.998</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. AGFI</td>
<td>≥ 0.90</td>
<td>0.985</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. CMIN/DF</td>
<td>≤ 2.00</td>
<td>0.410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. NFI</td>
<td>≥ 0.90</td>
<td>0.999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. CFI</td>
<td>≥ 0.95</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. TLI</td>
<td>≥ 0.94</td>
<td>1.011</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This research analysis was conducted by using AMOS program application to run the data with two steps path analysis. Paths analysis is development of regression model which is used to test the fit from the correlation matrix of two or more model that would be compared by the researcher (Ghozali, 2013). The final graph shows as following picture:

The results in table 6 shows that only experience has significant impact on overall satisfaction with the p value 0.000. The other variables: symbolism p values is 0.627, social p values is 0.352, functional p values is 0.728, and appearance p values is 0.954. P values more than 0.05 indicates that the variables are not significant. It means that symbolism, social, functional, and appearance do not have significant impact on overall satisfaction. Therefore, H1 only partially supported.

The second hypothesis is to know whether there is a positive significant effect of brand image benefits on loyalty intention. The results in table 6 shows that only experience has significant impact on loyalty with the p value 0.009. The other variables: symbolism p values is 0.788, social p values is 0.417, functional p values is 0.677, and appearance p values is 0.395. P values more than 0.05 indicates that the variables are not significant. This means that H2 is only partially supported.

The third hypothesis stated that there is a positive significant effect of overall satisfaction on loyalty intention. The results in table 6 shows that satisfaction does not significantly impact the overall satisfaction with the p value 0.406. Therefore, H3 is not supported.

Table 6: Regression Weights Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>C.R.</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experience → Satisfaction</td>
<td>0.874</td>
<td>0.161</td>
<td>5.442</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symbolism → Satisfaction</td>
<td>0.067</td>
<td>0.137</td>
<td>0.486</td>
<td>0.627</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social → Satisfaction</td>
<td>-0.074</td>
<td>0.079</td>
<td>-0.931</td>
<td>0.352</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functional → Satisfaction</td>
<td>0.079</td>
<td>0.227</td>
<td>0.347</td>
<td>0.728</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appearance → Satisfaction</td>
<td>-0.014</td>
<td>0.248</td>
<td>-0.058</td>
<td>0.954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction → Loyalty</td>
<td>0.206</td>
<td>0.248</td>
<td>0.831</td>
<td>0.406</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
![Table](https://example.com/table.png)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experience → Loyalty</th>
<th>0.854</th>
<th>0.329</th>
<th>2.595</th>
<th>0.009</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Symbolism → Loyalty</td>
<td>-0.044</td>
<td>0.162</td>
<td>-0.269</td>
<td>0.788</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social → Loyalty</td>
<td>0.076</td>
<td>0.093</td>
<td>0.811</td>
<td>0.417</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functional → Loyalty</td>
<td>0.112</td>
<td>0.268</td>
<td>0.417</td>
<td>0.677</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appearance → Loyalty</td>
<td>-0.246</td>
<td>0.289</td>
<td>-0.851</td>
<td>0.395</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Discussion**

The research objective of this study was to determine the influence of the brand image benefits of provider of mobile Internet services on satisfaction and brand loyalty. The statistical results show that only experience that significantly impact on overall satisfaction and loyalty intention. The other variables symbolism, social, functional, and appearance have negative impact on overall satisfaction and loyalty intention. The results interestingly show the different results with some previous studies.

Stephen et al, (2007) study found that two brand image benefits; appearance enhances and functional benefit have significant impacts on loyalty intention. In their research study shows that the other variables; symbolic, experiential and social benefits have negative effects on loyalty intention. The same result between this research study and Stephen et al (2007) are symbolism and social variables have negative impact on overall satisfaction. Tsai (2005) research found that symbolic value positively related to repurchase intention. In this study only experiential variable have positive impact on loyalty intention.

The results of Stephen et al, (2007) shows that four image benefits; experiential, social, functional image benefits and appearance enhances benefits have positive significant effects on satisfaction. There is one variable of Stephen et al, (2007) study have the same result with this research study. Experiential variable shows the positive impact result in this research study and Stephen et al, (2007). Research on mobile internet provider services in Indonesia also shows different result with the Reynolds and Beatty (1999) and Tsai (2005) researches. Reynolds and Beatty (1999) found that social and functional benefits positively related to satisfaction.

Stephen et al, (2007) found that satisfaction have positive impact on enhancing loyalty. In this research study found different with some previous study. This research found that satisfaction has a negative impact on loyalty intention. Some of the variables in this study found differences with some previous studies.

There is a significant contribution of this research for researchers and practitioners. The statistical results show that only experiential that significantly impact on overall satisfaction and loyalty intention, it means that the practitioners should utilized the first experience of the users to be more influential and give a good impression at the beginning usage by users. There are some other variables that could be considered for the researchers and practitioners in measuring satisfaction and brand loyalty.

The result finding of this research study shows very different from some previous study. This study focus on mobile provider services brand image. Stephen et al, (2007) focus on color cosmetic. Tsai (2005) research study focuses on three branded products such as consumers of computers (utilitarian product category), coffee (affective product category), and denim wear (expressive product category). Reynolds and Beatty (1999) research study in the context of clothing/accessories salespeople. It means that the usage and the functional purpose of the product/services are different. The contribution of this research reveal that satisfaction and brand image loyalty have a different impact depend on the product/services itself.

Zhang (2015) explained that there are several studies found that brand image has an impact on customer loyalty but there are still some minor disagreements between different researchers. Especially some studies that found brand image not influences customer directly. It means some other variables could impacts on it through other mediating variables.
For the practitioner or business strategic level should concern mostly with their own mobile internet services, because from this research finding shows that people will easily switch to other brands when they feel other mobile internet services brands give a good offer. Some of mobile internet services users sometime tend to buy a new Sim card when they run out their internet data package. Some of the mobile internet services users also considering the price of the data internet package.

As we can see in the figure 2 shows the percentage of the mobile internet services users each of the brands. There are some new comers in mobile internet services companies. Telekomsel launch for the first time at 26 May 1995, Indosat launch mobile phone cellular in 2001, XL Axiata start their telecommunication sector since 1996, Three got their operation license since 2004 but they start to launch 3G services since 29 March 2007 with the coverage area Jakarta only. By picturing a small view of telecommunication sector shows that the strong competition in communication sector of mobile internet services could easily replace the other competitors who are not strong to maintain their strategic position. The first mover or earlier serve telecommunication sector could be replace by other competitors.

This study aim to answer the following research questions:

1. Is there any influence of the brand image benefits provider to the overall satisfaction of the customer? The result shows only one variable that have positive significant impact on satisfaction. This research study found that only experience that significantly impact on overall satisfaction.

2. Is there any influence of the brand image benefits provider to customer loyalty intention? In this research study found that only experience that significantly impact on customer loyalty intention. The other variables have negative impact on loyalty intention.

3. Is there any influence overall satisfaction with customer loyalty intention? In the context of mobile internet services in Indonesia overall satisfaction has a negative impact on customer loyalty intention. This is from the respondents points of view in Indonesia who are serve by some companies who compete in telecommunication sector.

Limitations and suggestions for the further research

This research study has some limitations. First this research data analysis was conducted using SEM with 244 respondents, it’s still considered to be small. Hair et al (2006) suggested that larger sizes are needed to accommodate continues variable interactions, for example more than 500. Therefore, it would be good for further research to have bigger sample sizes more than 500 respondents.

Second limitation, this research study could not representative for other products or services. This study focus only in mobile internet services brands in Indonesia which is could not be concluded for the general assumption. This result limited the users experience only in mobile internet services. For future research study may conducted in other products or services like smartphone or television.

Third, due to the limitation of the research funding then this research focus only in Indonesia. The limitation of this study is this research conducted with the samples only from Indonesian, it could be different in other countries. Thus, it would be good for another research to be conducted in other geographical areas or countries.

Fourth, Indonesia is one of the developing countries, which is still sensitive with the price of the products or services. Research study by Mendez et al (2015) shows that both monetary and nonmonetary promotions can enhances brand loyalty. It means this study
combine between monetary and nonmonetary to measure the effect of brand loyalty. It would be good for the further research to use monetary value variable related to its products or services brand as the additional variable to measure satisfaction and loyalty intention in the context of brand image.

Conclusion
As (Roellig, 2001) explained that although in general the public might think brand as a logo, but in fact the brand is a combination of all the elements between the physical and emotional characteristics of a company, product or service assessed by consumers in all viewpoints. From this explanation it could conclude that to explaining brand is not only from one perspective but also from complex factors of a brand that embedded in consumer minds that could help them to be loyal to a brand.

The research reveals the important of brand image in another perspective especially in mobile internet service provider in Indonesia. This research has contribution for mobile internet services sector to figure out an effective strategic view to win customer loyalty. The experiential variable plays an important role to attract customer loyalty and satisfaction. Mobile internet services brand get the attention and judgments from customer’s point of view align with their experience, perception, expectations, needs, and goals.

From this research results suggest that maintain and strengthening strategic position for the companies of mobile internet services in Indonesia should point out the experience that would be gain by the consumer. Therefore, mobile internet services should consider experiential as a part of brand image building to maintain the satisfaction and to create brand loyalty.

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Ghozali, I. 2009. Applications Multivariate Analysis With SPSS Program, Badan Penerbit UNDIP.


Gamification in Music Social Network: The Fame Music Case Study

Alessandro Pluda

Abstract

This paper aims at analysing the connection between Customer Relationship (CR) and gamification in a music social media environment through the Fame Music (famemusic.com) case study.

Gamification represents one of the latest digital phenomenon in the development of a better customer relationship and user engagement in social platforms and websites (Deterding et al., 2011). Gamification can represent a powerful tool on encouraging basic and measurable behaviours. However, if considered on a long-term challenge based environment, the implementation of gamified structures can lead the audience to focus more on the game achievements than on the actual tasks with the result that the “gamer” is rewarded more than the hard-worker (Frith, 2013). In recent years, different researches have studied effects of the adoption of game patterns in web platforms (e.g. enhancing positive patterns in service use, such as increasing user activity, social interaction, or quality and productivity of actions) to built and maintain strong relationships with consumers (Hamari et al, 2014; Zichermann & Cunningham, 2011; Kankanhalli et al, 2012; Lucassen & Jansen, 2014).

Moreover, different mobile services have seen in gamification the main driver for business profitability. For instance, Nike+ and Activity by Apple adopted gamification as motivational tool to achieve their goals, by rewarding consumers with badges in competition of challenges. Similarly, Foursquare based its entire app on a Location Based gamified experience where users have to check in into locations to complete tasks and earn badges. (Frith, 2013).

Gamification can be also combined with other elements, developing a hybrid experience for users. To achieve this goal, several e-learning platforms adopted tasks missions and game design in their platform to lighten the learning process (Muntean, 2011).

Although the adoption of game elements might be implemented in different web platforms for several audiences (e.g. Linked In), to date gamification has never been implemented into a music social network.

Fame Music 3.0 is the first music social network introducing a gamification system and combined it with a music e-learning platform. The development of this service is still in progress and would represent a big portion of the context provided to the users. In order to enhance the loyalty of the customers and maintaining the focus on the development of their career as artists, a “Path to success” has been drown upon the concept of an educational gamified structure. The gamification section follows the frame designed by Hamari and Eranti (2011) that provides the best practice in achievement gamification design, but in addition, it integrates it into an educational system that uses the games mechanics to provide the content when the user is ready to receive it. Fame Music gamification systems further allows the development of a new kind of relationship mechanism with the customer that sees the game as a content un-locker and not just as an achievement to maintain engagement.

This system provides the user with a powerful development tool, while imitating the target audience. In addition, the specialisation of the target and the complexity of the development of new content relevant to tasks makes the evolution of the system a slow process that requires time and resources.

The development of a fully functional gamification system on an established music social network creates the conditions of a further study in the subject. As music presents two main players: artists and listeners, the application of this marketing tool can be analysed in correlation with both the segments in order to understand the possible
implication in the customer relationship environment.

Nevertheless future developments of this framework could lead to the implementation of a similar or upgraded system in media social platforms with a similar target audience.

Keywords: gamification, fame music, customer relationship, music social network, e-learning.

References
Frith J. (2013), "Turning life into a game: Foursquare, gamification, and personal mobility", Mobile Media & Communication 1(2) 248–262
The Impact of Loyalty Cards and its Effects on Small and Medium Sized Businesses

Michael Kourtoubelides

Abstract

By drawing on theories of loyalty cards, the purpose of this research paper will focus on the impact of loyalty cards and its effects on small and medium sized businesses (SMEs). Customer loyalty is a highly important marketing outcome for any type of business. The purpose of customer relationship management and loyalty cards has been well documented and the purpose is to therefore redevelop the emphasis of the “traditional corner shop” experience (Crosby 2002; Goodhue et al., 2002). Furthermore evidence suggests that in a highly competitive environment, loyalty cards have become a very popular customer relationship management (CRM) tool to assist closer relationships with customers. The research will also focus on the fact that loyalty schemes tend to be quite diverse with various types of schemes in the market, and whether customers are committed to various types of businesses.

The emphasis will also be based on the fact that regardless of loyalty schemes and strategies, in SMEs tend to be more involved with multi-tasking activities and to maintain and sustain the business. This will also be part of the main emphasis of this research. Moreover the research paper will also focus on the fact that the approach to managing the customer relationship can depend on the managerial style and decision making capacity of the owner manager or the entrepreneur and whether loyalty cards can enhance this relationship between the owner manager, entrepreneur and the customers. (Gilmore, 2011).

The paper will focus on secondary data from published sources in relation to the usage of loyalty cards and small to medium sized businesses, and there will be primary data conducted in relation to interviewing key small business entrepreneurs in relation to key findings from the effectiveness or non-effectiveness of types of loyalty cards that they implement in relation to customer loyalty purposes. In addition, this will include research from SMEs and also refers to larger organisations as well in relation to loyalty cards and customer retention strategies. The differences between large firm marketing and SME marketing are well-documented in current literature (Carson and Gilmore, 2000; Gilmore et al., 2001; O’Dwyer et al., 2009) and such differentiating factors would therefore have an effect on how customer loyalty is managed by SMEs.

The research paper will also illustrate that SMEs have traditionally developed an informal approach to marketing activity and also in relation to establishing customer relationships (O’Dwyer et al., 2009). Furthermore, this study will also discuss how in the early days or development of an SME, the owner manager develops strong links with the core customers of the business with various types of promotional tools, however research will also consider whether loyalty cards can sustain this personalised approach as an additional or alternative strategy to other promotional tools that SMEs may have implemented.

Research will also focus on the development of how small business owner managers can enhance their status in the market through their limited resource base, basic organisational structure and their informal business processes. As final factors to consider for this research paper, it is argued that companies that consider a loyalty program should therefore establish whether the market in which they are operating in is suitable for this type of strategy. Further research has stated that the essence of a good business large or small lies with the quality of the products and services on offer as well as the strength of the brand and the reputation of the organisation (Belizzi and Bristol, 2004).

Keywords: loyalty cards, customer retention strategies, loyalty cards, SMEs
References
Session B2: Physical Environment and Communication

Corporate Communication Through Architecture: Connecting Past, Present and Future
Angela Bargenda

The Practice of Internal CSR Activities Within the Cypriot SME Sector
Ioanna Papasolomou and Yioula Melanthiou

To Study The Effect of Physical Environment Design on Well-Being and its Impact on Brand Performance
Suyash Khaneja, TC Melewar, Kailin Wu and Pantea Foroudi
Corporate Communication through Architecture: Connecting Past, Present and Future

Angela Bargenda

Abstract
The article discusses new insights into the role of corporate architecture as a marketing communications tool. The methodology is based on architectural semiotics applied to marketing to explore the signifying potential of buildings as connectors of an institution’s past, present and future. Transcending purely rhetorical discourse, architecture expresses organisational values and enhances brand engagement. In its expressive dimension, space design holds epistemic and experiential value in the marketing communication mix. By adopting an interpretative approach, the article explores the relevance of architecture as a trust and confidence-building element in the finance sector. An architectural analysis of the French bank LCL in Paris and Rouen aims at demonstrating the correlations between organisational values and architectural expressions. Placing particular emphasis on historical references in two different urban contexts, it is shown how and why architecture contributes to the construct of a solid and substantial identity.

The sign-value of architecture has received only limited attention in marketing scholarship. Thus, the article’s purpose is to fill this research gap by exploring the aesthetic properties of buildings within the scope of marketing literature.

Keywords: architectural branding, financial communication, corporate identity, historical artefacts, european banking sector

Introduction
Recent market turbulences in the financial sector have led to an erosion of consumer trust and image depletion in many banking institutions. In addition to rising public scepticism toward banking institutions in the aftermath of the financial crisis of 2008, traditional retail banks are faced with increased competition from online financial services providers. Adverse consumer attitudes and hyper-competitive market conditions are compelling factors that call for innovative brand communication strategies in the banking sector.

The article seeks to demonstrate the innovative potential of architecture as a corporate communication tool. Architecture not only communicates, but literally stands for corporate values, past, present and future identities of an institution. As the embodiment of organisational house style, architecture provides a visually consumable, multi-sensory brand experience. It not only engages consumers through visual or aesthetic consumption, but carries value-laden, culturally and socially significant forms of expression. If used as a vehicle of meaningful discourse, corporate architecture represents a sustainable and responsible institutional image. McGoun (2004, 1105) argues that the “tangible presence of bank buildings may communicate something to us of our economy, our culture, and our society”.

And yet, architecture is generally not part of the marketing communication mix, as its function as an expressive medium is unfamiliar to most marketing practitioners. As part of a corporate communication strategy, architectural features build reputation, image and an idiosyncratic brand identity and thus significantly impact consumer response.

Architecture not only communicates, but also communicates rhetorically [...]. Architectural items not only tell us their meaning and function, but also influence our behaviour. Architecture is rhetorical because it induces us to do what others would have us to do. Architecture, then, is a persuasive phenomenon, and therefore deserves to be studied by rhetorical critics. (Hattenhauer 1984, 71)

Aims and Research Question
The purpose of the article is to fill the research gap of architectural discourse in the cannon of marketing scholarship. It draws on the rhetorical potential of architecture to show its far-reaching relevance in new models of
effective brand communication. The central research question concerns the extent to which the signifying components of architecture contribute to the establishment of a coherent brand identity encompassing past, present and future. It is argued that architectural rhetoric holds semiotic power, thus generating meaning-laden communication through narrative visual cues.

**Literature Review: Architecture as part of Corporate Visual Identity (CVI)**

Corporate visual identity (henceforth: CVI) research in marketing has originated with scholars such as Birkigt and Stadler (1980), graphic design and communication practitioners, who have created a corporate identity model inclusive of symbolic visualisations. The constitutive elements of CVI chiefly comprise the corporate name, logo, colour and typography. Olins first considers architecture as a “significant tool of business” (Olins 1987, 155), thereby integrating architecture into the academic marketing literature. Melewar and Saunders (1999) hold that a standardised CVI positively impacts recruitment, organisational communication, product and service information, recognition of advertising messages, profit and market share. Schmitt et al. (1995) place a particular emphasis on architecture in corporate identity construct, while Melewar and Saunders (2000) expand the taxonomy of visual identifiers to advertising messages. Subsequently, Balmer et al. (2006) apply Gestalt theory to claim the competitive advantages of a harmonious congruence of visual elements. If packaging and product design have become prominent CVI research topics, the contribution of corporate architecture to the CVI mix remains underrepresented and undertheorised in marketing literature.

Berg and Kreiner (1992, 41) define corporate architecture as the “overall architectonic aspects of the building”, arguing that “corporate surfaces can be seen as a purposeful adaptation to postmodern society with its emphasis on appearance and mass communication” (Berg and Kreiner 1992, 43). Conway and Roenisch (1994, 21) note the dual nature of architecture, physical and symbolic, real and metaphorical, as buildings “express meaning and give certain messages”. In this perspective, Schmitt et al. (1995) and Schmitt and Simonson (1997) particularly show the critical role of architectural discourse in corporate identity-building strategies.

Balmer (2001b) integrates architecture in his corporate brand star, while Burghausen and Balmer (2014) view architecture as part of past-related foundational corporate-level concepts. Perceived as an “expressive system” (Bonta 1979), corporate architecture transcends conventional construction parameters, such as the quality of building materials, environmental regulations, urban planning constraints, etc., to symbolically signify corporate identity. As an alternative route to mass media communication, architectural discourse provides a multi-sensory experience. In architectural branding, meaning and values are created through participation, as the construction of values occurs through actions and not words (Hammad 2002 [1987], 221).

Tangibilising corporate space through architectural space is especially relevant in the service sector, where symbolic form mediates corporate identifiers. Christian Norberg-Schulz (1971, 114) demands from architectural space to form an “imageable structure that offers rich possibilities for identification”. Yanow (1995) notes that architectural styles are interpreted as telling stories in and of themselves, thus reinforcing the architect’s intentions of creating meaningful expression. In this sense, buildings partake in the construct of collective memory, as the interpretation of architecture transcends the boundaries of individual experience to produce culturally and historically shared understanding. Architecture is embedded in a specific time frame and spatiality and has become a major artefact in the aesthetic age. Even if space is often considered as atemporal and not subject to the vicissitudes of time, the interpretation of space dynamically varies and evolves with the historical context. Therefore, if Dovey (1999, xii) argues that “space is
deployed to stabilise time”, it still remains true that the meanings associated with built space vary with time.

The object of semiotics consists in the study of the “exchange of any messages whatever and the systems of signs which underlie them” (Sebeok 1976, 1). In his application of semiotics to consumer research, Mick (1986, 197) states that semiotics “analyses the structures of meaning-producing events, both verbal and nonverbal”. In this perspective, the semiotic exploration in the Peircean sense of a description of the relation between signs and thought or logic (Peirce 1955, 98) offers an ideal conceptual framework for the analysis of architectural discourse. One of the chief proponents of architectural semiotics, Geoffrey Broadbent, notes that “buildings carry meaning in the semantic sense” (1996, 138).

Aesthetic branding plays a particularly important role in bank marketing of the 21st century. Traditional bank architecture has always held a representational function, as the sumptuous headquarters of banks reflect the taste and lifestyle of the moneyed elite. Bank architecture symbolises social status, wealth, and power, thus aesthetically translating notions of “safety” and “security” (McGoun 2004, 1104).

The Beaux-Arts cathedrals of capital resemble prestigious historicist public buildings or department stores that emerged in the second half of the 19th century (Gill 1990). Not unlike notable public or religious buildings, traditional bank architecture exudes assumed authority by establishing hierarchical power structures. Even if Parisien observes that “leading bank designers were fully aware of the advertising value of symbolic architecture” (Parisien 1992, 17), bank buildings are primarily categorised as physical objects rather than forms of communication. However, according to McGoun, “there is a visceral appeal of an architecturally distinguished building to the senses that speaks to us in a way that the cerebral appeal of pure information cannot” (2004, 1085).

The aesthetic presence of the built form symbolically articulates institutional self-understanding and values. Rykwert (2004) argues that private finance and corporate investment have established even more dominant buildings than traditional institutions of political power. Thus, buildings are designed and promoted by planners, developers, financiers and architects to induce specific behavioural responses from users: “Designers often aspire to do more than simply create buildings that are new, functional and attractive – they promise that a new environment will change behaviours and attitudes” (Marmot 2002, 252). Consequently, the accomplishment of new spatial arrangements not only satisfies the iconophilia of post-modern consumers, but addresses profound identity-related concepts and human needs.

Crump (198, 1) observes that, from an anthropological viewpoint, money is a political and economic “idea”. Money, he argues, must always circulate and has therefore “generated its own distinctive institutions” as an intermediary between people to facilitate the exchange of money. These institutions need to be endowed with a distinct identity, so that they cannot be used for non-monetary purposes. Monetary institutions need to be readily identified without any ambiguity.

Today however, due to the growing digitisation of financial services, the industry is undergoing a profound transformation. Scriptural money, which is nothing more than an accounting unit, makes up for an overwhelming part of the monetary mass in circulation. Never before has Simmel’s statement about the dynamic character of money been more verified:

There is no more striking symbol of the completely dynamic character of the world than that of money. The meaning of money lies in the fact that it will be given away. When money stands still, it is no longer money according to its specific value and significance. (Simmel 1978, 510)
Thus, architectural permanence and solidity institute a counterpoint to the fleeting, transient character of money. The transition from physical money to scriptural money leads to significant changes in bank architecture:

As scriptural money expands, we may still need some physical money for certain transactions and as a visual, touchable symbol to reassure us that money is something “real” that we should be willing to accept. But we do not need large, secure-appearing “money warehouses” to store lots of it. (Frandsen et al. 2009, 12)

Consequently, bank architecture increasingly provides space for social activities promoted by the brand to generate a communicative and relational exchange with customers on a human scale. Ittelson et al. (1974, 358) note that buildings confer ideological brand value, as they imply “some form of social activity stemming from both their intended function and the random encounters they may generate. The arrangement of partitions, rooms, doors, windows, and hallways serves to encourage or hinder communication and, to this extent, affects social interaction”. The henceforth multi-purpose nature of corporate buildings makes that they “enter the cultural sphere as real estate, as corporate image, and as architecture” (Martin 2010, xvii, italics by Martin). The symbolic mediation of corporate identity through architecture is based on the idiosyncratic parameters of bank architecture. Any deviation from conventional patterns elicits changes in consumer behaviour, as the format of the layout directly affects client interface.

**Methodology: Architectural Semiotics**

The introduction of semiotic concepts and approaches to marketing extends conventional research methodology towards an interdisciplinary field of investigation. Applied to marketing scholarship, architectural semiotics creates inroads into culturally-determined corporate identifiers by exploring the process by which meaningful communication is generated. In 2009, *Semiotica* published a themed issue on *Signification and Space*, featuring the most recent pluridisciplinary contributions to this field. Meaning is generated through the right measurement of objects in relation to their use. Disposition and distribution, ordering, rhythm and proportions are the constitutive elements of meaningful architecture (Pellegrino and Jeanneret 2009, 274). Following Jencks’s and Baird’s (1969) study of meaning in architecture, Eco (1997 [1973], 1968) applied semiotic concepts to architecture, indicating its symbolic value, while Dorfles (1971) created an interpretative model of architecture as a sign system.

Barthes (1970, 1967, 1964, 1957) introduced semiotics to the marketing discipline in the 1960s. He considers architecture as a cultural product and states in his *Elements of Semiology* that if architecture were devoid of meaning, it would stay outside of the realm of culture and cease to be architecture (Barthes 1967). Architecture is thus to be studied as a cultural system, i.e. a system of signs through which people interpret their environment.

In 1960, Rykwert published his essay *Meaning in Building*, placing an emphasis on the emotional power of buildings, relating his research to sociology, anthropology, psychology and advertising. He calls for a semantic study of the environment to interpret the discursive power of buildings.

To illustrate the meaning-generating potential of buildings, a semiotic analysis of architectural design of the French bank LCL is presented. The historical headquarters in Paris and the local branch in Rouen, Normandy, are analysed to explore the relationship of past, present and future architectural expressions in specific urban territories.
Case studies: LCL in Paris and Rouen

LCL in Paris

Founded in 1863 by Henri Germain in Lyon, Crédit Lyonnais was the largest bank in the world in 1900. It was bought by Crédit Agricole in 2003 and renamed LCL in 2005. As one of the world’s leading financial institutions, Crédit Lyonnais has from its beginnings accorded greatest importance to its architectural representation (Desjardins et al. 2003). The main branch in Paris was built by the reputed architect William Bouwens van der Boijen, architect of the city of Paris and personally acquainted with the members of high finance (Pinchon 1992, 111).

The 36-meter high main façade on the Boulevard des Italiens is modelled after the central pavilion (pavillon de l’Horloge) of the Louvre museum. The stone cladding is typical Haussmannian manner, whereas the inside of the building features some of the most advanced techniques of 19th-century iron and glass industrial architecture. The double Serlian windows on the ground floor and the first floor formally structures the building in ancient Greek and Roman style, featuring a curvilinear pediment supported by four caryatides.

Inspired by the great classical styles of the 17th and 18th centuries, the values conveyed by the eclectic style of public buildings are authentically national: taste, equilibrium and harmony (Pinchon 1992, 66). As banks sought to confer the same image of stability and prosperity as public institutions, they adopted similar stylistic patterns. The aesthetic appeal of the façade seeks to inspire trust in a fiduciary relationship between the bank and prospective clients. Classical elements of architecture are synthesised into a new typology of buildings, with sculptural elements in the pediment providing interpretative cues. For example, the central sculpture of the city of Lyon metaphorically represents the bank, while the rivers Rhône and Seine indicate the topographical axis from Lyon to Paris. The two professional categories most directly linked with banking activities, commerce and industry, also prominently appear as sculpted allegories.

In his studies on visual theory and brand culture, Schroeder (2010 [2007], 288) notes that “the physical attributes of the bank have played an important role in projecting a proper image, including stability over time, financial and material strength, and financial and physical security”. He notes that classicism ideally transmits the key attributes of banks conceptualised as the 4 S’s: Stability, Strength, Security, and Speed (Schroeder, 2003).

In the architectural syntax of the historic building, the building materials are endowed with meaning. If iron, for example, carries no semantic content in itself, as part of the instantiated syntax /iron-glass-concrete/, it conveys a message. This message, however, is also historically determined, as the meaning generated in the second half of the 19th century differs from today’s meaning, since the use of iron no longer signifies /newness/.
Thus, a semiotic reading of the building materials could be presented in a semiotic frame. The signifier concerns the concrete, material form of the sign as experienced through the senses, whereas the signified refers to the mental concept of the sign (Chandler 2002, 18-9).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Signifier</th>
<th>Signified</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Haussmannian</td>
<td>Modernity, innovation, technology, safety, functionality, progress, positivism, science, engineering, industrial age.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paris, bourgeoisie, elite, capitalistic aesthetics.</td>
<td>Modernity, innovation, technology, safety, functionality, progress, positivism, science, engineering, industrial age.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As signifying units, the signifieds of /modernity/, /industrial age/, /progress/, /innovation/ become signifiers of a second semantic concatenation. They signify in turn the promise of capital gains for the clients, investment opportunities in innovative public infrastructures, such as the rail system, train stations, etc.

In Mythologies, Roland Barthes (1957) applies semiotics to marketing and modern consumerism, stating that the first semiotic chain constitutes the plane of denotation, whereas the second level of articulation represents the plane of connotation or myth. Thus, the building materials metonymically refer to the bank’s activity as a deposit and investment institution, both serving the financial objectives of its clients and the industrial and scientific advancement of the nation. The capitalistic myth-making signals profits and wealth, economic development and the emergence of a new social psychology shared by the financial elite.

Henri Lefebvre, in The Production of Space, stresses the interpretative instability of space as a result of historical changes:

Space itself, at once a product of the capitalist mode of production and an economico-political instrument of the bourgeoisie, will now be seen to embody its own contradictions. The dialectic thus emerges from time and actualises itself, operating now, in an unforeseen manner, in space. The contradictions of space, without abolishing the contradictions which arise from historical time, leave history behind and transport those old contradictions, in a worldwide simultaneity, onto a higher level; there some of them are blunted, others exacerbated, as this contradictory whole takes on a new meaning and comes to designate “something else” – another mode of production. (Lefebvre 1998 [1974], 181)

LCL in Rouen

In 2005, the bank underwent a profound process of transformation, which included changes of name and logotype to accompany the transition from Crédit Lyonnais to LCL. The transformation of the visual charter had a bearing on the design of local branches, as the following case of LCL in the capital city of Normandy, Rouen, illustrates.

Located in the historic city centre, the branch features two distinct façades on two streets, an exceptional architectural arrangement for a bank branch. The first facade is located on 99, rue du Gros Horloge, the main touristic and historic hub of the city (Figure 4). The second facade is located on 48, rue Jeanne d’Arc, the city’s financial and trade sector (Figure 5).

In the aftermath of WWII, the municipality started a vast rehabilitation program of the city’s numerous timber houses, as large parts of the historic centre were destroyed. One of the finest buildings, typifying regional architecture, was bought by the Crédit Lyonnais in 1920 (Jacques 1993, 194). As an extension to this original branch, the bank
built a second building on the perpendicular rue Jeanne d’Arc in the 1950’s. It features the modernist style characteristic of many buildings of Rouen’s post-war reconstruction period and is inspired by Auguste Perret’s interpretation of neo-classical architecture. Paying tribute to 18th and 19th-century rationalism, Perret formally based his buildings on historical typologies executed in new materials, especially reinforced concrete. Thus, the double image-perception of the bank branch spans both the city’s picturesque medieval and Renaissance past with the original building on rue du Gros Horloge and classical and modernist references on rue Jeanne d’Arc.

The archetypal medieval building features a gable with a timber roof truss, corbels, and Saltire timber framing evocative of Flemish Gothic style, which was frequently imported from the Netherlands (Chaline 2013, 141). Thus, the picturesque façades of Flemish Renaissance buildings connote commercial stability, as the first stock market was built in Anvers in 1531 in flamboyant Gothic style by Dominicus van Waghemakere.

On the modernist façade, the classical spatial syntax conveys values of harmony, equilibrium and taste, remaining a formal reference throughout the 19th century in Europe. Hence, the high elevation of the modernist frontispiece of the Jeanne d’Arc façade is reminiscent of the Beaux-Arts taxis (i.e. arrangement of features in a building) of the Parisian building on Boulevard des Italiens.

In modernism, the eclectic Beaux-Arts style is transformed into a more sober, unemotional, but elegant structure. The massive volumetric elevation of reinforced-concrete pilasters invariably refers to neo-classicist aesthetics, while technically pointing to a new era.

Eisenman (1996 [1987], 212) notes that architecture from the 15th century to the present was placed under the influence of the three “fictions” representation, reason, history, identified by Baudrillard (1983, 83), which have persisted throughout architectural history, despite the apparent succession of styles, such as classicism, neoclassicism, romanticism, modernism, postmodernism. The underlying purpose of each fiction was to embody the idea of meaning. Applying reason was to codify the idea of truth, history was to recover the idea of the timeless from the idea of change.

Western architectural history can therefore be considered as a continuity of past, present and future, since the fundamental paradigm of the classical, from the Renaissance to modernism, consists in representing timeless, meaningful and true architecture. The concept of classicism is thus taken in a wider scope and cannot be limited to historicist architecture. For Eisenman, the abstract relational systems of modernism and Renaissance architecture share a common deeper structure.

Applied to the Gothic and modernist façades of LCL in Rouen, it can be noted that, despite their historical anachronism, the congruence...
in terms of architectural thought creates a conceptual syncretism at a deeper level. The fiction of the simulation of meaning adopts the same structuring principles of verticality, symmetry, proportions, and harmony.

The most prominent structuring principles exhibited in these buildings are the pilasters and the mullions that accentuate the vertical dominance of both façades. Bachelard (1947, 17-8) states that verticality is essential, sure, supreme and irrefutable and that, once it is recognised by the human mind in its immediacy and direct presence, it appears that “all valorisation is verticalisation”. Extrapolating from Eco’s (1972, 108-9) semiotic analysis of columns, semantic connotations can be derived from this heightened verticality. Using the Aristotelian concept of endoxa (i.e. general opinions or socially codified acquired habits), the morphological structures of verticality carry architectural, historical and aesthetic connotations. Architecturally, they refer to solidity, harmony, sumptuousness and repetitive unity. Historically, they evoke veneration, last relics left standing, the patina of millennia, time-defying permanence. Aesthetically, they connote aristocratic loftiness, aspiration towards heaven, slender bodies, universality, legendary purity, audacity. Each building superbly represents a paragon of its respective style and stands out as a most notable model of its epoch.

As part of the city’s architectural lexemes, the bank buildings are aligned with the surrounding urban fabric. The facade on rue du Gros Horloge, for example, is embedded in an historical ensemble, featuring the Gros Horloge with its 14th-century astronomical clock, a Renaissance pavilion, a Gothic belfry and a Louis XV fountain (Figure 6).

Findings
It is legitimate to consider space conception as an experiential marketing channel. The individual space experience at the present time overlaps with the cognitive associations of historical time elapsed, thus imbuing present spatial gestures with historicity. Bridging the gap between past and present integrates the time-space relationship into a timeless canon. Martinidis (1986, 382) specifically calls for the identification of perennial coding rules that constitute the core of institutional identity: “For a semiotic-epistemologic approach to architectural and urban theories, the question is to develop the leading principles of these theories and their special adaptations and transformations throughout historical changes, in order to specify the ‘deep rules’ from which they evolve”. In a specific cultural context, people recognise forms, identify them and attribute a shared meaning. The canonical interpretation of stylistic patterns elicits a common reaction to architecture from Renaissance to modern times.

Discussion
The multi-faceted visual identity of LCL reveals a deep-seated adherence to culturally recognised referent systems and architectural structures: as urban space, the façades reflect the historical trajectory of surrounding buildings. In the banking context, the Gothic and modernist façades of the Rouen building could be semiotically read as double-sided
coins and banknotes. In addition, the stylistic plurality widens the attractiveness for audiences, as some publics might have a penchant for medieval architecture, while others prefer the sober modernist style. Another level of connotation consists in the fact this syncretic bank architecture, based on classical paradigms, confers respectability and longevity, prosperity and permanence (Nisbet 1990, 8).

The semiotic code of LCL consists in the promotion of dynamic traditionalism. The bank either transforms earlier buildings into banks - a process typified as “Adapted Historical” (Frandsen et al. 2009, 19) -, or they erect new buildings in vernacular style. However, if institutions do not make the past relevant for the present, they become obsolete entities. The institutional dynamics of historical artefacts have become prime assets in reputation and image management (Bargenda 2015, 2014a, 2014b, 2013).

Managerial Implications
Architectural brand communication provides a valuable marketing tool for practitioners in the creation of future scenarios in terms of corporate sustainability and responsible communication. As an open-ended, polysemic mode of expression, architectural discourse conveys multiple levels of meaning, given that “buildings are not simply texts, and architectural history is not simply a process of reading them” (Whyte 2006, 177). When implementing processes of institutional change, the genius loci needs to be protected and conserved as an essential concretisation of organisational identity within ever new historical contexts (Norberg-Schulz 1996, 422). Melewar and Sounders (2000) have presented an extended marketing mix model of visual identifiers, in which architecture could play a significant future role.

Conclusion and Further Research
The physical facilities of banks ideally lend themselves to branding initiatives. Davison (2014, 2013, 2009) shows that visual branding is favourably perceived by consumers, particularly in the highly competitive banking sector. The aesthetisation of the past carries civilisational values, thus accruing cultural capital for the brand. Especially in the finance sector, institutions capitalise on a repertoire of past cultural norms and forms to institute a positive identity with their constituencies. Historically-related concepts, such as tradition and nostalgia, are becoming ever more important in marketing practice and scholarship (Balmer 2013; 2011a; 2011b). The past conveys legitimacy to the present, and past-related concepts hold totemic significance in today’s “resemantisation” of the environment (Welsch 1987, 116).

Consumer behaviour in late capitalism is increasingly determined by the quest for meaning (Mick and Oswald 2006; Mick et al. 2004; Mick 1986). Meaning and consumption are commingled in the way consumers construe their world, determined by individualism, immateriality and the imaginary (Semprini 2005, 42). As a vehicle of signification in the aesthetic age, architecture spawns diverse communication territories. Architectural cues link past, present and future into a meaningful and sustainable identity conveying permanence and trust.

Architectural semiotics is a nascent field of investigation that marshals a new orientation in marketing research. Further research could explore the relationship between architectural discourse and consumer behaviour, customer segmentation, CRM, image management and identity building.

References


The Practice of Internal CSR Activities within the Cypriot SME Sector

Ioanna Papasolomou and Yioula Melanthiou

Abstract

Vogel (2005) and Kuhn and Deetz, (2008) claim that internal CSR practice has been neglected. However, employees are considered to be one of the most important stakeholder groups and play a significant role in the success and growth of an organization. The existent CSR literature suggests that effective internal CSR programs have the potential to increase employee morale and productivity, attract potential employees and enhance corporate reputation (Turban and Greening, 1996). There is also evidence to suggest that an ethical, safe and motivating work environment has a positive impact on employee commitment towards the organisation, increases employee productivity and performance and generates positive employee attitudes towards the company (Sims and Keon, 1997). In the context of this paper, internal CSR is defined as the voluntary actions a company takes to pursue social goals to promote the well-being of employees (Carroll and Shabana, 2010). These actions and practices are directly related to the working environment of employees essentially in areas such as health and well-being, training and participation in the organisation, equal opportunities in the workplace and work-life balance (Turker, 2009). If implemented successfully these actions could potentially impact favourably the employees’ physical and psychological environment (Davis et al., 2006).

The literature reviewed suggests that there is a need to shed more light onto the impact of internal CSR practice on employees and their behaviour in the workplace (Turker 2009; Lee and Bruvold 2003; Aguilera, Ruth, Rupp, William and Ganapathi 2007; VanBuren 2005). The review of the relevant CSR literature is rather limited in terms of what internal CSR is and the way in which it is practiced within corporations (i.e. the tools used to implement it). Similarly, this study is perhaps the first of its kind to be carried out in Cyprus.

The paper draws empirical evidence from a research study in fulfilment of the MBA degree requirements. Data was collected from 180 employees working within SMEs in various sectors in Cyprus. Specifically, the study examined the employees’ perceptions in relation to four dimensions of internal CSR practice that were identified in the relevant literature reviewed. These dimensions which are in essence human resource management tools used in a CSR context are: (1) health and safety in the workplace, (2) organisational justice and fairness, (3) employee training and personal development, and (4) work-life balance. The results showed that although these four internal CSR dimensions are perceived by the employees to be implemented within the corporations studied as the means of practising internal CSR and demonstrating responsibility towards the employees’ well-being in reality, the degree of their successful implementation varies. The evidence derived from the data analysis shows that the emphasis is primarily on employee training and personal development, health and safety in the workplace as well as organisational justice and fairness whereas the work-life balance dimension appears to be rather neglected.

Keywords: internal csr, health and safety in the workplace, organisational justice and fairness, employee training and personal development, work-life balance, Cypriot SMEs.

Introduction: What is CSR?

The EU definition of CSR suggests that CSR reflects organisational concerns towards the society and the physical environment. Central to this is the idea that social and environmental concerns are voluntarily integrated in their business operations.” (Commission Green Paper 2001). In the commission’s Green Paper is clear that a critical aspect of CSR is the way businesses interact with their internal and external stakeholders.

Indeed, CSR has been studied by researchers since the 1950s (Carroll, 1999), but there is a lot of confusion and misunderstanding in the way CSR is defined, why and whether it should be implemented and the way in which it should be practised within corporations (Welford, 2004). Several authors have described the topic as too broad and complex and hence, it is quite difficult to provide a universally accepted definition (Mohr, Webb and Harris, 2001; Smith and Langford, 2009). Godfrey and Hatch (2007) claim that the difficulty in developing a single, universally accepted definition for CSR is primarily due to
the plethora of views within the academic literature, which create confusion.

Undoubtedly, more and more organisations today have embraced CSR and have incorporated it into their business operations. They engage in several CSR activities that are aimed at benefitting primarily the natural environment, the local communities in which they operate and the society at large. The popularity of adopting and practicing CSR activities is not primarily initiated by an altruistic drive but rather by an attempt to enhance corporate reputation and build goodwill and trust between the organization and its various stakeholder groups.

Ali et al (2010) suggest that CSR has internal and external practices. According to Ali et al (2010) internal CSR addresses the needs and well-being of employees, encourages diversity in the workplace, prioritizes the employees’ health and well-being in the work place, highlights the importance of providing employee benefits both monetary and non-monetary. These concepts were incorporated into organizational HRM practices back in the 60s and 70s as required by the legal frameworks and public policies. Today though, those organisations that claim to be investing and implementing in internal CSR activities should not be solely driven by a legal obligation but rather by a desire to be responsible and ethical.

The internal CSR practices are primarily directed towards the company’s employees and relate to investing in human capital (Ali et al., 2010). Martinuzzi, Gisch-Boie and Wiman (2010), stipulate that internal CSR integration is founded on fair and efficient HRM practices such as workforce health and safety, employee respect and freedom, lack of discrimination and diversity in the workplace. Turker (2009) suggests that internal CSR practices are directly related to the physical and psychological working environment of employees. Vires (2006) posits that internal CSR reflects a concern for the health and well-being of employees, their training and participation in the business, equality of opportunities, work-family relationship.

The existent literature on internal CSR shows that CSR is practiced internally through the implementation of HRM activities/tools. This implementation is guided by the central CSR principle highlighted previously i.e. a drive and a desire to be responsible and ethical towards the company’s employees.

The existent literature suggests that CSR activities have a direct positive impact on human resource management practices such as improving trust and understanding, increasing employee commitment, motivation, efficiency, and supporting organization’s culture and communication effectiveness (Jenkins, 2001). A study carried out by Kramar (2004) across 25 countries showed that employees felt greater loyalty, satisfaction and motivation when their organizations were practicing internal CSR. Calvers (2013) suggested that internal CSR (e.g., human resources practices such as training and labor participation) can improve firm’s labor productivity.

**Employees as Stakeholders**

Simmons (2004) states that businesses are faced with the challenge of managing many diverse stakeholder groups an issue which has implications for the way organisations their organizational responsibilities. Several authors claim that when a firm seeks to serve its shareholders its success in doing so will possibly be affected by other stakeholders (Foster and Jonker, 2005; Hawkins, 2006). A study carried out by Papasolomou-Doukakis, Krambia-Kapardis and Katsioloudes in 2005 in the context of Cypriot businesses showed that stakeholders invariably affect or are affected by business organizations and therefore can be seen as imposing on them different responsibilities. They identified six groups as key stakeholders namely employees, customers, investors, suppliers, the community and the environment and delineated relevant CSR actions within each cluster. Their findings suggested that Cypriot firms primarily focus their attention to employees and consumers in implementing CSR, whilst they give moderate attention to their community, suppliers, investors, and the environment.

Barnett (2007) claimed that CSR is a form of corporate investment characterized by a dual orientation towards the improvement of social welfare and of stakeholder relations. This focus on stakeholder relations explains why employees, as a stakeholder group, impact CSR policy. According to Greenwood (2007), the employees are one of the primary stakeholders of a corporation to whom the firm has a duty and a responsibility to behave
in an ethical and responsible manner (Lee et al., 2013). Firstly, employees can act as agents for social change when they push corporations to adopt socially responsible behavior (Aguilera et al., 2007). Secondly, environmental policy demonstrates that the employees’ support is necessary to secure effective CSR programs and policies (Ramus and Steger, 2000). Thirdly, employees as a stakeholder group perceive, evaluate, judge and react to CSR programs and actions (Rowley & Berman, 2000; Rupp et al., 2006; Wood and Jones, 1995).

**CSR Impact on Employees**

The literature reviewed suggested that a corporation’s socially responsible practices send a positive signal to potential workers (Spence, 1973; Ashforth and Mael, 1989). The existent literature also showed that employees are more likely to affiliate with a responsible organization, if their personal values are in agreement with organisational values (Strand, Levine and Montgomery, 1981). Certain studies have also showed that a socially responsible reputation impacts favourably corporate attractiveness for potential employees such (Albinger and Freeman, 2000; Blackhaus, Stone and Heiner, 2002; Greening and Turban, 2000; Luce, Barber and Hillman, 2001).

CSR directed towards employees can be perceived positively by both potential and current employees and the society at large. The literature suggests that the employees’ perception of CSR activities contributes significantly in increasing employee loyalty and commitment and decreasing the employee turnover rate within the firm (Lee et al., 2013). Riordan, Gatewood and Bill (1997) used a company’s external corporate image as an indicator for social performance, and found that the employees’ positive perceptions of a corporation’s reputation can have a positive impact on job satisfaction, whereas their impact on employee turnover and turnover intentions can be negative.

These studies provide empirical evidence for CSR’s influence on employee (or organizational) commitment (Aguilera, Rupp, Ganapathi and Williams, 2006; Brammer, Millington and Rayton, 2007; Maignan and Ferrell, 2001a and b; Maignan, Ferrell and Hult, 1999; Peterson, 2004). Except for Aguilera et al. (2006)’s study that focused on the impact of CSR on job performance and Valentine and Fleischman’s (2008) paper that focused on perceived CSR impact on job satisfaction, no other studies have explored CSR influence on employees’ attitudes and behavior beyond organizational commitment. The empirical studies that have investigated the ‘internal’ impact of CSR on employees tend to focus mostly on specific dimensions of organizational commitment (Brammer et al., 2007; Maignan and Ferrell, 2001; Peterson, 2004).

**CSR in Europe and in SMEs**

The European Parliament, NGOs and trade unions advocate the mandatory regulation and reporting of organisational impact on the society and the environmental and emphasize the need for transparency. The practice of CSR by the European business sector remains primarily a voluntary initiative. Saying that though a number of CSR initiatives promoted by EC Directorates Generals have attempted to raise awareness and increase the understanding among stakeholder groups and the general public in relation to CSR activities (CSR Report 2007; Howitt 2008).

Studies have shown that the CSR practice varies significantly across EU countries. According to Mullerat (2013) the leader in terms of CSR practice and understanding in Europe is perceived to be the UK since it has brought together the world’s leading academics, practitioners and campaigners in the field. A number of reasons have contributed to this primarily a strong business focus supported by equivalently strong legal framework aimed at complementing voluntary initiatives and fostering CSR, as well as a dedicated and dynamic NGO community that crusades for CSR. French corporations are increasingly becoming more active on CSR practices (Berthoin and Sobczake 2007). According to Mullerat (2013), in France, the growth and development of CSR has been constrained by state regulations and agreements governing labour relations, whilst in Germany CSR is still at an infancy stage. When it comes to the practice of CSR in Italy this is primarily driven by the financial and banking sectors. The implementation of CSR in Sweden is directly linked to the long-term profitability goals of corporations (Energy Dalen 2005) suggesting that Swedish companies view CSR as a tool for future growth and development.
One could suggest that the economic growth in the EU is partly but significantly attributed to the 23 million SMEs that actively engage in trading and provide around 75 million jobs and account for 99% of all enterprises. The European Multi-stakeholder Forum on CSR in 2004 revealed that there is little knowledge and understanding on the extent to which CSR is implemented within SMEs and its impact. In the EU 2020 Strategy the EC stresses the importance of CSR among SMEs for growth, job creation and sustainable development. Since CSR was primarily created by and for larger companies, several EU public policy initiatives are targeted at familiarizing SMEs with the CSR concept and demonstrate practical approaches for its successful implementation.

The EC funded the Leonardo da Vinci project “Sustainability and Social Responsibility through learning in SMEs” with the aim to transfer and further develop an innovative methodology based on the Balanced Scorecard approach (a strategic performance management tool) to the development of a CSR strategy within SMEs in Europe. Partners from Bulgaria, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Portugal, Spain and Romania participated in the project between 2008 and 2010.

The study’s sample was determined by using the probability sampling method. A total of 180 usable questionnaires out of 200 self-administered questionnaires were collected from local SMEs across a number of sectors in order to gain a more representative picture of the internal CSR practice in Cyprus. The questionnaire consisted of measurement statements that were based on a five-point Likert-scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. The questionnaire was pilot tested before it was used. The data was analyzed by using frequency distribution statistics. Multiple items were used in the questionnaire with a five-point measure scale. The research findings rely heavily on descriptive statistics and the data was processed and analyzed by using SPSS.

The Study
The methodological approach that guided the specific study was the deductive since the aim was to investigate the relationship between employee organizational commitment and internal CSR practices namely, employee training and development, justice and fairness in the workplace, health and safety at work, work-life balance. The deductive approach is related to developing theories and hypotheses that will be used in a research strategy for testing the relationships between these variables. This requires a collection of quantitative data and sampling of an adequate population size (Saunders et al., 2009). Descriptive research aims to capture and provide an accurate and detailed picture of the environment. Therefore, it is important to have a clear overview of the phenomena that are going to be examined, prior to collecting the data (Collis and Hussey, 2003). Descriptive research aims at addressing “what?” questions and utilizes quantitative and statistical techniques in the process of data collection (Collis and Hussey, 2003). The use of a questionnaire enables the researchers to perform a statistical analysis of data which is structured and formalized and allows a high degree of control. Since the primary was to gain an overall understanding of whether the local business sector has adopted internal CSR activities and whether these appear to have an impact on the employees’ level of commitment the use of a quantitative research study was justified.

Research Findings
From a total of 180 employees, who completed and returned the questionnaires, 104 were females (57.85%) and 76, were males (42.2%). The majority of participants (45%) were 26-35 years old. 91.7% were full-time employees with a Bachelor’s degree. Approximately, 40% of the participants were working in organizations with more than 100 employees but less than 250, followed by 28% working in organizations with 51-100 employees. Approximately, 8% of the participants were employed in firms with more than 150 employees and less than 250. The remaining 34% were employed in firms with less than 50 employees. 30.56% of the employees worked in the retailing industry, 60.56% in professional services, 5.56% in healthcare services and 3.33% in education. Less than 37.2% of the sample, have been employed for less than a year, 28.9% of the sample have been employed between 1-3 years, 16.7% have been employed for 4-6 years and 17% for 7-10 years.
Employee Training and Development

In the Cyprus study, seven items were used in the questionnaire to measure the extent to which the employees are offered training and personal development opportunities as part of the company’s internal CSR initiative and practice (Figure 1).

When the respondents were asked to express their perceptions in terms of whether they felt that their organization encourages and supports them in participating in training and personal development programs, 60% agreed and 15% strongly agreed. 84% claimed that their employer provides them with opportunities for ongoing training and development. When though they were asked whether their organization allows the employees time to learn new skills that will prepare them for future jobs 35% had a positive view, 19% had a negative view and 46% were neutral.

The data analysis revealed that the majority of the participants (52.8%) feel that their employer invests in social activities aimed at strengthening the quality of employee relationships whilst when it came to the quality of internal communication 52.8% of the sample supported that the top down flow of information is effective. When the employees studied were asked whether their managers praise them and show appreciation for their efforts, 52.2% were neutral and 47.8% felt that they were appreciated for their efforts.

Work-Life Balance

Five items were used in the Cyprus study to measure the extent to which the participants experience a work-life balance as an integral part of the practice of internal CSR within the organizations in which they work. The mean score presented in Figure 2 below shows that there is a significant negative response which implies that this specific dimension of internal CSR is not effective within the organizations studied.

When the employees studied were asked...
whether they have achieved a balance between work and their personal life the findings showed that there is a significant negative response. 30% of the employees studied had strong negative perceptions and another 30.6% had negative perceptions. Overall, this statement received a mean score 2.25 which implies a strong negative employee perception in terms of balancing work and personal/social life. Only 15.5% of the sample had positive perceptions and the remaining 23.9% of the sample were neutral.

The majority of the respondents (55%) were neutral when they were asked whether their supervisor shows an understanding if they experience any personal/family issues that might influence their work. In addition, 28.3% of the sample had negative perceptions and only a relatively small percentage (16.7%) had positive perceptions. 40% of the employees studied “look forward to being with their colleagues every day”, 32% were neutral and 28% disagreed. Only 10% of the sample stated that their organization takes initiatives to help them manage and balance work-life. This statement received a high negative response with almost 50% of the respondents having a strong negative perception. It seems that local businesses have failed to demonstrate an understanding towards the importance of helping their employees to balance work and family responsibilities. The study also revealed that the majority of participants (86%) are happy with the insurance coverage offered to employees, this statement actually received the highest mean score of the index (4.05), and also 73% of the respondents agreed in that their organization provides a comfortable working environment to them. It can be suggested that the SMEs studied have not managed to successfully implement the work-life dimension of the internal CSR practice.

In recent years employees have to deal with increased work and home responsibilities, primarily because of various demographic and workplace changes, such as: a greater number of women in the workforce (dual-career couples), the changing family structure (a rise in the number of single parents), and the rise of the 24 per 7 society. These changes create conflicts between the different roles that individuals have and some corporations appear to address this issue through various practices such as working from home schemes. But the Cypriot firms studied appear to be failing in successfully implementing this tool to demonstrate a genuine interest towards their internal market of employees.

Organisational Justice and Fairness
The study that was carried out in Cyprus focuses on procedural justice. The researcher used a four-item index (Figure 3).

60% of the respondents agreed with the statement that the “process used to conduct my performance appraisal is fair”. When the participants were asked whether the “process used to make a decision about promotion is fair”, 65% of the respondents had a neutral view. When the participants were asked whether the “process used to determine their salary is fair” again there was also a relatively high neutral view (56.7%). When the participants were asked whether the “process used to address any complaints about the firm is fair” 46.1% of the sample agreed with the statement.

Ethical behaviour and fairness in the workplace need to be reflected in the organizational policies and processes through which firms ensure that employees are treated fairly and equally (Collier and Esteban, 2007). Carroll (1979) suggests that procedural justice can be placed within the domain of ethical citizenship (Meyer and Allen, 1990). According to Colquitt (2001) and Saks (2006), procedural justice refers to the employees’ perceived fairness of the processes by which outcomes are allocated. Undoubtedly, corporations today need to adopt and maintain principles of transparency and openness and contact their business with integrity and fairness both externally and internally.
Internally. Organizational justice has become a focus of major focus of management research in recent years, due to its connection with numerous employee outcomes; satisfaction, commitment, trust and reduced levels of turnover have all been associated with an employee’s perceived level of justice in their workplace.

Kim, Lin, and Leung (2013) collected survey data from 151 employees across a wide variety of organizations in Hong Kong, including participants from the finance, service, information technology, manufacturing, and education industries. In particular, they measured fairness perceptions, job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment. They found that changes in procedural justice significantly explained variances in job satisfaction. Higher perceptions of procedural justice by employees are more likely to reciprocate with greater organizational engagement (Saks, 2006) and an employees’ positive evaluation of their supervisor (McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992).

**Health and Safety Standards in the workplace**

Respondents’ perception for health and safety in their workplace was measured by using a four-item index. The mean scores are presented in the figure above (Figure 4).

Figure 4 suggests that the total mean scores for health and safety were relatively high, above the neutral central. In general, the respondents have a high positive view (64%) in relation to the health and safety standards provided by their employers. 73% claimed that their company provides them with a comfortable working environment. It also seems that the employees are happy with the insurance coverage provided by their employers (86%). However, when the employees were asked whether their employer requires them to work reasonable hours 47% had a negative perception and 29% had a positive view.

The literature reviewed showed that health and safety in the workplace focuses mostly on standards and procedures that concern the employees’ health and safety. From a human resource management perspective the organisations studied appear to be meeting their obligations towards their employees when it came to health and safety in the workplace. But did they address the individuals’ concerns for working too hard and for too long? Hence, care for their employees concerns and needs? No. It seems that they still have a lot of work to this end. Even though the employees expressed a strong favourable perception towards their work environment when it came to the time spent at work most of them felt that they work too many hours potentially creating stress and anxiety.

**Conclusion and Managerial Implications**

The descriptive statistics of the internal CSR dimensions studied demonstrate that the local business sector has adopted four specific HRM tools to demonstrate a caring and socially responsible attitude towards their workforce and hence, practice internal CSR. Namely these internal CSR dimensions were: employee training and development (mean score, 3.63), health and safety at work (mean score, 3.63), work-life balance (mean score, 2.85), organizational justice and fairness (mean score, 3.10). It is evident that some activities are more successfully implemented than others based on the perceptions of employees. The local SMEs studied seem to emphasize employee training and development and health and safety at work whereas work-life balance and organizational justice and fairness appear to be taking second place in terms of importance. There is a need though to acknowledge the fact that employees are asked to balance increased work and home responsibilities. If this specific
need is not identified, accepted and effectively addressed by their employers, it can lead to increased work stress, frustration, low employee motivation, morale and productivity. Similarly, an inability or unwillingness to achieve organisational justice and fairness can cause internal conflicts, friction, employee discontent, internal competition and employee turnover. It is evident that the corporations studied use human resource management tools as means to demonstrate their social responsibility towards their workforce. In theory, these tools are seen as the means to exhibit a socially responsible behaviour towards the firms’ internal market of employees. In practice though, one could claim that the attempt is failing as some of these activities are not effectively implemented and managed. It seems that these activities have maintained their ‘traditional’ nature that is: being tools used by the management to achieve organisational goals. If the firms are using these tools under a CSR umbrella in order to demonstrate a genuine caring and responsible behaviour towards their employees, then they need to ensure that these are ‘redesigned’ to have a more ‘people’/‘internal customer’ nature. Hence, the current approach appears to be problematic. Practicing successfully internal CSR activities is not easy for businesses. It is challenging, time consuming, and resource demanding. But one should not claim to be engaging in internal CSR initiatives if is not willing to genuinely invest in the interest and well-being of employees and hence, adopt a more ‘employee’ driven implementation approach of these activities. Then the benefits of having happy, satisfied and motivated employees are enough to out weight these costs.

References


http://www.insightlink.com/employee_commitment.html>


To Study the Effect of Physical Environment Design on Well-Being and its Impact on Brand Performance

Suyash Khaneja, TC Melewar, Kailin Wu and Pantea Foroudi

Abstract
This paper describes the elements of physical environment design: ambience, artefacts and spatial layout which enhance the well-being of a consumer. The different strategies of physical environment designing are discussed with respect to visual identity, communication and cultural heritage. The focus is on the role of design and how the physical environment design may be structured to stimulate brand performance which is the key factor of any service organisation. The study elaborates the effect of physical environment design on the sensorium through emotions and behaviours, providing happiness and contributing to the well-being. The findings show various dimensions of well-being and their impact on brand performance.

Keywords: visual identity, communication, cultural heritage, physical environment design, well-being, brand performance

Overview
Physical environment design (PED), well-being and their relationships with consumers are the mantras of today. For sustained success in a market place characterised by visual identity, communication of ideas, cultural heritage, organisations are attempting to build long-lasting, deep and meaningful relationships with their customers by creating magnificent ambience, using symbolic and decorative artefacts and spatial layout in terms of safety, security and aura to enhance brand performance.

What distinguishes the organisations in terms of visual identity, communication and cultural heritage creating vivacious physical environment design and making it unique from the rest? What is the contribution of ambience, artefacts and spatial layout to well-being? How can a physical environment design enrich sensorium, behaviour, emotion; making the customer happy and stimulate brand performance of an organisation?

A large body of research, in domains ranging from facilitating the achievement of organisational as well as marketing goals have tried to understand and delineate how organisations or the “people behind the brands” can build deeper, more and more committed relationships with customers and turn them into number one. However, Schlebusch (2014) points out, such relationships are likely to remain elusive for most marketers without a precise understanding of when and why consumers respond favourably and strongly to the PED which can contribute to their well-being and resultantly triggering brand performance.

Elements of Physical Environment Design
Physical environment design allows organisations to communicate their corporate identity in a more dynamic way than other visual expressions, because interiors can be employed in three dimensions and in different
spaces (Bachynski, 2009). Interior design could help employees and clients understand a company’s values and how the company differs from its competitors (Karaosmanoglu and Melewar, 2006).

‘Culture is the basis of all social identity and development, and cultural heritage is the endowment that each generation receives and passes on which is more effective and enhances legacy’ (Bradshaw et al., 2011).

Ambience as a part of the servicescape that is sensorial in nature includes light, sound, smell, decor, and air quality - factors that influence customer behaviours such as time and money spent at a specific lodging location/on a specific lodging brand and desire to stay (Morrison et al., 2011; Wakefield and Baker, 1998). Artefacts (models, iconic diagrams, textual case studies, etc.) are the mediators used to inform, illustrate and represent the design which can be further used for the construction of a building (Conole, 2013).

Spatial layout is the configuration of physical design elements concerned with feasible locations and dimensions for a set of interrelated objects that meet all design requirements and maximize design quality in terms of design preferences (Michalek et al., 2002).

Human well-being is the end goal of design which has the psychological effect of interior space on one’s personal interiority. Well-being can be influenced by the use of design elements and principles in a space, as well as by more subjective outcomes such as inspirational and uplifting spaces (Power, 2014).

Behaviour is a critical component which creates harmony and balance through interior design allowing the humans to be comfortable in the environment (Sorrento, 2012). The built environment can elicit emotional responses from its users. These emotional responses can in turn influence user behaviour (Bitner, 1990; Obermiller and Bitner, 1984). Many researchers agree that facility users react to the built environment by feelings of pleasure or displeasure, and that different users have different degrees of reaction to it (Baker, 1987; Baker et al., 1988; Baker and Cameron, 1996; Baker et al., 1994; Mehrabian and Russell, 1974; Oakes, 2000; Obermiller and Bitner, 1984; Russell and Snodgrass, 1987). Borrowing from (Lyubomirsky, 2007), we understand happiness as the experience of joy, contentment or positive well-being, combined with a sense that one’s life is good, meaningful and worthwhile.

“One of the great but often unmentioned causes of both happiness and misery is the quality of our environment: the kinds of walls, chairs, buildings and streets that surround us.”—Alain de Botton (Schmidt, 2015).

This paper contributes to the wellness of an individual with which one can enhance the performance of an organisation. Brand performance is defined as the efficiency of employees which gets boost with the comfortable and ergonomic office design. Better outcomes and increased brand performance is assumed to be the result of better workplace environment (Hameed and Amjad, 2009).

It is also found that customer perceptions of service quality can be influenced by the retail store environment (Baker and Cameron, 1996; Bitner, 1992). Elements such as up-to-date equipment, visually appealing facilities, and well dressed employees were identified by Parasuraman et al. (1988) as important tangibles that are used by customers to evaluate service quality.

Cognitive theory indicates that negative outcomes will occur in the form of withdrawal from workplace, reduces environmental satisfaction or decremented work performance. According to (Cohen 1980; Desor 1972; Paulus 1980) individuals may feel overloaded or over-stimulated which can increase cognitive effects as it may reduce work performance.

Movement opportunities throughout the day keep the body and mind alert and ready for learning (Evanshen, 2010, Weinstein, 1979). Moreover it draws on theories of social identity which explains the symbolic meaning of buildings (Sadalla and Sheets, 1993), sense of place (Stedman, 2002; Twigger-Ross et al., 2003), and identification with a place (Marin and de Maya, 2013; Uzzel et al., 2002), the organisation’s stakeholders define themselves in relation to their own work-places/study (Ashford and Mael, 1989; Bergami and Bagozzi,
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2000; Elsbach and Kramer, 1996; Gioia and Thomas, 1996)

Consequences
A central question guiding our perspective on physical environment design and brand performance relationship is: What benefits accrue to an organisation when consumers have a favourable physical environment design? Harris and De Chernatony (2001) have stressed the link between employees’ perception of their organisation and brand performance, arguing that “employees constitute the interface between a brand’s internal and external environments and can have a powerful impact on consumers’ perceptions of both the brand and the organisation”.

The strategic importance of corporate branding lies in the positioning of the company in its marketplace as well as in creating internal arrangements (e.g. organisational structure, physical design and culture) that support the meaning of the corporate brand (Hatch and Schultz, 2003). The overall brand performance, thus, seems to be reliant on a range of both internal and external stakeholders. As indicated through previous research, empirical evidence suggests a relationship between specific environmental elements (e.g., space, furniture, seating arrangement, light, color, peripherals, acoustics, temperature, and living plants) and human behaviour, such as engagement, achievement levels, and overall development (Taylor, 2008; Veitch and Arkkelin, 1995; Voelkl, 1995).

Discussion
Physical servicescape characteristics such as noise level, odors, temperature, colors, textures, and comfort of furnishings may influence customer perception of service quality (Bitner, 1992). Mehrabian and Russel (1974) suggested that arousing environments (e.g. in a sports facility) are viewed positively by customers, unless the excitement is combined with unpleasantness (e.g. bad service). Also the firm’s employees and firm’s overall servicespaces both effect the consumers’ perception of service quality.

This is the most important aspect for companies that offer services where the final consumer (and other stakeholders) come in contact with the company’s physical environment; i.e. interior space e.g. in offices, receptions, cafes and restaurants. Educators would likely benefit from the consideration of these elements in the transformation of existing classrooms as well as in the design of new learning spaces. Khalid and Azeem (2012) assert 21st century learners require flexible physical learning spaces which allow for projects, problem-solving and teamwork; instructional strategies aligned with knowledge acquisition of the human brain as well as societal needs. All physical features have a profound effect on the sensorium. A positive physical environment design adds to the experience, whilst a negative one can prohibit enlightenment.

Further Research
Researchers often debate whether the PED is responsible for creating well-being, or whether it is vice versa which has an impact on the brand performance. It is vital to recognise possible limitations at a theoretical, conceptual and methodological level. Consequently, the physical design environment will gain considerable attention among managers in the future, which will lead to a substantial increase of brand performance.

References


Session B3: Branding and Communication

*Fit is No Longer a Fit? Introducing Celebrity Corporate Brand and Corporate Brand Enhancement*
Anisah Hambali, Sharifah Faridah Syed Alwi and John M.T. Balmer

*Understanding and Examining Celebrity Trust, its Dimensions and Its Impacts On Other Credibility Constructs*
Shahzeb Hussain, TC Melewar, Costas Priporas, Pantea Foroudi

*Exploring the Relationship Between Brand Experience and Brand Love*
Véronique Pauwels-Delassus and Lia Zarentonello
Fit is No Longer a Fit? Introducing Celebrity Corporate Brand and Corporate Brand Enhancement

Anisah Hambali, Sharifah Faridah Syed Alwi and John M.T. Balmer

Abstract
The purpose of this paper is first, to explore the concept of celebrity brand at a corporate brand level, known as Celebrity Corporate Brand – CCB; second, to investigate the impact of CCB on corporate brand equity (termed - corporate brand enhancement); and third; to explore the impact of consumers’ identification with the CCB (CCB identification) and the negative attributes and qualities of a celebrity towards the corporate brand enhancement of both the CCB developed/own brand and endorsed corporate brand (ECB). In particular, this study will explore CCB at both levels - 'developed/own' and 'endorsed' corporate brands. The research marshals the nascent literature of celebrity, human and people brand (e.g. Kowalczyk, 2013, 2010; Halonen-Knight & Hurmerinta, 2010; Seno and Lukas, 2007; Thomson, 2006) which marked new ground by drawing on celebrity theories in corporate branding contexts. By combining these concepts together, we hope to propose a new way of how corporate brand can be differentiated and enhanced through celebrity brand. Corporate brand was first introduced through corporate identity concept (van Riel & Balmer, 1997; Balmer, 1995).

Methodology
In order to explore the study’s objectives, we focus on celebrity chefs and three studies were carried out: (1) Study 1 - netnography; (2) Study 2 – in-depth interview; and (3) Study 3 – population based survey experiments. Study 1 and 2 are carried out to explore and define CCB and corporate brand enhancement; and aims in developing the conceptual model for the current study where the interrelated concepts are explained. Data was coded using NVivo where thematic analysis and nodes were performed and assigned to define the constructs and produced items for measurement that were later used in the experiment data collection phase (Kozinets, 2014; Boelstorff, 2011; Churchill, 1995, Churchill, 1979). Study 3 is conducted to confirm the findings in Study 1 and Study 2 and validate the developed model.

Findings
CCB is defined as ‘an individual who is a public persona and has fame or is popularly known to the public; whom by himself is a brand (celebrity brand); having their own products and/or services and/or companies (corporate brands); who uses this recognition for the corporate marketing activities and simultaneously endorses other companies’ products, services and corporations (corporate brands)’, (Study 1 & 2; Kowalczyk, 2011; Keel & Natarajaan, 2012; Seno and Lukas, 2007). In terms of dimensions representing CCB, the study found five namely: 1) CCB Interpersonal Quality/Personality; 2) CCB Enterprising Quality; 3) CCB Technical/ Functional Quality; 4) CCB Symbolic Quality/Value; and 5) CCB Authenticity. These dimensions along with endorsed corporate brand values were found to enhance corporate brand of CCB (image) and endorsed. This, in turn, influences corporate brand enhancement (image, reputation identification, and behavioural action). Consumer identification with CCB has been identified to influence the corporate brand enhancement of both the CCB developed/own and endorsed corporate brand. It is also concluded that the negative attributes and qualities of a celebrity can positively influence the corporate brand enhancement of both the CCB developed/own brand and endorsed corporate brand (ECB).

Research Implications
We contribute theoretically in three different ways: 1) provide a new way/offer new insights into how to enhance corporate brand equity (image, reputation and behavioural responses) by positioning and differentiating corporate brand through CCB; 2) offer
definition of CCB based on the primary data (netnography, interviews) and secondary data (literatures) and 3) develop a conceptual model of how CCB and its interrelated concepts work through interviews and experiments.

**Practical Implications**
The managerial implications can be seen from the context of defining strategy within CCB own businesses, endorsed corporate brands, policy change (national and international) in matters pertaining to environmental and health concerns; and consumer lifestyle change that is geared towards better living standards and healthier lifestyles. In particular, CCB through personification portrays what an organisation stands for, and it does not address consumers alone. CCB addresses all stakeholders of the corporate brand and those corporate brands that it endorses.

**Originality/Value**
Responding to call for research on ‘beyond celebrity endorsement’ and ‘co-branded celebrity products’, this study extends the celebrity endorsement and celebrity brand concept to CCB and its effect on corporate brand enhancement. Whilst previous researches were mainly devoted to how celebrity endorser or human/celebrity brands influence consumer purchase intention at a more product/service brand level, this research examines celebrity brands at corporation level (the CCB). Consumer identification with the CCB (CCB identification) is also seen as contributing factors towards the corporate brand enhancement. It contributes theoretically towards the identification and fit (match-up) theory (Till & Bussler, 2000; Basil, 1996; Kamins, 1990), whereby, despite the negative attributes and qualities of the celebrity chefs, CCB identification leads to a positive impact towards the corporate brand enhancement. In particular, the effect of CCB on enhancing the ‘developed’ and/or ‘endorsed’ corporate brand (such as the image and reputation of the celebrity and corporation) are discussed. Empirical findings of the current study assist into theoretical insight - how relationships between celebrity corporate brand and celebrity equity (celebrity personality and image enhancement) could enhance corporate brand equity (corporate brand enhancement such as image, reputation and actual buying behaviour) and corporate brand loyalty, with implications for building personal fame and company fortune.

**Keywords:** celebrity endorser, human brand, celebrity brand, corporate brand, celebrity chefs, corporate brand equity, corporate marketing, corporate reputation

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Understanding and Examining Celebrity Trust, its Dimensions and Its Impacts on Other Credibility Constructs

Shahzeb Hussain, TC Melewar, Costas Priporas and Pantea Foroudi

Abstract
Trust plays a major role in generating the relationship between consumers and brands. Because of trust, consumers’ believe that a brand has qualities that make it unique, competent, consistent and honest. In the last few years, researchers have explored trust within the context of brand management at both the micro and macro level (Chaudhuri et al., 2002; Delgado, 2004; Soh et al., 2009; Xingyuan et al., 2010), but the literature still reveals that there are areas which could be explored further. Recent trends, based on decreased levels of trust (declining from 21 per cent to less than 13 percent in recent years) also gives emphasis to exploring trust in more detail (Lantieri et al., 2009; Roper Centre, 2010). An area within the context of branding where trust can be explored further is celebrity endorsement.

Although, a similar construct to trust, i.e. trustworthiness, has been an area of interest for many researchers, but the literature reveals that they are both two different constructs, with separate meanings and conceptual characteristics (Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Mayer et al., 1995; Delgado et al., 2004; Soh et al., 2009). Trust is defined as the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor (Mayer et al., 1995; Soh et al., 2000). This definition suggests that trust is composed of both trusting belief and trusting behaviour (Luhman, 1979; McAllister, 1995; Delgado-Ballester et al., 2003). Trusting belief consists of the cognitive and affective dimension, while trusting behaviour consists of the behavioural dimension (Lewis and Weigert, 1985; Johnson et al., 2005; Soh et al., 2009). The cognitive dimension is generated on the basis of credibility and reputation, the affective dimension is on the basis of genuine care and concern, whilst the behavioural dimension is generated on the basis of actions that flow from both the cognitive and affective dimensions (Lewis et al., 1985; McAllister, 1995; Johnson et al., 2005). This explanation suggests that trust is an equal outcome of careful thinking, emotional feelings and trusting behaviour (Morrow et al., 2004).

Trustworthiness, on the other hand, is defined as the degree to which the source (or celebrity) is considered to be honest, dependable and trustworthy (Ohanian, 1990). Unlike trust, trustworthiness is viewed as the basis of the reason behind the belief, expectation and/or willingness (Morrow et al., 2004). It is based only on the cognitive dimension and does not take into consideration the affective and behavioural dimensions, thus failing to fit into the overall meanings of trust (Morrow et al., 2004).

Researchers argue that the importance of these dimensions, especially the affective dimension, deliberately increases when trust is studied in the business to consumer context. A business to consumer context (compare to business to business context) includes fewer contractual safeguards, and so a leap of faith from the firm becomes a requirement (Johnston et al. 2005). Emotional bonds created by means of the firm’s benevolence and goodwill intrinsically motivate consumers and leave them with higher levels of security and trust (Johnson et al., 2005). Recent models and conceptualizations based on celebrity trust (as mentioned earlier) lack a strong theoretical underpinning and fail to explain the topic completely. To overcome these confusions and gaps, a study based on the topic of celebrity trust would be conducted. The aim of this study would be to understand the meanings of celebrity trust based on both the cognitive and affective dimensions.

Furthermore, this research is also based on the gap found in its conceptual framework.
Previous researchers have frequently examined the effects of celebrity trustworthiness (the construct used instead of trust) on attitudes toward advertisements, attitudes toward brands, and purchase intention (Goldsmith et al., 2000; Lafferty et al., 2004; Vincent et al., 2007; Sallam et al., 2012). Fewer have moved forward and covered more complex topics in order to study celebrity trustworthiness in detail. Studies examining the impact of celebrity trustworthiness on advertising effects (Silvera et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2013), advertising image (Wang et al., 2013), brand behaviour (Garretson et al., 2004; Alsmadi, 2006), brand attitude (Limbu et al., 2012), brand equity (Spry et al., 2009; Dwivedi et al., 2013), brand image (Grace et al., 2007) and brand loyalty (Nelson, 2010) are all evident in the literature. Despite all these studies, current literature suggests that there are areas which can be explored further. One of these areas, which shows little evidence of past exploration, is to examine the effects of celebrity trust on other credibility related constructs. Therefore, by using signalling theory, a conceptual framework with an aim to examine celebrity trust’s effects on other credibility constructs (i.e. advertising credibility, brand credibility, corporate credibility and corporate image) would be developed.

Based on these gaps, the following study will help with the following objectives: firstly, this study will help in understanding trust within the context of celebrity endorsement; secondly, this study will help to create a reliable and valid celebrity trust scale; thirdly, this study will help to examine and understand the impact of celebrity trust on other credibility constructs (like advertising credibility, brand credibility, corporate credibility) and on corporate image; finally, this study will help to understand the impact of different consumers’ demographics on celebrity trust and on other constructs (like advertising credibility, brand credibility, corporate credibility and corporate image).

Research Questions
The study would be based on the following research questions:

- What was trust in the context of celebrity endorsement? Was it based on both cognitive and affective dimensions? What were the components in each dimension? And whether celebrity trust was a uni-dimensional or multi-dimensional construct?
- Whether celebrity trust was different from other similar construct i.e. celebrity trustworthiness?
- Whether celebrity trust and its dimensions significantly and sufficiently correlated with other constructs (i.e. advertising credibility, brand credibility, brand equity and, on performance and reputation of the firm)?
- Whether consumers based on age, gender and race saw celebrity trust differently?

Propositions
These following propositions would be examined in the following study:

- Proposition 1: Cognitive dimension of trust is positively and significantly related to the affective dimension of trust
- Proposition 2: Celebrity cognitive trust and affective trust, both, positively and significantly correlate to advertising credibility
- Proposition 3: Celebrity cognitive trust and affective trust, both, positively and significantly correlate to brand credibility
- Proposition 4: Celebrity cognitive trust and affective trust, both, positively and significantly correlate to corporate credibility
- Proposition 5: Celebrity cognitive trust and affective trust, both, positively and significantly correlate to corporate image
- Proposition 6: Advertising credibility positively and significantly correlates to effect on brand credibility
- Proposition 7: Advertising credibility positively and significantly correlates to corporate credibility
- Proposition 8: Advertising credibility positively and significantly correlates to corporate image
- Proposition 9: Brand credibility positively and significantly correlates to corporate credibility
- Proposition 10: Brand credibility positively and significantly correlates to corporate image
- Proposition 11: Corporate credibility positively and significantly correlates to corporate image

**Conceptual Model**

Based on the research questions and objectives listed above, the conceptual framework and propositions are given below:

**Methodology and Data Collection**

To develop a celebrity-endorsement scale, a multi-stage research design would be employed. The design would be modelled after Churchill (1979), and would include his seven steps for developing valid measures of marketing constructs.

These seven steps are: (1) specify the domain and definitions of the construct, (2) measurement items, (3) collect data, (4) purify measurement, (5) collect data, (6) reliability and (7) validity. These seven steps are divided into three phases: (i) exploratory fieldwork, (ii) questionnaire development and (iii) the main survey. In the first phase i.e. the exploratory phase, the domain of the construct would be specified. It would be stipulated that what type of celebrities would be used and whom they would represent. Taking these points into considerations, national celebrities would be used. These celebrities would be chosen based on the age, gender and race neutrality of the consumers in England. To ensure that the chosen celebrities are relevant to the consumers, few of the marketing websites or databases (i.e. Biographyonline.net, Top 100 famous people, etc.) would be used to identify renowned celebrities. Participants during interviews and focus groups would also be asked regarding their interest of celebrities for the following study.

Next, an initial pool of items would be generated. This pool of items would be generated with the help of thorough analysis of literature (based on trust studies within the context of social psychology and business) and also with the help of in-depth interviews and focus groups with consumers, academics and marketers. Participants, with the help of interviews and focus groups, would be asked questions, such as what they think of overall trust, celebrity endorsement’s trust, components related to celebrity trust and how would they explain the relationship of celebrity trust alongside other constructs (relationships based on conceptual model).

During the second phase i.e. questionnaire development, in order to conduct face validity and content validity experts within the area of marketing would be involved, so that they can validate the found components. At this stage, items for each construct would either be deleted or re-worded based on the suggestions from experts. A pilot study would also be conducted to refine the measurement instrument, to clarify that the use of the

![Conceptual Model Diagram](image-url)
questionnaire has no ambiguous items, to ensure respondents are able to easily answer the questions, and that there would be no problems when recording the data. For this purpose, a questionnaire with the help of experts would be developed. These questionnaires would be distributed to the respondents (at least fifty respondents, at this stage) to confirm the reliability and validity of the research. Cronbach’s Alpha and exploratory factor analysis techniques would be used to examine the factorial structure of scale and to reduce the number of observed variables to a smaller and more controllable set.

The last phase of the research would be to conduct surveys. For the purpose of the surveys, a non-probability sample i.e. convenience sample technique would be used. The sample would be collected from the consumers living in London or areas closer to it. Questionnaires (or the link to the questionnaires) would be sent to the participants by mean of both soft and hard copies. For this purpose, an online questionnaire, using Google surveys would be designed and the link would be sent to the participants either by mean of social media or private emails. Furthermore, questionnaires would also be distributed at different locations. It would be clearly taken into consideration that the participants involved in this study would represent different backgrounds and segments. Each questionnaire would be based on a seven point Likert scale (Churchill and Peter, 1984). Other methods like the snowballing technique would be used in the research to collect more convenient data. A number of analysis tests like Cronbach’s Analysis, internal consistency reliability, exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis and structure model would be used to examine the structures of the constructs to validate the structure of the items and to examine the relationships between different constructs.

Based on the formation of a trust scale and testing of the propositions, both qualitative and quantitative research methods would be used. Most of the research would be based on quantitative research methods, apart from the first few steps of the scale formation, where qualitative research methods would be used. Data for interviews, focus groups and surveys would be collected in London and surrounding areas.

References


Exploring the Relationship between Brand Experience and Brand Love

Véronique Pauwels-Delassus and Lia Zarantonello

Background
Brand experience corresponds to the consumers’ perception of their experience of the brand and is conceptualized as sensory, affective, cognitive, behavioural and social responses to brand-related stimuli (Brakus, Schmitt and Zarantonello 2009). The literature on brand experience has concentrated on how it impacts overall brand equity (Delgado-Ballester and Sabiote 2015; Lin 2015) as well as a behavioural component of brand equity, namely brand loyalty, via variables such as brand satisfaction (Brakus, Schmitt and Zarantonello 2009; Nysveen et al., 2013), brand personality (Brakus Schmitt and Zarantonello 2009; Nysveen et al., 2013; Ramaseshan and Stein 2014), hedonic emotions (Ding and Tseng 2015), brand awareness/associations (Ding and Tseng 2015), perceived quality (Ding and Tseng 2015), and brand relationship variables (Francisco-Maffezzolli et al., 2014; Ramaseshan and Stein, 2014). Fournier (1998) includes love as one of the core elements of consumers’ brand relationships. Brand love can be defined as the degree of passionate emotional attachment a satisfied consumer has for a brand (Caroll and Ahuvia 2006). Recently, we have seen an increasing interest among both practitioners and academics in the concept of brand love (Albert, Merunka, and Valette-Florence 2009; Brata, Ahuvia and Bagozzi 2012; Rossiter, 2012) because it leads to positive word of mouth, brand loyalty (Caroll and Ahuvia 2006) and a willingness to pay a premium price (Thomson, MacInnis, and park 2005). The aim of this paper is to extend the research on the effects of brand experience in order to show it does not only contribute to the behavioural side of brand equity (i.e., brand loyalty) but also to its cognitive and affective side (i.e., brand love).

Our objective is to explore how brand experience leads to brand love by examining the mediation role of three key affective factors such as brand attachment, brand identification and brand nostalgia. Previous studies have clearly confirmed the importance of brand identification (Brata, Ahuvia and Bagozzi 2012; Carroll and Ahuvia 2006), brand attachment (Lacoeuilhe 2000) and nostalgia (Lacoeuilhe 2000, Kessous et al. 2015) in affective relationships, therefore we suggest the following hypothesis:

H1: The relationship between brand experience and brand love is mediated by consumer nostalgia; more specifically, a stronger experience with a brand leads to a stronger feeling of brand love when consumers feel nostalgic about the brand.

H2: The relationship between brand experience and brand love is mediated by consumer-brand identification; more specifically, a stronger experience with a brand leads to a stronger feeling of brand love when consumers identify with the brand.

H3: The relationship between brand experience and brand love is mediated by emotional brand attachment; more specifically, a stronger experience with a brand leads to a stronger feeling of brand love when consumers develop an emotional attachment to the brand.

Methodology
The causal nature of our research question led us to quantitative methodology. For the purpose of this research, we selected the brand Nutella in Belgium. We designed an online questionnaire with a convenience sample of 273 consumers in order to evaluate brand experience, brand love, brand attachment, brand identification and brand nostalgia. The questions were measured on a 5-point scale. All scales show adequate reliability (all Cronbach’s alphas > 0.7).

Results
To test our hypotheses, a multiple mediation analysis is conducted using the PROCESS macro in SPSS (Hayes, 2013). The analysis is based on 5000 bootstrapped samples using a bias-corrected 95% confidence interval.
model presents the following: X = brand experience, Y = brand love, MEDs = nostalgia, emotional attachment, and consumer-brand identification. Results show that the relationship between brand experience and brand love is positive and significant (beta = 0.719, p < 0.001). However, once the three variables are introduced, the path from brand experience to brand love is not significant anymore (p > 0.05). In particular, brand experience has a positive effect on nostalgia (beta = 0.758, p < 0.001), emotional attachment (beta = 0.716, p < 0.001), and consumer-brand identification (beta = 0.295, p < 0.001). In turn, nostalgia (beta = 0.257, p < 0.001), emotional attachment (beta = 0.456, p < 0.001), and consumer-brand identification (beta = 0.240, p < 0.001) have a positive effect on brand love.

Conclusion
This study contributes to the literature on brand experience by indicating that the relationship between brand experience and brand love is mediated by three factors namely nostalgia, emotional attachment, and consumer-brand identification. Therefore our results show that brand experience does not only contribute to the behavioural side of brand equity but also to its affective side. Our results have also highlighted the role played by nostalgia in the construction of brand love which, so far, has not been identified in the literature. From a managerial perspective our results indicate that brands such as Nutella, Kinder, Coca cola which are consumed during childhood, should develop an experiential marketing strategy which emphasises brand nostalgia in order to increase brand love. Therefore, we would recommend these kinds of brands use reminders of the consumer’s positive past brand experience in advertising campaigns on TV or on social media to increase nostalgia and consequently brand love. Nevertheless our research has several limitations linked to the context of the brand selected and the use of a convenience sample.

Keywords: brand experience, brand love, brand equity, brand attachment, brand nostalgia, brand identification

References

Session C1: Integrated Marketing Communications

The State of Integrated Marketing Communications in the Classroom: Practice, Perspectives & Prospects
Yvonne Dixon-Todd and Lynne Hall

Modelling the Relationship Between Adhocracy Culture, Integrated Marketing Communication And Brand Advantage
Lucia Porcu, Salvador del Barrio-García, Esmeralda Crespo-Almendros and Juan Miguel Alcántara-Pilar

Through a Glass Darkly: The Leviathan Concept
Philip J. Kitchen
The State of Integrated Marketing Communications in the Classroom: Practice, Perspectives & Prospects

Yvonne Dixon-Todd and Lynne Hall

Introduction and Research Question
This paper explores the experiences of academic staff teaching Integrated Marketing Communications (IMC) and postgraduate students studying IMC in the business school environment.

This paper is part of a wider doctoral study with the following question, ‘to what extent are current IMC academic practices meeting the needs and expectations of key stakeholders’, with an aim of providing recommendations for a good practice curricula. In the context of this research key stakeholders will be PG students, marketing academics, employers within the marketing communications industry and the marketing communications professional bodies (for example, the Chartered Institute of Marketing (CIM) and the Chartered Institute of Public Relations (CIPR)).

The full study will be answered through exploring:

- How IMC is delivered within PG education in the UK, including modular and programme level.
- The experiences of postgraduate students studying IMC
- The needs and expectations of key academics, employers within the marketing communications industry and professional bodies.

This working paper details the preliminary findings of focus groups with students studying IMC and interviews and a focus group with academic staff teaching the subject.

Literature Review
IMC has created considerable academic discussion yet there is still not one agreed definition. Schultz (2004) stated that “Integrated Marketing Communications is a strategic business process used to plan, develop, execute and evaluate coordinated, measurable, persuasive brand communications programs over time with consumers, customers, prospects, employees, associates and other targeted, relevant external and internal audiences. The goal is to generate both short-term financial returns and build long-term brand and shareholder value”. Two key issues appear to have been problematic in the development of IMC - definition and theoretical foundations. The debate concerning definitions of IMC still continues in academic circles and there is disagreement as to whether IMC is in the domain of the marketing communications mix (Lee and Park 2007, Eastin and Daugherty 2005, Grove Carlson and Dorsch 2007) or a more strategic organisation wide activity (Kliatchko 2005; 2008, Kitchen 2005, Fill 2005, Schultz 2004). A more recent definition is Luxton, Reid and Mavondo (2015) who identify the importance of IMC in helping an organisation gain competitive advantage as, “IMC is a market-relating deployment mechanism that enables the optimization of communication approaches to achieve superior communication effectiveness, which has other downstream benefits (e.g., brand and financial performance).” There are similarities with the Schultz’s (2004) definition in terms of the focus on the contribution of IMC to financial and brand organisational objectives.

There is very little research undertaken on those studying IMC and the curricula that is preparing them for work in this domain. There have been some studies in the field of IMC curriculum development, e.g. Farrelly, Luxton and Brace-Govan (2001) who undertook a study in Australia where they identified content that practitioners expect to see in an IMC curriculum, but this is now rather dated given the changing environment. Other studies have examined what is being taught (for instance, Kerr, Patti and Chein (2004), Patti (2005), Kerr, Schultz, Patti and Ilchul (2008), and Kerr (2009). There are calls for further research (Schultz and Patti 2009).
Also Faulds and Mangold (2014) question whether social media should be incorporated into the IMC curricula and call for further research in this field as “It will inevitably evolve over the next several years and will likely be influenced by the needs of external constituents (i.e., marketing practitioners), student needs, and departmental resource constraints.” This is an area that will be explored further in this study. Kumar (2015) identifies that marketing at the core and new media influence are prominent themes of research within the subject of marketing. Both of these are heavily considered in the IMC literature and are evident in practitioner frameworks.

Methodological Framework

Student Focus Group

This part of the study seeks to identify what students understand by the term IMC and in doing so identify their perspectives, what they consider to be the benefits of IMC to organisations and the challenges of implementing it. From this it will explore whether or not students think it will of value in their future career.

The study involved two focus groups. All students on a core IMC module were invited to take part in the focus groups. Students were advised that there were no right or wrong answers, that everything would be confidential and no individual quote would be attributed to them directly. In terms of ethics it was also made clear that participation in the study would have no impact on their own studies within the University. The focus groups were undertaken informally with everyone sitting around a meeting table. The focus groups had a range of open ended questions. These questions were drawn from key themes in the academic literature. The following open ended questions were asked in the order below and discussion between participants was permitted:

- Which words would you use to explain IMC?
- Who do you consider to be the key academics publishing in IMC?
- Students were asked to think about their own perspective of IMC and then discuss it with others in the focus group. The group was then asked to agree one prevalent perspective
- What does IMC contribute to an organisation?
- What are the benefits to an organisation of practicing IMC?
- What are the challenges to an organisation of practicing IMC?
- How valuable do you think the subject of IMC is to your future career?

Thematic analysis was used to identify, examine and record the key themes in the responses from the focus group.

Academic Interviews

This part of the study seeks to identify: what is being delivered, how and why; perspectives of IMC; challenges of teaching IMC; contribution of IMC to organisational success and student employability. Through discussion and analysis this study seeks to draw out:

- Favoured perspective of IMC based on what is taught – does this differ to what could be taught if resources were unlimited?
- Gaps between academic and practitioner – what is taught?, what is needed?, perspective?, future challenges?, way to resolve them?

To date 5 semi-structured interviews have taken place at different Universities within the UK. These academics were selected following a scoping exercise that included a search of IMC modules and programmes delivered and willingness to be involved in the study. The interviews were held very informally with the following points being used as prompts/questions:
- Who you are, what you do and how your interest and experience in IMC has developed
- Which PG IMC modules do you lead/teach on?
- What do you teach in your PG IMC module and why? This will be reviewed in conjunction with the module descriptor and scheme of work.
- Favourite books?
- Favourite journal articles?
- Which programmes are your PG IMC modules available on? Are there any supporting modules?
- What would you include in an IMC module/programme if you had unlimited resources (time/contact/financial)?
- What do you see as the key challenges faced by IMC Academics?
- What do you see as the future for IMC PG education?
- What experience do you have of practicing IMC?
- What challenges do you think those practicing IMC currently face?
- What do you see as the future of IMC in practice?
- How do you think studying IMC prepares students for work?
- Any questions/queries/comments?

Interviews and the Focus Group are currently being analysed.

It is evident that students have some awareness of IMC and the benefits it can bring to an organisation and to their employability. The theoretical aspects of the subject are however not fully understood.

**Student Focus Group - Understanding the Different Dimensions of IMC**

It is evident that students have some understanding and appreciation of IMC however their views are perhaps not to the expected standard when asked unprompted. Students have identified some key phrases associated with IMC, for example “Organised”, “Uniform” and “Organisation-wide”. These suggest that they see IMC as a way of organising and controlling. There is little evidence of depth of understanding or appreciation of the breadth of the subject as demonstrated in the earlier quote by Schulz (2004). Some students seemed to consider IMC to be the same as Marketing Communications – this shows a lack of appreciation of the strategic nature of IMC but also mirrors some Marketing Communications text books that utilise the terms interchangeably.

**Academic Focus Group**

A focus group was held with academic staff teaching IMC in one business school. This focus group took an informal approach and through discussion sought to identify perspectives of IMC, challenges of teaching IMC, contribution of IMC to organisational success and student employability. A “Must Have, Could Have, Should Have and Would Have” exercise was completed to help staff think creatively about what works and what could be improved.

**Preliminary Results of Research & Discussion**

Analysis is currently being undertaken and further results from this study will be presented at the Conference should this paper be successful. To date the student focus groups have been analysed. Academic

When considering the different dimensions of IMC and the key theorists leading in this field students were able to mention some academics unprompted (Fill, Nowak and Phelps, Schultz, Kitchen). However, they did not highlight the differences in their contribution, for example, that Schultz is the founder and that Schultz and Kitchen have undertaken many research studies nationally and internationally (1997, 1999, 2000). This suggests that students have not fully grasped the academic arguments throughout the last 25 years. It was evident that students were aware of some of the key academic models however, there was not a real sense that they appreciated that IMC could be tactical (Lee and Park 2007) or more strategic (Duncan and Moriarty 1998, Kliatchko 2005, 2008). Students have completed assessments incorporating IMC theory and should be more
familiar with the different perspectives. During the focus group students were asked to think about their own perspective of IMC and then discuss it with others in the focus group before putting the following words in order:

Best Match with perspective
- Practitioner discourse
- Means of one-voice coordination
- Media Planning Tool
- Theoretical concept

Worst Match with perspective
- Management Fad

The findings above identify that the students see IMC as something that organisations do rather than a theoretical subject. This might explain why they did not fully understand the models. The above shows that students think that IMC is important and also that it has longevity.

**Student Focus Group - Perceived Value and Contribution of IMC to Organisations**

Students identify some value of IMC within organisations, for instance “Knowing and having a coherent message”, “Everyone knowing the message”, “Everyone in organisation is brought together”, “Coherent message”. There is evidence that students understand the value in terms of consistency and one voice (Nowak and Phelps approach) but also that it can bring at a more strategic level (Duncan and Moriarty). Students did not fully address this aspect within the focus group suggesting that perhaps either a) they were not aware or b) they still have little real life work experience in this field. More would have been expected here (for instance, impact on customer behavior and brand loyalty, relationship building, PR, competitive advantage etc). Students also were somewhat quiet on the organisational barriers to IMC citing only, “Managers lack of knowledge re importance” and “Resistance to Change.”

**Student Focus Group - Challenges and Benefits of studying IMC**

It was evident in the discussion that respondents were considering the challenges of studying the IMC subject rather than the actual art of studying itself. Students have obviously struggled with aspects of the IMC curriculum, stating that it is “difficult to identify what is good IMC”. They do however appreciate the correlation between IMC and other marketing theories, for instance, “Initially it almost seemed that IMC was clever marketing, even common sense, but then realised that many others did not see it that way” and “Overlaps with other marketing subjects and communications topics”.

It is evident that some students were beginning to think at a critical level e.g. about the differences between IMC and Marketing Communications, and how IMC is integral to other business and marketing strategies. They recognised that it is more strategic than they initially anticipated when they started studying the subject.

When considering the benefits of studying IMC students did appreciate that it gave them good examples of real life organisational situations, “practical – you could see the benefit of theory in practice” and also that it would be of value to them in their future career, “attended CIM event... Business people are talking about IMC even though they might not know it”, opportunities to help organisations – knowing that they should be practicing IMC but are not”.

**Academic Staff Interviews & Focus Group – Early Indications**

The interviews and focus group are still to be fully analysed however it is expected that this will be completed in time for the Conference presentation. It is evident however that there are different viewpoints on what should be taught within IMC curricula and the challenges contained therein. There appears to be differences in views on: which theories should be used and to what extent theory should be included; perspectives of IMC; the role of a higher education module; the level of involvement with industry. There is however agreement on: the need to provide students with real life case studies and examples of good IMC; the key challenges of teaching IMC;
the impact of new media on teaching and IMC in general - it is clear that academic staff see new media as having a major impact on IMC education however many feel ill prepared. These, and other themes, will be explored further prior to the conference.

Limitations and Future Work
It is acknowledged that there are some limitations to this paper. The study is in progress. The interviews and focus group with academics and representatives from the Chartered Institute of Marketing are currently being analysed. It is expected that these results will be available at the Conference.

References
Modelling the Relationship between Adhocracy Culture, Integrated Marketing Communication and Brand Advantage

Lucia Porcu, Salvador Del Barrio-Garcia, Esmeralda Crespo-Almendros and Juan Miguel Alcantara-Pilar

Integrated Marketing Communication has recently gained momentum among both academics and practitioners due to the increasingly dynamic technological and competitive environments that greatly affects the marketing and communication processes. A comprehensive literature review has been performed to develop a new IMC theoretical framework embracing a border organisational approach, which conveys that the locus of integration is the entire organisation. Based on this ‘firm-wide’ perspective, IMC has been defined as the stakeholder-centred interactive process of cross-functional planning and alignment of organisational, analytical and communication processes that allows for the possibility of continuous dialogue by conveying consistent and transparent messages via all media to foster long-term profitable relationships that create value. Four IMC dimensions have been identified: message consistency, interactivity, stakeholder-centred strategic focus and organisational alignment. The extant literature suggests that a market environment characterised by a high level of competitive intensity would promote IMC (Low, 2000; Reid, 2005). Likewise, management literature (Zhou, Yim and Tse, 2005) indicates that competitive intensity is a crucial antecedent of innovation-oriented organisational culture, thus a positive link between competitive intensity and adhocracy culture type is expected. Accordingly to these premises, we hypothesised that competitive intensity is positively related to Integrated Marketing Communication (H1) and to the adoption of adhocracy culture (H2). In addition, the literature suggests that the adoption of a consensus-based decision-making model (e.g. Gulati, 2007), the organisational flexibility (Christensen et al., 2008), the level of risk tolerance among senior managers (Madhavaram et al., 2005) and their commitment to innovation (Schultz and Schultz, 1998) are all positively related to IMC. All these elements match the definition of adhocracy culture proposed by Cameron and Quinn (1999) within the Competing Values Framework (CVF). Moreover, the positive relationship between IMC and the achievement of a superior brand performance has been supported by several scholars (Luxton et al., 2015). Thus, we posited that IMC mediates the relationship between adhocracy culture and brand advantage (H3 and H4).

Data were gathered via an online self-administered survey among services businesses operating in Spain with at least 40 employees. CEOs, senior marketing and communication managers were targeted as key informants. As a sampling frame, a commercial listing of 969 businesses was drawn from the Bureau van Dijk SABI database. To collect the data, managers were first contacted by telephone to ask for their availability and to collect their e-mail addresses; second, a customised link to the online questionnaire was emailed to the 524 managers who agreed to participate. A total of 180 valid responses were obtained resulting in an 18.6% response rate (of the total population of 969 managers) and a 34.4 percent of the 524 managers who agreed to participate. As regards the measures, we opted to develop a new instrument to assess IMC, while the remaining constructs were measured by using scales drawn from the extant literature. To develop the IMC scale, a multi-stage research design modelled after Churchill (1979) has been executed. First, a comprehensive literature review enabled to identify the conceptual domain and generate an initial set of 59 items. Second, a two-round Delphi study was carried out using an international expert panel for content evaluation of the proposed IMC theoretical framework and items, resulting in a 25-item 7-point Likert type scale. To assess competitive intensity, an adaptation of the scale proposed by Jaworski and Kohli (1993) was used, while
adhocracy culture measure was derived from the Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument (Cameron and Quinn, 1999), based on the CVF. The scale used to measure brand advantage was drawn from Reid (2005).

In this study, the Structural Equation Modeling method was used to test the research hypotheses via applying partial least squares (PLS; Chin 1998) SEM with SmartPLS (Ringle, Wende and Becker, 2015) and taking the consistent PLS (PLSc) approach. The results showed an adequate overall fit (SRMR = .07). To obtain the level of statistical significance of indicator loadings, dimension weights and loadings, we performed a consistent bootstrap analysis with 5000 subsamples. The results of the measurement model indicated that all coefficients were statistically significant (p < .01) and exceeded the recommended cutoffs. In addition, the construct CR and AVE coefficients exceeded the recommended cutoff of .7 and .5, respectively, providing evidence for the reliability and the convergence validity of the measures. Discriminant validity was tested using the criterion proposed by Fornell and Larcker (1981). The structural model results indicate that competitive intensity is positively and significantly related to both adhocracy culture (β = .300; p < .01) and to IMC (β = .109; p < .05), providing support to H1 and H2, respectively. To test the mediation effect of IMC on the adhocracy culture-brand advantage relationship, the methods proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986) and Zhao et al. (2010) have been adopted. The results indicate that the effect exerted by adhocracy culture on brand advantage is not significant (p > .05), while positive and significant relationships were found between adhocracy culture and IMC (β = .733; p < .01) and between IMC and brand advantage (β = .491; p < .01), providing support to H3 and H4. In addition, the indirect (β = .361; p < .01) and total (β = .546; p < .01) effects of adhocracy culture on brand advantage were found to be positive and significant, meeting the condition for the full mediation of IMC. As a criterion of explanatory power magnitude, the R² were evaluated, while the Stone-Geisser's Q² test has been used to assess the predictive relevance. The present study provides the very first empirical demonstration of the mediating role of IMC on the relationship between the adoption of adhocracy culture and brand advantage. The findings suggested that this culture type, characterized by creative-orientation, flexibility, and innovation- driven leadership, contributes to build an IMC-friendly environment. Finally, this study empirically proves that IMC is positively associated to a greater brand advantage and mediates the relationship between adhocracy culture and brand advantage.

References
Through a Glass Darkly: The Leviathan Concept

Philip J. Kitchen

Abstract
This paper commences by discussing the role of marketing communications (and touches upon corporate communications to a degree) from an organizational perspective. Organisations take marketing communications seriously to the extent that in 2015 total marketing communications expenditure was in excess of US$1 trillion. However, there are some misgivings about the consequences of this barrage of unwanted, mainly trivial information. While, communications can and should be seen from a consumer/customer perspective, often it is couched in purely organizational terms where consumers are seen as persuadable awns on marketing and other organizational chessboards. Moreover, the 21st century represents a world of unparalleled communication opportunities for businesses and organisations of all types - not least, the agencies and advisers who service their needs. But only up to a point. For every opportunity there is a threat.

It could be argued marketing has become the dominant mode of business activity – and in many cases – organisational activity too. The modalities of analysing, planning, implementing and controlling marketing activities (not consumers) are endemic in many countries. Has marketing as a discipline become a type of leviathan? The short answer is no as choice is available practically everywhere!

Moreover, in a communication sense, consumers and customers are not passive pawns on a marketer’s chessboard. They may well be inundated with marketing messages via multiple modalities. But, reach[ing] (i.e. exposure) the sense organs of those who perhaps are in the target market, does not mean communication has taken place. In the UK, we are exposed – on average – to about 4,000 commercial messages every day. It is insufficient to be exposed to a message, or incoming stimuli. We must pay attention to the message, understand its meaning, accept its significance or be persuaded by it, and retain it in our long term memories, and then when circumstances or needs arise, draw upon that message and perhaps buy or purchase the communicated brand. Most consumers have neither the time, energy, motivation to allocate attention to marketing communications. If no or little attention is paid, we cannot process its significance, or be persuaded, or retain. Yet, when we examine our own mind, we find it is full of information for brands we do not buy, or use, and may never be in a position to buy or use. All of this rubbish is stored in our brains for [eventual] use, and continuously reinforced by small bytes of communication, is actually irrelevant to our lives, work or pursuit of happiness. Yet, it has been placed there.

There is a growing concern that the sheer depth, intensity, repetitiveness, and multiple modalities available to marketing communications in the second decade of the 21st century, if it continues at this pace, has the capacity to become a form of leviathan that will make of all people, consumers. And, if not consumers, harassed people who are for ever receiving messages which even if ignored, still form an ever present presence and pressure to conform and to buy. That is the concern, that there is also an increasingly annoying invasive marketing communication leviathan. Unwanted? Perhaps. Unneeded? Perhaps. Annoying? For many. Necessary? I’ll leave that one open. But, it cannot be left to the Marketer. Surely at some points, consumers and receivers must say ‘enough is enough’.

References
To be provided during presentation
Session C2: Corporate and Organisational Identity

**Corporate Identity Management: A New Mechanism for Implementing CSR**
Marwa Tourky, Philip J. Kitchen, TC Melewar and Ahmed S. Shaalan

**A Phoenix from the Branding Fire: The Resurgence of Corporate Visual Identity in Social Media**
Luke Devereux, TC Melewar and Pantea Foroudi

**Social Psychology: a Means of Marketers Maintaining and Building Internal Influence in the Firm by Influencing the Delivery of Brand Promises Made in Marketing Communications Activity**
Keith Glanfield, Sally Eaves and Anna-Lena Ackfeldt
Corporate Identity Management: A New Mechanism for Implementing CSR

Marwa Tourky, Philip J. Kitchen, TC Melewar and Ahmed S. Shaalan

Organisations are encouraged to behave in an ethical and socially responsible manner (Berrone et al., 2007) by, for example, competing fairly with competitors, acting responsibly toward the environment, treating employees fairly (David et al., 2005), and implementing appropriate codes of conduct (Maignan and Ferrell, 2001). Such pursuits may be due to the recent spate of corporate scandals, which have generated renewed attention to ethics in business and attracted the interest of researchers and the business press alike. Furthermore, the growing importance of government regulation, amplified scrutiny of off- and online media, and increased pressure from various stakeholders have placed business ethics and corporate social responsibility (CSR) challenges on the strategic agenda of virtually all firms (Berrone et al., 2007).

Accordingly, the importance of CSR has led to developments in CSR theories and related classifications schemes (Carroll, 1999; Wood, 1991) associated with the common belief that external organisational factors are the primary drivers behind CSR adoption. Although organisational practice plays a major role in interpreting and implementing CSR (Linnenluecke et al., 2009; Maon et al., 2010), research lacks clarity on how best to implement CSR (Bansal, 2005; Linnenluecke and Griffiths, 2010), placing little emphasis on the organisation itself (internal environment).

This study addresses these gaps by positioning CI management as a new mechanism for implementing CSR through its integration in internal and external dimensions of CI. CI is a strategic resource and a valuable tool for addressing the needs and demands of firms’ stakeholders (Van Riel, 1995), which include legitimate demands for product safety, workplace non-discrimination, business performance, and environmental interaction. Managers also have a moral obligation (and an enlightened self-interest) to direct firm activities to maintain an appropriate balance among stakeholder interests (Hay and Gray, 1974). Thus, the way firms manage their interactions with these domains contributes to the shaping of CI because their values, actions, and stance present a means of differentiation from other organisations (Berrone et al., 2007).

Thus, the objective of this study is to explore the nature of the relationship between CI and CSR, from the viewpoint of organisational managers in UK leading companies. Initially, this begins with a conceptual overview to define and establish CI and CSR dimensionality and the relationship between the two concepts. Then, an empirical phase applying a qualitative approach, using semi-structured depth interviews with 25 individuals from fourteen leading companies in the UK, as well as with three public relations (PR) agency executives who worked closely with these firms in related areas. Interviews target senior managers responsible for the CI mix (van Riel and Balmer 1997; Melewar and Karasomaoglu, 2006) as well as CSR management. The companies involved in the study come from a broad spectrum of industries including: one automotive, one bank, one broadcasting, five food & beverage, three food & drug, one healthcare, one IT, one telecommunications, one tobacco and three PR consultancies. The interview sample is chosen purposively and an interview schedule is designed and followed to guide the interviews and gain insights about research objectives. In data analysis, this study utilizes Nvivo8, a computer assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS).

The preliminary findings reveal the association of CSR with CI, manifested through one or more elements of the CI mix, including corporate, behaviour, culture, values, mission, founder, and communications. Drawing on a multidisciplinary, dynamic perspective, we aim to present a consolidative framework that interfuses several theoretical domains for understanding the relationship between CI
and CSR. The framework highlights the role of three dimensions for adopting and implementing CSR, integrated under the overarching umbrella of CI. We articulate this framework through the theories of stakeholder, organisational culture, organisational identification, leadership, and corporate communication.

The findings of this study have several important implications. On the theoretical level, it emphasises the relevance of adopting a multidisciplinary approach in examining the relationship between CI and CSR. CI is an overarching concept that derives insights and legitimacy from various areas of knowledge. Accordingly, grounding the analysis of CI and its relationship to other concepts (i.e., CSR) in one field provides a significant, though partial, view. The findings show that the theoretical lenses of CI are useful for understanding its relationship to CSR, with theories complementing each other. Despite the considerable support found for each theory, a collective understanding derived from all these theories have not been explored so far in the same study.

On the managerial level, this study also provides a new mechanism for adopting CSR through CI management. In order for CSR to be more than mere rhetoric, CSR should be institutionalized and actively integrated into the daily routines of the organisation. This can be achieved by collectively aligning organisational thinking, behaviour, and corporate design in a homogeneous corporate culture (Balmer and Gray 2003; Balmer and Greyser, 2006), which enables the organisation to speak with one voice and create a unified impression of what the organisation stands for (Lauring and Thomsen, 2009). With the help of mission statements, companies can also signal the quality of their products and legitimise their attempts to serve local communities through an ethically driven view of CSR (Atakan and Eker, 2007).

Top managers and founders can provide leadership by defining corporate values shared by other managers and employees within various departments of a company. Thus, management can create an environment in which employees identify with their organisations and live the values through behaviour (Atakan and Eker, 2007). In addition, top management leadership should be open to external influence by managing organisational image (Hatch and Schulz, 1997). Using a mix of both internal and external elements of CI management, organisations can grow, develop a culture, and shape an identity, with CSR as an integral part that runs throughout the firm.

References


A Phoenix from the Branding Fire: The Resurgence of Corporate Visual Identity in Social Media

Luke Devereux, TC Melewar and Pantea Foroudi

Abstract

Social media has changed the marketing landscape (Sedej and Justinek 2013; Dreher 2014; McFarland and Ployhart 2015) and also the behaviour of society itself (Mangold and Faulds 2009; Aula 2010; Bruce and Solomon 2013). It has therefore had a resounding impact on corporate identity (Bruce and Solomon 2013), allowing for the dissemination and development of the identity in a myriad of ways. This is especially so with the rise of corporate identity co-creation (Bruce and Solomon 2013). As a result it has introduced new areas to discuss visual identity. This is notable because visual identity has received less attention over time (Balmer 2008; He 2012) as corporate identity research focuses more on the holistic aspects and the multidisciplinary approach. This is despite it forming a large part of the construct’s early literature (Olins 1979; 1989). However, visual identity is experiencing resurgence in the realm of social media, especially with the current trend towards more visual-based channels (Go and Han 2016). It therefore is worthy of particular focus.

Social media has seen an explosion of visual content, with many channels being very visual-centric, whether it be images (Instagram, Snapchat) videos, (Vine, Youtube, Instagram Video) or live streaming (Periscope, Meerkat) to name just a few. The manner in which organizations can exist and express themselves visually has expanded, with many visual choices now open to organisations. This literature-based paper aims to explore how this has effected corporate visual identity and created numerous areas for future research.

We adopt a broad view of visual identity and do not simply focus on logos, as whilst these are still important to an organisation they are perhaps less so in the day-to-day interactions of social media. Much communication on social media is through visual means and can take the form of photos, live streams, videos, GIFs, memes, emoji’s, typography and even graphic novels. The list is ever expanding.

First the relationship of corporate identity and social media is discussed, looking at how the two should be seen together, using a viewpoint on contexts inspired by McFarland and Ployhart (2015). This is important as it helps frame subsequent discussion of corporate identity. The study then focuses on the visual aspect of this relationship and the opportunities it has created. Discussion looks at how even choice of platform/channel evokes some sense of identity. This is inspired by the work of Marshall McLuhan (1964) and his views on the medium being the message. The choice of visual content then can reveal much about the corporate identity, such as values, relationships and where it may sit on the diffusion of innovation in regards to technology and trends. Joining the right visual trend at the right time is more important than ever in this dynamic environment.

The study will also explore the co-creative element of identity. Visual identity is an integral part of co-creation on social media, which is a concept that has had anarchic effects on corporate identity (Bruce and Solomon 2013). It is being used more by organisations to form parts of their visual identity as they actively hand over more control to external stakeholders (Fournier and Avery 2011). This area could therefore be one of the most to benefit from co-creation, and also one that is ripe for research opportunity. Co-creation itself is a concept that could extend the work of Cornelissen et al. (2012) in regards to symbolic interactionism and its effects on identity. It could also create greater identification with an organisation, through contributing to the social identity of stakeholders.

The theoretical contribution of this paper is that it introduces new contexts within which to discuss corporate visual identity, an area that has received little attention of late.
hoping to provide future research directions for this particular area. It also looks at how symbolic interactionism and social identity can integrate with corporate visual identity. This could also be used to explore the other elements of sensory identity, especially the auditory dimension. The managerial implications highlight how the current trends in social media use offer up a plethora of opportunities to communicate the identity in a visual manner. These opportunities are highlighted and discussed to enable managers to see if they are offering a consistent message across all their touch points, but also, if they are making the most of the opportunities that are available to them in regards to identity portrayal.

This paper highlights the current resurgence of all things visual in the marketing environment, and how this can be extremely beneficial for both visual identity research and practice. Corporate identity research has lately neglected its visual roots, when in fact it is perhaps entering its most excitingly visual era yet. Reminding us of the power, for better or worse, of visual marketing communication.

References


Social Psychology: A Means of Marketers Maintaining and Building Internal Influence in the Firm by Influencing the Delivery of Brand Promises made in Marketing Communications Activity

Keith Glanfield, Sally Eaves and Anna-Lena Ackfeldt

Abstract
In order to be effective, marketers must have influence in the firm. In addition to accountability, other professions also value marketers for innovation. To maintain influence marketers must ensure innovation is effectively taken to market in marketing communications campaigns and that the brand promises contained within are delivered. However, in service organisations, marketers exercise little or no day-to-day management control over front-line employees. Those who co-create services with consumers and as a result deliver brand promises. This paper presents the results of a quantitative, structural equation modelling study. Determining that marketing managers are able to indirectly influence front-line employees through the brand associations they derive from customers and those they hold independently for themselves. This set of brand associations differently influence the organisational identity FLEs hold for their host and parent organisations and in turn influence forms of organisational commitment that are pre-requisites for discretionary service behaviours, service co-creation and brand promise delivery. This study empirically presents an opportunity for marketing managers to influence the delivery of brand promises in service organisations by developing an understanding of social psychology and in doing so maintain and build influence within the firm.

Keywords: marketing communications, brand promise, corporate brand associations, organisational identification, organisational commitment, service co-creation

Introduction
In order for marketing managers to be effective in an organisation they require internal influence. In addition to accountability, managing directors, senior accountants and other professions, who work alongside marketers, also value them and the marketing function for innovation (Verhoef and Leeflang, 2009). An essential component of successful innovation is successfully taking an innovation to market through effective marketing communications activity (Verhoef et al 2011). Activity which communicates and makes a brand promise to the consumer, that requires delivery at point of purchase or service co-creation (de Chernatony, Cottam and Segal-Horn, 2006). The delivery of a brand promise is particularly difficult in a services environment as it relies upon front-line employees (FLEs) not only to understand the brands promise but to translate it into the context of the service encounter and co-creation of the service (Wallace and de Chernatony 2009). Traditionally, marketers have little control and influence over FLEs as day-to-day FLEs are managed by retail or operations managers (Suvatjis and de Chernatony 2008). This becomes even more complicated when having to operate between corporate and divisional organisational structures. It is, however, essential marketing managers exert influence over this very important part of taking an innovation to market. This paper proposes, through communication of the corporate brand and an organisation’s brand community, that marketers potentially have influence over a number of social psychology phenomena that are pre-requisites for effective service co-creation and brand promise delivery.

Front-line employees play a vitally important role in delivering an organisation’s services to its customers (Bettencourt and Brown, 2003; Bettencourt, Brown and MacKenzie 2005), and representing the organisation in communicating its core defining characteristics to customers through continual customer contact and interaction (Hartline, Maxham and McKee 2000). This important person-to-person contact between a FLE and the customer, that is a service encounter (Bitner 1990; Bitner et al. 1994), influences both customer satisfaction and loyalty (Brady and Cronin 2001), and in turn the profitability and growth of the organisation (Heskett et al. 1994). Given the direct influence of FLEs upon organisational performance, it is essential General Managers understand what positively influences the FLE performance.

However, FLEs do not act independently and customers are not passive by standers during a service encounter. Rather, FLEs and customers actively collaborate in the co-creation of the services. Both FLEs and customers, through interaction, jointly build and develop the organisation’s services (Vargo and Lusch 2008), and in so doing contribute to the development of its wider service eco-system (Lusch, Vargo and Tanniru 2010). From the perspective of FLEs delivering a brands promise, it is essential for Marketing Managers to understand the chain of events leading to effective FLE service co-creation and, in particular, the factors in a boundary-spanning environment that manifest as pre-conditions for
service co-creation. Three factors are considered of importance.

First, in their day-to-day operating environment, FLEs are surrounded by the corporate brand, and their interaction with stakeholders is critical to the development of the brand (de Chernatony 2002; de Chernatony, Cottam, and Segal-Horn 2006). FLEs not only represent and develop the corporate brand with stakeholders but are also, themselves, influenced by the organisation’s corporate brand (Ind 2013). FLEs are, therefore, recognised as an important organisational stakeholder group, and are vital members of an organisation’s corporate brand community (Vallester and von Wallpach 2013). As part of a continual social process of negotiation and dialogue with other stakeholders, FLEs are primary actors in the on-going development of brand communities, developing, over time, both brand meaning and value, located in the minds of FLE and customer stakeholder groups (Brodie, Whittome and Brush 2009). Although it is intuitive to infer a relationship between FLE membership of a brand community and the extent to which they co-create services with service users, theory indicates that such a relationship is not straightforward. This paper contends that FLEs hold both their own evaluation of a corporate brand’s quality and construe the brand quality judgements held by customers, and that such evaluations place FLEs as members of the organisation.

Second, it is likely the organisation that FLEs are members of may be a division or subsidiary of a larger parent organisation. It is, therefore, important to understand how a division’s corporate brand influences FLEs psychological membership of both organisations. FLEs do not just hold a sense of themselves as individuals from the unique and individualising characteristics that distinguish them individually. As members of an organisation self-definition is extended to consider it in terms of their membership of social groups (Tajfel and Turner 1979). Terted social identity, FLEs likely hold this in multiple forms as members of groups at a team, division or organisational level (Cornelissen et al. 2007). A specific social identity, held for membership of a particular group, is only active if it is made salient in the form of individuals receiving signals and cues about the group. Making them aware of their group membership and informing the identity formation process is termed social categorisation (Turner et al. 1994). An organisation’s corporate brand is one such source of communicating signals and cues to FLEs about their organisation. It is proposed FLEs holding of a social identity for both a divisional and parent organisation, are a pre-requisite for service co-creation.

Third, the holding of a social identity does not in itself bind a FLE to a particular cause, course of action or objective (Meyer, Becker and van Dick 2006), i.e. organisational goals, programs and change projects (Herscovitch and Meyer 2002). Organisational commitment is a force that binds an employee with such a target (Meyer and Allen 1991). Employees maintain an attachment to that target because they ought to (normative commitment), want to (affective commitment) or feel they have too much to lose (continuance commitment) by severing the connection (Meyer and Allen 1997). Traditionally, the three components model (TCM) of the organisational commitment are pre-requisites for the co-creation of services, as they are predictors of discretionary service behaviours (Meyer, Stanley and Parhyanova 2012). The paper, therefore, proposes the social identities held by FLEs for divisional and parent organisations separately and differently influence each of the three components of organisational commitment, thus holding implications for FLE service co-creation.

The aim of this paper is, therefore, to theoretically develop and empirically test a conceptual model that, with the inclusion of organisational identification and organisational commitment, demonstrates the influence of the brand associations held by FLEs on the pre-conditions for FLEs co-creating an organisations services. Demonstrating the potential for Marketers to exercise influence on FLE service co-creation and brand promise delivery in their management and communication of the corporate brand.

Our paper contributes to the literature in the following ways. The paper empirically establishes the role of corporate branding in reinforcing FLE membership of, and the social identity held, for both divisional and parent organisations. Finding that the brand quality evaluation held by FLEs, and those they construe to be held by customers, positively influences only their social identity held for the division and not the parent. In addition, affective commitment, a strong pre-condition for FLE discretionary service behaviours and co-creation, is only positively influenced by the social identity held for the division. Whereas continuance commitment, that least associated with discretionary service behaviours and service co-creation, is only positively influenced by the social identity held for the parent. Determining that the corporate brand of the division, through the identification held by FLEs, supports service co-creation, whereas the parent organisation
does not. This raises a number of practical challenges for marketing managers. In how they manage both forms of social identity to support the pre-conditions for FLE service co-creation and brand promise delivery. In particular, what cue types are likely to positively influence deployment of FLEs social identity held for the parent organisation. Taken in its entirety, the structural equation model presented in this study establishes for marketing managers the important combined role of corporate branding, social identity and organisational commitment as pre-conditions for service co-creation and brand promise delivery.

The remainder of our paper is organised as follows. In the next section, the literature is reviewed, and concluding with a set of hypotheses that make our conceptual model. The research methodology is then introduced, followed by the results of our study. Finally, a discussion of the study’s findings is presented, along with its implication for theory and practice, and we conclude with the presentation of limitations of our study and directions for future research.

Literature Review

Pre-conditions for FLE service co-creation

Traditionally, customers are considered as passive recipients of services (Bitner 1990; Bitner et al 1994). A FLE, the representative of the firm in the service transaction, delivers the service while the customer consumes it (Bettencourt and Brown 2003; Bettencourt, Brown and MacKenzie 2005). Such service encounters are, traditionally, considered as unique events in their own right, and specific to the relationship between FLEs and customers (Bitner 1990). However, another perspective on service has emerged, that is, the service-dominant logic. The service-dominant logic posits services are not consumed, in a similar manners to products, rather services are co-created. Both the customer and the FLE participate in a process to co-create value for both parties (Vargo and Lusch 2008). These service encounters are not considered as individual discrete events, but as an ongoing process of co-creation between the firm, its customers and the firms wider service eco-system. Thinking about services in this context opens up numerous opportunities for firms to innovate, source new forms of advantage and increase the likelihood of sustainability (Lusch, Vargo and Tanniru 2010). For a firm to practically adopt and apply the service dominant logic to a business is not a simple as stating this is what we do from now on. Certain likely preconditions apply, especially where it concerns a FLEs pre-disposition to service co-creation.

Fundamentally, even in the most straightforward of service environments, FLEs directly and positively influence customer satisfaction as a result of interacting with customers (Heskett et al. 1994). FLEs not only operate within their job description (i.e. performing in-role behaviors), to achieve this, but additionally operate over and above it, termed extra-role behaviour (Ackfeldt and Wong 2006; Bettencourt and Brown 2003). Pro-social service behaviours, that is, FLE discretionary behaviours of a helping nature, which FLEs direct at customers to aid service quality and internally at colleagues in the organisation are also necessary pre-conditions for FLEs to positively and directly influence customer satisfaction (Ackfeldt and Wong 2006; Bettencourt and Brown 2003). It is therefore proposed, at a minimum, extra-role and pro-social service behaviours, collectively termed as discretionary service behaviours, are necessary pre-conditions for FLE service co-creation.

The extra-role and pro-social service behaviours of FLEs are a function of a number of phenomena including management support, systems and technology, training and so on (Gounaris 2008). Of particular importance is organisational commitment. FLEs remain in role because they want to (affective commitment), feel obligated (normative commitment) or the costs of leaving are too high (continuous commitment). Affective commitment, and less so normative commitment, influence extra-role and pro-social service behaviours and bind an FLE to a particular cause, course of action or objective i.e. organisational goals, programs and change projects (Herscovitch and Meyer 2002).

However, the form of commitment held by an individual is dependent upon the strength of attachment an individual has to an organisation, and whether that attachment is strong and permanent or weak and transient. Routed in a strong sense of organisational membership, this psychological affiliation and attachment to an organisation is termed organisational identification. A form of social identity, at the organisation level. Central to predetermining FLE co-creation, organisational identity is discussed next, followed by the importance of corporate branding in making organisational identity salient. A discussion on how differing strengths of organisational identity influence different forms of organisational commitment, follows.

FLE organisational identity

FLEs do not just hold a sense of themselves, defined in terms of the unique, individualising characteristics that distinguish them individually from others, but
also extend self-definition to consider it in terms of their membership of social groups (Tajfel and Turner 1979). This is expressed in terms of “we” (social identity), not “I” (personal identity). Holding a social identity is the result of the psychology of the causes and consequences of individuals seeing themselves, and being seen by others, as part of a social group. In the case of an organisation, FLEs’ membership of it is internalised contributing to their sense of self (van Knippenberg and Sleebos, 2006). Holding a social identity, therefore, involves FLEs seeing themselves as part of a larger whole.

However, individuals hold multiple social identities, which in an organisational context include membership of groups at a team, division or organisational level (Cornelissen et al. 2007). A social identity held at the organisation level, i.e. organisational identity concerns the “extent to which individuals define the self in terms of membership of the organisation and where identification with an organisation partly answers who am I” (Ashforth and Mael 1989). But, social identities held for membership of different groups, at differing levels of an organisation, are not discrete separate entities but inform each other (Cornelissen et al. 2007). In this case, the organisational identities held by FLEs at the host and parent organisational levels. Thus, we propose that:

Hypothesis 1: FLE parent organisational identity positively influences that held for the host organisation.

However, in order for social identities to form, in this case two forms of organisational identity, the foci groups to which the separate identifications are directed require saliency (Turner 1985). In that those who form the organisational identities, in this case FLEs, receive signals and cues about the organisations, which make them aware of their group membership, informing the identity formation process termed social categorisation (Turner et al. 1994). In our study, in the context of the influence of different levels of FLE organisational identification upon differing forms of organisational commitment, the cues and signals held by FLEs are the internal and external brand associations held for the host organisations corporate brand.

**FLE corporate brand associations**

Individuals mentally hold and store information about specific foci in the form of associations, termed associative network memory (Anderson and Bower 1973). The knowledge of a brand, held by consumers, is a form of associative network memory, which comprises a body of associations (Keller 1993). However, it is not just customers who hold brand knowledge, it is also other organisational stakeholders (Brown, Dacin, Pratt and Whetton 2006). As a stakeholder group, FLEs not only hold associations that answer the question “who are we as an organisation?” (i.e. organisational associations), they also hold associations that answer the question “what others think of the organisation?” (i.e. construed associations, Brown, Dacin, Pratt and Whetton 2006). As a result of the continual social process of dialogue and negotiation between FLEs and customers, as members of a brand community and the co-creation brand meaning and value, we propose FLEs construe brand associations held by customers, termed construed brand associations. In addition, we propose FLEs hold a set of brand associations, specific to them and their membership of the organisation, termed organisational brand associations (Brown, Dacin, Pratt and Whetton 2006). Although there are many forms of brand associations held by both customers and FLEs, the perceived quality of a brand is considered to be an all-encompassing set of associations that reflect an individual’s evaluation of a brand as a single entity (Keller, 1993). It is this perceived quality that is measured from the FLE and customer construed perspective. Thus, we hypothesise that:

Hypothesis 2: FLE construed brand associations directly and positively affect the organisational identity held for the host organisation.

Hypothesis 3: FLE organisational brand associations directly and positively affect the organisational identity held for the host organisation.

As the signs and cues that inform the social categorisation process for a particular organisational identity are related to that specific organisational group, it is unlikely that the brand associations held for the host organisation’s brand influence the organisational identity held for the parent organisation. Indeed, if the associations are strongly held and distinctive it is likely they negatively influence the organisation identity held for the parent organisation. Consequently, we propose the following:

Hypothesis 4: FLE construed brand associations directly and negatively affect the organisational identity held for the parent organisation.

Hypothesis 5: FLE organisational brand associations directly and negatively affect the organisational identity held for the parent organisation.
Organisational Commitment
Once organisational identity is made salient, it importantly influences differing forms of organisational commitment. The importance of organisational identity for service co-creation is this differing relationship between forms of social identity and forms of organisational commitment (Meyer, Becker and van Dick 2006). A stronger, more enduring social identity likely influences affective commitment associated with positively influencing discretionary behaviours, whilst a weaker less enduring social identity likely influences continuance commitment.

Organisational commitment may be seen as the relative strength of individual employees’ involvement and identification with an organisation, as well as loyalty to it (Allen and Meyer, 1990). Allen and Meyer (1990) conceptualised organisational commitment as a three-dimensional construct. That is, the affective attachment (affective), the perceived costs (continuance), and the obligation (normative) associated with the concept of commitment (Allen and Meyer, 1990). Research findings support the existence of these three separate, but interrelated components of commitment (Allen and Meyer, 1990).

Affective commitment refers to the employee’s emotional attachment to identification with and involvement in the organization. Affective commitment has its roots in the concept of exchange (Meyer and Allen, 1991). An individual employee who feels affectively committed to the organization (s)he works for, wants to remain and is willing to exert effort on behalf of it due to the positive work experiences and benefits that derive from the relationship with this organisation. Thus, affective commitment may be considered ‘reciprocity by desire’ (Meyer and Allen, 1991).

Normative commitment, on the other hand, refers to an employee’s feelings of obligation to remain an employee of the organization. These feelings develop due to the internalization of normative pressures prior to entry into the organisation, or following entry into it, and/or as a feeling to reciprocate the rewards paid in advance, or costs associated with employment incurred by the organisation (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Thus, normative commitment implies reciprocity by obligation.

Continuance commitment is based on the costs that employees associate with leaving the organisation (Meyer and Allen, 1991). The antecedents of continuance commitment may be anything that increases perceived costs of leaving the job (i.e. losing attractive benefits or giving up seniority based privileges). Continuance commitment does not correlate significantly with either affective or normative commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1991).

Meyer, Becker and van Dick (2006) propose that deeply rooted and strong organisational identities, as well as deeply structured identities, are values based, and influence affective commitment. Whereas more superficial and weak identities are exchange based, and influence continuance commitment. Both states of identification influences normative commitment. In this study, we test the influence of FLEs identification with their host and parent organisation upon the three components of organisational commitment. As FLEs are members of the host organisation, but not directly members of the parent organisation, we put forth the following:

Figure 1. Hypothesised Model
Hypothesis 6: FLEs organisational identification with the host organisation positively influences affective commitment.

Hypothesis 7: FLEs organisational identification with the host organisation positively influences normative commitment.

Hypothesis 8: FLEs organisational identification with the parent organisation positively influences continuance commitment.

Hypothesis 9: FLEs organisational identification with the parent organisation positively influences normative commitment.

Methodology and Results

Data collection and sample
Data was collected from FLEs in a large UK services organisation. 260 questionnaires were distributed to 20 branches and 145 usable questionnaires were returned, i.e. an effective response rate of 56%.

Measure Development and Assessment

We used established measures from the marketing and organization behaviour literature to measure the multi-item constructs in our study. All the constructs were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale, anchored by 1 = “strongly disagree” and 7 = “strongly agree”. The six items measuring FLE construed brand associations and organisational brand associations were adapted from Yoo, Donthu and Lee’s (2000) brand equity items used to measure a brand’s perceived quality. Mael and Ashforth’s (1992) six-item scale was used to measure divisional and parent organisational identification. Finally, we used Allen and Meyer’s (1990) scales to measure affective, normative and continuance commitment.

The constructs were measured with reflective measurement models, suggesting that the latent constructs cause the measurement variables (Hair et al., 2010). Prior to conducting a confirmatory factor analysis, the sample was successfully tested for non-response bias (Armstrong and Overton 1979) and common method variance (Podsakoff et al. 2003). The former was tested by deploying a surrogate measure in a confirmatory factor analysis. The factor loadings for the measurement model constructs remain the same with or without the surrogate measure (Lindell and Whitney, 2001).

A confirmatory factor analysis was conducted (using LISREL, Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1996), to assess the validity of the scales, leading to some item deletions with more than satisfactory goodness-of-fit indices (Hair et al., 2010): $\chi^2 (384) = 553.25, p=.00; CFI = .97; RFI=.91; RMSEA=.06$. Overall reliability and validity of the measurement model is good: composite reliability (CR) ranges from .81 to .93; average variance extracted (AVE) from .51 to .93; none of the squared correlations between pairs of constructs exceeded the AVE, therefore, discriminant validity was satisfied (Fornell and Larcker, 1981).

| Table 1. Means, Standard Deviation, CR, AVE Inter-Correlations and Squared Correlations |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|   | Means | SD  | CR  | 1  | 2  | 3  | 4  | 5  | 6  |
| AC | 4.35  | 1.55 | .93 | -9 | -6 | 40 | 57 | 56 | 17 |
| CC | 4.96  | 1.51 | .81 | 52 | -4 | 44 | 84 | 92 | 30 |
| NC | 3.62  | 1.31 | .86 | -8 | -6 | 23 | 18 | 61 | 13 |
| OID | 4.57 | 1.39 | .89 | -11 | -12 | 48 | 62 | 34 | 14 |
| OIG | 2.28 | 1.27 | .96 | -20 | -20 | 43 | 34 | 14 | 14 |
| CBA | 5.75 | 1.03 | .96 | 48 | 48 | 49 | 60 | 66 | 98 |
| OBA | 5.49 | 1.19 | .93 | 46 | 46 | 46 | 68 | 68 | 82 |

Notes: N=145; AC=Affective commitment, CC=Continuance commitment, NC=Normative commitment, OID=organisational identification host, OIG=organisational identification group, CBA=construed brand associations, OBA=organisational brand associations; AVE on the diagonal in bold; inter-correlations below the diagonal and squared correlations above the diagonal.
Results

LISREL (version 8.80), using maximum-likelihood estimation, was used to test the theoretical model and its hypotheses. The goodness-of-fit measures indicate that the hypothesised model is a good representation of the empirical data (Hair et al 2010): $\chi^2 (393) = 584.42$, $p=0.00$; CFI=.97; RFI=.91; RMSEA=0.58.

As hypothesised the relationship between organisational identity at the host and the parent level, H1, is strongly significant ($\beta_{31} = 0.31$, $t = 4.10$). Based on the hypothesised model, two of the four hypotheses relating to the influence of FLE construed and organisational brand associations on organisational identity (OI) at the host and parent level are significant. H2, the link between FLE construed brand associations and OI at the host level ($\gamma_{21} = 0.15$, $t = 1.97$) is statistically significant, whilst the link with OI at the parent level, H4, is not significant ($\gamma_{43} = 0.01$, $t = 0.06$). However, FLE organisational brand associations positively influence OI at the host level, H3 ($\gamma_{32} = 0.49$, $t = 4.68$), whilst the link with OI at the parent level, H5, is not significant ($\gamma_{53} = 0.07$, $t = 0.46$). As proposed, the OI held for the host organisation positively influences both affective commitment H6 ($\beta_{14} = 0.79$, $t = 8.05$) and normative commitment H7 ($\beta_{14} = 0.45$, $t = 3.90$), whilst that held for the parent organisation positively influences both continuance commitment H8 ($\beta_{25} = 0.19$, $t = 1.85$) and normative commitment H9 ($\beta_{25} = 0.27$, $t = 2.86$).

The theoretical implications of the study are fivefold. First, in line with Brown, Dacin, Pratt and Whetton (2006) FLEs make their own evaluation of a brand’s quality along with construing the brand quality evaluations of customers. These brand associations are a key component of the organisational and construed corporate associations held by FLEs about the organisation of which they are members. Just as FLEs derive customer need knowledge from service encounters with customers (Homburg, Wieseke and Bornemann 2009), they also derive the brand associations and brand evaluations held by customers. In this context it is the very service encounters that are so important for service co-creation that inform and influence the first step in the development of pre-requisites to FLE co-creation and brand promise delivery.

Second, the influence of organisational brand associations and construed brand associations on FLE organisational identification with their host organisation indicates these associations make FLE organisational identity salient. The signals and cues a corporate brand communicates about an organisation form part of the social categorisation process. It is, therefore, important to distinguish between FLEs as members of a brand community and the signal and cues they receive as a result of their membership. In this instance, it is a brand’s signal and cues that develop the associations held by FLEs, that make their host organisational identity salient. Indicating more than just brand community membership is needed to inform and influence the first step in the development of pre-requisites to FLE co-creation and brand promise delivery.

Third, the importance of these associations is further reinforced in the finding that FLE organisational identity with the host organisation strongly influences their affective and normative commitment, but not continuance commitment. Suggesting this form of social identity is values based, not exchange based. In other words, the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>Standardised estimate</th>
<th>Hypothesis Supported</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1: Parent organisational identification → Host organisational identification</td>
<td>0.307***</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2: FLE construed brand associations → Host organisational identification</td>
<td>0.151*</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3: FLE organisational brand associations → Host organisational identification</td>
<td>0.497***</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4: FLE construed brand associations → Parent organisational identification</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5: FLE organisational brand associations → Parent organisational identification</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6: Host organisational identification</td>
<td>0.792***</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Standardised parameter estimates

Discussion, Implications and directions for future research

Discussion, Implications and directions for future research

Note: * Significant at .05 level; ** Significant at .01 level; *** Significant at .0001 level
organisation’s corporate brand does not influence a form of temporary social identity that is based upon the bargain to be struck for the individual in their membership of a group. Instead, it influences a structured and deep routed form of social identity that is “values” based and associated with forms of organisational commitment that bind FLEs to a target because they want to be (affective commitment) or feel they should be (normative commitment), rather than feeling they have too much to lose (continguous commitment) by severing the connection (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Both these components of organisational commitment are associated with discretionary service behaviours. So, in the context of pre-conditions for FLE co-creation, the organisational identity held for the host organisation positively contributes as a precondition for FLE service co-creation and delivery of the brand promise.

Fourth, the study indicates the organisational identity FLEs hold for the host organisation is not held in isolation. It is influenced by that held for the parent organisation. In this case, the parent organisation is the group organisation that sets strategy and provides investment funding for the host organisation. The organisational identity held for the parent organisation is of interest as it indicates the social identity held for the parent organisation is exchange based. It does not influence the form of organisational commitment associated with discretionary service behaviours, affective commitment. Instead it influences continuance commitment that associated with having too much to lose by not being bound to a target or action, based upon the trade-off between effort and reward. In the context of pre-conditions for FLE co-creation, the organisational identity held for the parent organisation does not positively contribute as a pre-condition for FLE co-creation and brand promise delivery.

Fifth, it is apparent FLE membership of a corporate brand community indirectly influences the pre-requisites for FLE service co-creation. The presence of front-line employee organisational brand associations and construed brand associations indicate brand community membership. However, it is these associations that influence the deep structured and values based social identity held for the divisional organisation, not membership itself.

This study indicates in order for a corporate brand to influence the pre-requisites of FLE co-creation and brand promise delivery, the brand is required to make salient the organisational identity held for the host organisation and in turn influence the components of organisational commitment associated with discretionary service behaviours i.e. affective and normative commitment. It is this set of relationships that comprise the corporate branding and identity pre-conditions of FLE service co-creation and brand promise delivery.

This study demonstrates marketing managers are potentially able to influence service co-creation and brand promise delivery of FLEs without having day-to-day management responsibility for FLEs. Effectively managing the divisional organisations corporate brand, influences the social psychology phenomena of organisational identity and organisational commitment, important pre-requisites for service co-creation and brand promise delivery. This finding reinforces the importance for marketing managers to manage their corporate brand in an integrated manner. Often brands are only thought of in the context of their influence external to the organisation, ignoring their potential to influence those within it. The suggestion is not for marketing managers to cynically attempt to manipulate what all stakeholders associate with the corporate brand but rather to encourage marketing managers to think of the organisation’s corporate brand as a communicator of organisational cues and signals that influence how members of the organisation think and feel about it. Making the organisation’s corporate brand a means of influencing the multiple social identities held by all stakeholders and, importantly, FLEs who interact with customers.

There is much emphasis in the world of practice on the development of brand communities. This study indicates it is the associations FLEs hold from their own and the customers perspective that are important. Therefore, in measuring the performance of a corporate brand marketing managers should not just consider internal measurement of the brands performance, but also an assessment of the brand from those who work with customers every day, that is, FLEs.

In considering social identity, it is evident marketing managers must not be limited by focussing only on their own organisation but must widen their view to consider their organisation in the context of others. In particular, when considering the influence of social identity on FLEs, it is important to take account of other organisations, such as corporate parents that set strategy, and provide investment, thus influencing an FLEs day-to-day operating environment. Especially as this study indicates the organisational identity held for a parent organisation
negatively influence the preconditions for service co-creation and brand promise delivery.

It is evident from the study that in service organisations there is a means of marketing managers indirectly influencing the delivery of brand promises communicated to consumers in their marketing communications activity. Contributing to maintaining and building marketers’ and marketing’s influence within the firm. There are clearly benefits for marketers communicating the brand in such a way as to influence service co-creation and brand promise delivery. It is, however, not simply a matter of stating the organisation is now “doing co-creation” and employees must “get on with it”. It is clear a series of pre-requisites influence FLEs in this regard. If these are not taken into account, then the organisation’s ability to co-create services and deliver brand promises can more than likely be attributed to serendipity rather than effective management. In this environment, it is essential marketing managers understand the underlying organisational psychology of FLEs. Understanding what social identity is, what influences FLE social identity at multiple levels and the general present organisational commitment orientation of FLEs is important. In the extreme, if organisational identification is weak and exchange based, with FLEs remaining in their role because they have too much to lose by leaving, this is not a strong platform to develop service co-creation and brand promise delivery. If, on the other hand, organisational identification is strong and values based, with FLEs remaining in their role because they want to, this is a strong platform for both. Whatever the position of the organisation, it is imperative marketers to take account the influence of the corporate brand. Thinking that the organisation has a brand community is simply not enough: it is the organisational and construed brand associations that are of importance. After all, according to our findings, these start the process of FLE organisational identification and their consequent reasons for remaining in their role.

This cross-sectional study makes a number of contributions to the literature. Its purpose is to establish, based on theory, generalizable relationships between constructs. We recognise, however, that the study would significantly benefit from a complementary inductive qualitative study. Such a study would potentially help understand the broader phenomena that influence the social identities FLEs hold, the spectrum of social identities held, the nature of these and to develop a deeper understanding of the individual applicability of exchange and value based identities.

It is also important to view the quantitative research findings in light of its limitations. The sample was a single service organisation, in one country. This may not necessarily restrict, in broad terms, the study’s generalizability to other service organisations in the UK but may restrict the generalizability of specific findings more widely. Given this, the research would benefit from further replication studies, in other economies similar to that of the United Kingdom.

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Session C3: Branding and Communication

Developing Corporate Brand Equity Framework for SMEs
Serap Sap and Sharifah Faridah Syed Alwi

Brand Sensuality and Brand Experience: How Much Does Religion Matter?
Tuğra Nazlı Akarsu, TC Melewar, Olga Mourouti and Pantea Foroudi

Visitor Attraction Marketing and Tourism Destination Branding – Implications for Marketing Practices
Peter Björk and Adi Weidenfeld
Abstract
Small and medium sized enterprises (SMEs) represent the fundamental majority of Europe’s economy. Ninety-nine percent of European enterprises are comprised by SMEs, which provide economic growth, innovation, job creating and social integration. SMEs are backbones for world economy and corporate branding can be a new way for SMEs to differentiate and grow their businesses and create values for their internal and external stakeholders. Creating values provide SMEs with differentiation, competitive advantage, satisfaction and good financial performance. However, previous studies, discussed in both entrepreneurship and corporate branding literatures, have mainly focused corporate brand on multinational companies and disregard SMEs. Therefore, this study objective is to explain corporate brand building in SMEs and discuss how the firm could leverage its corporate brand equity. Proposed corporate branding framework could help SMEs to communicate their philosophies and stances better, become a competitive brand and achieve their corporate brand equity. However, this is still a work in progress, which is proposing a corporate brand-building framework for SMEs and in this study, literature review will be discussed.

Keywords: corporate branding, SMEs, corporate brand equity

Introduction
Many researchers and academics emphasize the significance and value of corporate branding (Balmer and Gray, 2003; Hatch and Schultz, 1997; Keller, 1998; Keller and Aaker, 1998; De Chernatony, 1999; Bickerton, 2000; Balmer, 2001; Harris and De Chernatony, 2001). A well-developed corporate branding constitutes an intangible asset of a company (Fombrun, 1996; de Chernatony, 1999) in order to develop a strategic value. A strong corporate brand provides benefits to the organization with an increase in ‘public profile, customer attractiveness, product support, visual recognition, investor confidence, encapsulating organizational values, and staff motivation’ (Balmer and Greyser, 2003, p.973). Understanding the significance of corporate branding is vital for companies because it provides the competitive advantage of a company, ensuring stakeholders’ satisfaction and loyalty and brings high profit (Griffin n, 2002).

The importance of corporate branding for companies is crucial; therefore it is studied by many researchers. However, previous studies relating to corporate branding have mostly focused on large/multinational companies (Krake, 2005; Aaker, 1991; Ind, 1997) and disregard SMEs (Wong and Merrilees, 2005; Rode and Vallaster, 2005) despite Ninety percent of all companies being SMEs in Europe (Ec.europa.eu, 2016). Branding, brand management and corporate branding for SME’s has been considerably neglected (Merrilees, 2007; Krake, 2005). Corporate branding is important for SMEs in order to grow in the market (Berthon et al, 2008; Abimbola, 2001; Rode and Vallaster, 2005; Wong and Merrilees, 2005). Although SMEs are smaller in size, emerging researches have shown that SMEs should be aware of using corporate branding (corporate communications) in order to give right messages to their internal and external stakeholders for creating value (Gabrielli and Balboni, 2010; Nielsen and Thomas, 2009). However, owing to limited work in this context, it is unclear of the exact process of corporate brand management within the SME context. In a larger multinational corporation, corporate branding begins with a corporate personality or identity before the company is established (Rode and Vallaster, 2005; Kollmann and Suckow, 2007; Merrilees, 2007, Schütz and Hatch 2008, p.100), and then continues with a corporate culture which represents the behaviour of the employees (Duncan and Moriarty, 1998; Bergstrom et al., 2002; Tomczak and Brexendorf, 2003), shaping the corporate image (Hatch and Schultz, 2003) and later the reputation of the firm (or
corporate brand equity). With smaller firm (or start-ups) though, this process is not evident (Rode and Vallaster, 2005).

Thus, the aim of this study is to explain corporate brand building in SMEs and discuss how the firm could leverage the corporate brand equity. However, this is still a work in progress, which is proposing a corporate brand-building framework for SMEs and in this study, literature review will be discussed.

Corporate branding is discussed with corporate identity, corporate culture, corporate image and corporate reputation. Although, it is known that a corporate brand provides value, competitive advantage, satisfaction and loyalty (Davies et al. 2003), very little is known about the SMEs corporate brand building and its effect on corporate brand equity. This study, therefore, provides theoretical insights and practical advice in order to explore how the corporate brand is built within SMEs. For this purpose, the research objectives of this study are considered as 1) to identify the gap between corporate identity, corporate culture, corporate image and corporate reputation and its effect on corporate brand equity in the SME context, and 2) to examine how corporate brands leverage the corporate brand equity in the SME context.

The remainder of study is organized as follows: Firstly the literature review, theoretical framework and conceptual framework are reviewed in the Corporate Brand Building. Then corporate brand equity in the SME context is discussed, with the following section describing the methodology of the study.

**Literature Review and Theoretical Framework**

**SMEs**

SMEs not only comprise a large percentage of the European economy, but they also contribute to the economic growth by creating jobs for the unemployed, thus increasing productivity and encouraging innovation.

The European Union defines the SMEs based on two criteria; annual turnover or balance sheet total and staff headcount. According to this criteria SMEs are enterprises with less than 250 employees or with less than ≤ € 50 m annual turnover. SMEs are divided in three relating to their employee number micro-sized (<10), small-sized (<50) and medium-sized (<250). Ninety percent of Europe enterprises are comprised by micro-sized SMEs (Ec.europa.eu, 2016).

SMEs do not have professional knowledge regarding marketing and branding activities (Gilmore et al., 2006). According to Krake (2005), managers/owners of SMEs are the key decision makers responsible for the implementation of branding within SMEs. Their main constraints are time and the financial budget for branding (Merrilees 2005). In the main they have short-term plans and small budgets for marketing in comparison to large companies. SMEs have flexibility and close interactions with stakeholders, thus branding activities must be immediate strategic plans for them.

**Concept of Corporate Branding**

Even though the term ‘corporate branding’ was born almost 20 years ago in literature (Balmer, 1995), it still continues to develop. Academics define corporate branding in different ways. According to Balmer (2013), the corporate brand is an unofficial contract (promise), and fulfilment of this promise (Riley and De Chernatony, 2000), which is given by the institution or organization to its stakeholders. Others explain the corporate brand as an organizational identity (Abratt and Kleyn 2012; Schultz and Hatch 2008) and its visual, verbal and behavioural expression (Knox and Bickerton 2000). On the other hand, Urde (2003) states that the corporate branding process comprises of organizational core values.

A successful corporate brand differentiates the company from its competitors, combines all its stakeholders and makes them feel part of the company (Schultz and Hatch, 2008 p.100). In addition, it makes a contribution to
the company by increasing ‘public profile, customer attractiveness, product support, visual recognition, investor confidence, encapsulating organizational values and staff motivation’ (Balmer, 2003 p.302). The corporate brand presents values to its internal and external stakeholders. Thus, this value offers differentiation, competitive advantage, satisfaction and good financial performance (Alwi and Silva, 2007), reputation, loyalty (Davies et al. 2003) and profitability (Griffin n, 2002).

Components of Corporate Branding
According to Schultz and Hatch (2008) a successful corporate brand is a valuable strategic asset for the company, which provides market access and penetration, and differentiation from its competitors. Their model proposes that in order to have an affective corporate brand, a continuous alignment between vision, culture and images is required. They refer to identity with vision and claim that a holistic and bilateral relationship between managers, employees and stakeholders exists.

Schultz and Hatch (2008, p.68) states that alignment between corporate vision (identity), image and culture is essential for a successful corporate branding. However, corporate reputation cannot be excluded from this sequence. Pringle and Gordon (2001) define this alignment as conformity between the internal and external values of the organization and therefore the eternal stakeholder rather than the customers is an important part of external value. Briefly, Conformity starts with a corporate identity (manager), the vision is then passed to the employees, who carry the message to both the customers and other external stakeholders. Thus, the manager/owner, employees, customers and other stakeholders should behave and carry the same message in accordance with the corporate identity for the success of the corporate brand. It is therefore concluded that the larger the gap between corporate identity, corporate culture, corporate image and corporate reputation, the poorer the success of the corporate brand will be.

Corporate Identity, Culture, Image, Reputation
Corporate identity is the unique attribute of an organization (Gray and Balmer, 2000), it is the answer of ‘what or who we are?’ and the organization’s raison d’être (Balmer, 2013). According to de Chernatony (1999) corporate identity pays particular attention to the compound of the organization’s internal values and carries them to its stakeholder. A successful corporate brand identity enables organizations to enter marketplaces, captivate investments, motivate employees, differentiate products and services and gain competitive advantages over the competitors (Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006).

Corporate Culture is ‘a company’s shared values, beliefs and behaviours which are a result of essence of corporate identity’ (Balmer, 1998). It gives the company a personality (Kilman, 1995) and it helps to have an internal harmony in order to understand each other. (Olins, 1978). Having a corporate culture allows employees to feel secure and valuable to the company. It results in satisfaction in the working environment and loyalty to the company. Nielsen and Thomson (2009) emphasize the importance of corporate communication (corporate culture) in order to be a good workplace for employees.

Corporate image is a mirror for the whole corporate identity and culture. Corporate Image is the general idea of how customers perceive the company (Davies and Chun, 2002) and is briefly defined as what customers think when they are exposed to a company’s visual
or sound (Gray and Balmer, 1998). A successful and unique corporate image provides competitive advantage to the company (Davies et al., 2003; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006). It increases company awareness, familiarity and favourability, which bring trust and advocacy (Tran et al., 2015). All these create customer satisfaction and loyalty to the company. Gabrielli and Balboni (2010) state that SMEs should be aware of creating value for their customers with using right corporate communication tools (corporate image) in order to give right messages for long term goals.

Corporate reputation is the stakeholder`s perception of the company (Gotsi and Wilson, 2001; Balmer, 1998). These stakeholders are investors, NGOs, partners, media and politicians. Corporate reputation is the sum of the past and present actions of company. An improved corporate reputation provides better returns to the company and represents a strong relationship between the company and its stakeholders (Abratt and Kleyn, 2012).

**Brand Equity**

Brand equity is one of the most important intangible assets of companies, which allow it to create value (Aaker, 1991; Keller, 1998). Scholars explain brand equity in two different perspectives; financial oriented and behavioural oriented.

Aaker (1996) defines the brand equity as `a set of brand assets or liabilities associated with the brand that add to, or subtract from, the value the product provides’. It has five dimensions; brand loyalty, brand awareness, perceived quality, brand associations, and brand assets. First four dimensions refer to intangible assets of organization, but brand assets are tangible assets, which should be measured differently.

On the other side; Keller (2000, p. 115) explains corporate brand equity as `the differential response by consumers, customers, employees, other firms or any relevant constituency to the words, actions, communications, products or services provided by an identified corporate brand entity’. Briefly, corporate brand equity is composed by the total result of corporate branding activities. Keller’s customer brand equity model mainly represents a B2B context, which is the major work of SMEs. Keller explains his model in six components; salience, performance, imagery, judgments, feelings and resonance. Salience asks the `who are you?’ which is corporate identity including the differentiation. Performance and imagery answers the `what are you’, meaning that corporate image covers satisfaction. Judgments and feelings represent the response and resonance shows relationships, includes trust and loyalty. Keller’s model explains the model with more intangible results in the B2B context, matching the corporate brand equity corporate in SMEs.

**Conceptual Framework**

The aim of this study is to explain corporate brand building in SMEs and discuss how it leverages the corporate brand equity.

Schultz and Hatch (2008, p.68) emphasize that a strong corporate branding requires cohesion between corporate vision (identity), image and culture. Thus, we determined the dimensions of corporate branding as corporate identity, corporate image and corporate culture. However, owing to the nature of corporate branding, which covers relations between all stakeholders, corporate reputation is considered as one of the dimensions under the corporate branding and it cannot be excluded from this sequence. As a consequence, corporate brand building is an evaluated combination of corporate identity, corporate culture, corporate image and corporate reputation.

The proposed model tries to find relationship between corporate branding dimensions and corporate brand equity in the SME context.

In order to reach this aim two research objectives have been developed from the literature review.
1) To identify the gap between corporate identity, corporate culture, corporate image and corporate reputation and its effect on corporate brand equity in the SME context,

2) To examine how the corporate brand leverages the corporate brand equity in the SME context.

Methodology
The methodology used for this research includes both a qualitative and quantitative research approach. A mixed-method will be used as a valuable research strategy in order to check the validity of findings, to eliminate bias in research methods and to develop research instruments (Denscombe, 2010). The weakness of using a single method is balanced with the strengths of the other method (Jick, 1979). Thus, the research is designed to progress from qualitative to quantitative analysis. That is, sequential or a two-phase design. Qualitative methods will be conducted by means of in-depth and semi structured interviews with a sample of SMEs, the observation of official social media platforms of SMEs and printed and online additional materials. As a quantitative method, survey data will be collected. In addition to Likert-scale questionnaires responded by SMEs, companies’ financials and other media and press reports are other possible data sources. The interviews and data collection will be performed with SMEs in Turkey. Scholars and practitioners will benefit from this study in terms of fulfilling a gap in the corporate branding literature. The implications of study for managers and owners of SMEs are that this study will improve their understanding about practices of corporate branding in their enterprises.

Conclusion
This study proposes a framework on how SME firms could achieve a more effective positioning of their businesses and differentiation over their competitors through a corporate branding approach (Schultz and Hatch, 2008), which in turn will help to sustain the firm in the longer term (Balmer, 2006). This is due to their current product-driven approach, which is considered to be less effective as it focuses mostly on functional values, daily operations as a result of SMEs’ lack of time, human and financial resources (Mowle and Merrilees, 2005). Although Witt and Rode (2005) argue that building a corporate brand image for the SMEs should begin with a well-developed corporate identity from the founding of the company, but this is not usually the case for many firms where a more marketing process relying on more tactical (4Ps) such as product and communication are the common approach. Communicating the firm at product/services level limits the capability of image and reputation building and thus is a less sustainable form of differentiation (de Chernatony et al, 2000). Therefore, this study proposes SMEs build a new branding approach (corporate brand) firstly through a strategic level before engaging in a more tactical (4Ps) approach. By proposing a corporate brand framework, this could help SME firms communicate their philosophies and stances better, become a competitive brand and achieve their corporate brand equity (Keller, 2000).
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Brand Sensuality and Brand Experience: How Much Does Religion Matter?

Tuğra Nazlı Akarsu, TC Melewar, Olga Mourouti and Pantea Foroudi

Tell me and I’ll forget,
Show me and I might remember,
Involve me and I’ll understand
Benjamin Franklin

Religion that is considered to be the unique human experiences in life (Otto, 1923) has been a topic of interest in different aspects from both societal (Marx, 1886) and individual level (Durkheim, 1959). Although the effect of religion has been studied from different focus of interests in social psychology (Freud, 1928; Durkheim, 1959), economics (Weber, 1930) and philosophy (Muscio, 1918), in branding context, however, religion has studied from one point of view, which can be defined as consumer buying behaviour (Essoo and Dibb, 2004; Mokhlis, 2009; Rehman and Shabbir, 2010).

The relationship between religiosity and branding is intriguing such as Lindstrom (2009) found out that human brain respond in a similar way to religious and spiritual symbols with the way brain reacts to brands. According to Lindstrom’s (2009) pioneering three year, 7 million dollar study which was used functional magnetic resonance imaging technology (fMRI) on 2,000 individuals who identify themselves as devout Christians, reveals that when those devout individuals exposed to religion and faith based triggers show the same brain activity with individuals who claims themselves as brand fans -to have a powerful brand connection with brands- such as Apple, Harley-Davidson and Guinness when they exposed to the iconography of their brand preferences. The surprisingly interesting result of this study may be explained by what Erdem et al. (2010) points out that religiosity and brands are good substitutes due to their capability to allow individuals to express their self-respect. Even an ambiguous relationship between religion and brand exists, being marketed Mecca Cola as an alternative to Coca Cola to devout Muslim consumers, or the success of veiled Barbie Dolls in Islamic countries (Burroughs et al., 2010) shows that only few companies seem to have realized the ultimate promise of such relationship–building efforts: consumer religiosity favorably alter consumer to have a positive brand experience, who is not only become loyal, but also enthusiastically promotes company and its brand to others with his/her motivation to pay premium price for brand itself.

Since successful brands try to deliver sensorial and emotional experience for their consumers, as consumers seek for “fantasies, feelings and fun” (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982, p. 132) rather than fulfilling their functional needs (Morrison and Grane, 2007; Walter et al. 2013), understanding the mechanism of human senses, its antecedents and driven factors became quite important therefore this intuition drive researchers to investigate the notion of human senses (Hulten, 2011). Along that thinking, there are powerful brands such as Coca-Cola, Harley Davidson, Apple, Singapore Airlines and BMW who have shifted their marketing strategies from selling services to selling experiences by triggering sensory channels – taste, touch, hear, smell and auditory stimuli (Lindstrom, 2009). In this vein, substantiating the idea that using sensorial channels to alter consumers’ attitude in a positive manner, in other words, “engages the consumer’s senses and affects their behaviour” (Krishna, 2010, p.2) and as a consequence, delivers positive brand experience can be traced in the literature (Aggleton and Waskett, 1999; Morrin and Chebat, 2005; Hulten et al., 2009).

As the concept of branding has already been in a transition in between traditional marketing to experiential marketing, brands has been undergoing transformation to understanding sensorial marketing that extends beyond the traditional paradigm, which needs to consider all phenomenon from the beginning (Brakus et al., 2009; Krishna, 2010). The very foundation of this
study and the idea behind it aims to determine to what extent the religious factor – faith, belief and spirituality – could serve as the model for experiential branding. Prior studies on branding in the context of experiential and sensorial marketing has not been able to capture the role of religiosity could create the ultimate bond between consumer and the brand by being the mediator in between brand sensuality and brand experience. The assumption is derived from the statement belongs to Belk et al. (1989), which points out that consumption, has become to connotate to experience the sacred. By this implication what Belk et al. (1989) asserts and Lindstrom (2009) reveals corresponding in the same idea that rather than having ordinary consumption choices, consumers demand a spiritual pleasure from their consumption as they always do from their religion. According to Barna (2007), individuals try to embed their religion and its practices to their entire life even though they do not want to; religion has been infused individuals’ each pillar of practice by using five senses and the cognition of human senses. For instance, the sound of five daily prayers and its melody can evoke positive feelings and thoughts for a devout Muslim, or the altars and the patterns in the images presented in Catholic church can be the most powerful positive image for a Christian individual as a power of sight (Barna, 2007).

In addition, the smell of rose can be one of the most pleasurable scents for a Muslim since there are quite significant connotations presented in Quran for Prophet Muhammad (Quran, Rahman 55:37) and in Rumi’s Masnavi’s (Halman, 1983).

This article contributes to the growing research on consumer religiosity and brand relationships by conceptualizing the relationship between brand sensuality, religiosity, brand experience and its consequences such as materialism, hedonism, and repurchase intention. This study aims to focus brand sensuality with its dimensions: auditory, visionary, touch, smell, taste, brand experience and religiosity. In this regards, religiosity is proposed as a mediator between brand sensuality and brand experience, as religiosity is triggered by five senses and religion is structured on the systematic approach even it is not necessary in the belief in a God, religion also gives individuals the sense of fulfillment and feeling of understood (Oullier, 2014). Therefore, this study delineates that the positive brand sensuality can articulate the consumers’ religiosity, which directs consumers to have favourable brand experience along with having materialism, hedonism and repurchase intention.

References
Visitor Attraction Marketing and Tourism Destination Branding – Implications for Marketing Practices

Peter Björk and Adi Weidenfeld

Abstract
This paper outlines an attraction-destination marketing and branding model, and presents a set of marketing practices for visitor attractions and destination marketing actors to follow. The discussion is based on the principles of service marketing, destination branding models, and authenticity and place attachment theories. While the role of attractions in tourism destination branding is widely recognized, there is a paucity of papers discussing how to link the marketing of visitor attractions to destination branding. For tourist value creation, the three tourism marketing practices presented are; synchronization of visitor attraction marketing and destination branding strategies including the management of the upstream effects of iconic and flagship attractions on destination image, attraction bundling, and value constellation facilitation. In a tourism marketing system, this implies an extended focus on network internal, external and interactive processes, and identification of jointly agreed on destination identity cues. The paper implies on directions for future research including the need to identify when and which resources visitors can partake in different types of service processes; providing further insight into how visitor attraction marketing and destination branding can be coordinated and studying; and studying the mechanisms which open up the service processes for perceived authenticity and place attachment of different tourism segments.
Session D1: Social Media

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Introduction
In the present day, the Internet is swiftly coming to dominate as a means of projecting images and attracting travellers. The Internet is able to provide the same kind of information as traditional secondary sources, but consumers may consider online sources more reliable, therefore accept their messages more readily. They can actively choose between a wide varieties of information sources posted on Electronic word-of-mouth (EWOM) sites and are able to share their experiences with others. Despite the fact that the information on such sites is considered to be subjective and to represent others' experiences, it can have a strong impact on prospective business travellers when they choose a destination. There is a general lack of information on how these travellers use the internet to process the information (Heung, 2003; Buhalís & Law, 2008; Williams et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2015). In previous literature on information processing and persuasion, the elaboration likelihood model, proposed by Petty & Cacioppo (1981), argues that consumers process information in EWOM either via a central or peripheral route. Thus, both information quality and information ranking are considered to have different effects on travellers and purchase intention (Fu et al., 2011; Filieri & McLeay, 2014). Petty & Cacioppo’s (1981) elaboration likelihood model (ELM), which is used to explain different ways of processing stimuli, is used in this research to explore EWOM, specifically to exam the use of central and peripheral routes to persuasion in making decisions around tourism. For this research specific variables are explored, namely information timeliness and ranking in EWOM.

Keywords: Electronic word of mouth (EWOM), elaboration likelihood model (ELM), cognitive attitude, affective attitude, central route, peripheral route, need for cognitive closures (NFCC)

Background
Research on EWOM, refers to information timeliness as the length of the interval between publishing and viewing information online (Fu et al., 2011). Whereas, information ranking is the measure of the evaluated levels given to a certain product and is typically represented by a number of stars (Fujimoto, 2011). However, people’s attitudes, beliefs, and intention to carry out a certain behaviour, either in central or peripheral route, can be influenced by cognitive and affective characteristics (Shih et al., 2015). According to Yong & Yoo (2004), the cognitive dimension of attitude refers to particular beliefs related to the subject, which comprises of both the evaluation and perception of the subject under consideration. On the other hand, the affective dimension of attitude centres on the degree to which the consumer likes the subject under consideration, and, is a measure of the amount of emotional feeling towards it. In addition, both affective feelings and cognitive beliefs influence intention to perform certain behaviours (Yong & Yoo, 2004). However, attitude studies have shown that cognitive and affective attitude are two separate functions that influence behavioral intention (Yong & Yoo, 2004). Petty and Cacioppo (1986) also suggested that attitude can be influenced by cognitive elaboration, while Kim and Morris (2007) propose that it is influenced by affective feelings. Recently, scholars have agreed that both affective attitude and cognition play a part in determining how users process EWOM information and purchase intention (Li & Ke, 2014; Shih et al., 2014; Chen et al., 2015).

Moreover, beliefs, whether they be evaluative or non-evaluative, can influence affective attitude (Yong & Yoo, 2004). Users of EWOM form non-evaluative beliefs about the information they are reading, and these beliefs, in turn foster, evaluative beliefs (i.e.
cognitive attitude). Further to this, these evaluative beliefs will develop into users’ affective attitudes (like or hate) (Yong & Yoo, 2004; Shih et al., 2014). But in some cases, the biological system of an individual can cause very fast affective reactions towards information in EWOM, which then lead to further cognitive processes and attitude towards certain behaviours. This sequence of events is explained in psychological literature as ‘confirmation bias’. This refers to the fact that individuals may make a very quick judgement on the basis of their first impressions (in this case about information on EWOM websites) and they then unconsciously seek out information that confirms their initial impressions, ignoring any contradictory information (Li, 2008).

For Saudi Arabian marketers, the research considers the processes that travellers go through when they are searching for EWOM information related to travel and tourism activities. They may use the central or peripheral route, and cognitive or affective attitude, and both of these factors can affect their intention to use EWOM. Therefore the theoretical framework used in the research is presented in Figure 1.

**Aim**

The purpose of this paper is to examine the extent to which traveller’s process information in EWOM in Saudi Arabia, and which factors encourage intention to use EWOM. This will be done by developing a theoretical model, grounded in the elaboration likelihood model (ELM) and the attitude-intention link, which has been significantly examined in information systems (IS) studies (e.g. Bezes, 2015), but not in persuasion of EWOM information studies. This is used to assess how travellers who are in need of cognitive closure use central and peripheral routes to elaborate EWOM information. Need of cognitive closure refers to “the desire for clear, definite, or unambiguous knowledge” (Kruglanski & Freund, 1983, p.448). This can be measured through one dimension of information quality as part of the central route (information timeliness), and two dimensions that are associated with the peripheral route of persuasion (information overall ranking, and recommendations peer ranking) (see Figure 1). Furthermore, the context of Saudi Arabia is considered in this study because it has been identified that information in EWOM is not reliable, and that there is a need for first-time visitors to the country to conduct research before they travel in order to ensure that they are adequately prepared (Travel State Gov, 2015). Motivations for searching for information regarding visiting Saudi Arabia can be related to fears over security, while other motivations can be around cultural sensitivity and the lack of fit between Islamic and Western cultural practices.

**Method**

The hypotheses will be developed and tested by data collection through a questionnaire survey conducted in Saudi Arabia. The sample will be 400 travellers who work in Saudi

![Figure 1: Research model.](image-url)
Arabia and who perform tourism activities in their leisure and free time. This was an analytical study on expatriate professional workers residing in Saudi Arabia, cities such as (Al-Riyadh, Jeddah and Al-Dammam). The research was performed during 2016. 400 questionnaires were distributed. It is common that expatriate workers meet and socialise on at certain locations, including cafes, food courts and restaurants. In order to gain the maximum sample size, it was decided to distribute the questionnaires during the week when the expatriate workers would be gathered together taking their lunch. Distribution was undertaken on a single day for one particular location visits as, it was perceived, repeat visits to the same location, would lead to meeting the same people and the possibility of duplication of data. The data collection tool was a standardised questionnaire. Data collected after gaining the agreement from the respondent that they were willing to participate. All data was anonymous and confidential. All the sample were males, and their countries of origin were, European, African, Middle Eastern, USA, and Asian.

Results

Previous studies found that when users are highly in need of cognitive closure they use both the central and peripheral routes to process the information, and when they have a low need for cognitive closure, they process information through the central route rather than the peripheral route (Klein and Webster, 2000). This study found that in EWOM traveller’s process information in both the central and peripheral routes in order to reduce uncertainty in online searching. They use alternative evaluation in order to develop a smaller set of choices when they travel to Saudi Arabia, and users can access sufficient information to make better quality decisions, and both cognitive attitude and affective attitude where relevant. The study reports that those with both a low and high need for cognitive closure have a cognitive and affective attitude towards EWOM, and both process the information in terms of central and peripheral variables. Furthermore, a high NFCC has a significantly larger effect on cognitive attitude and affective attitude than a low NFCC. However, both cognitive and affective attitude can influence intention to use EWOM in travel-related information and tourism activity in Saudi Arabia.

The results of the empirical research contribute to the growing body of literature on EWOM linked to the theory of elaboration likelihood model, and attitude and behaviour towards the use of EWOM in travel and tourism activities. Furthermore, it is useful for Saudi Arabian marketing companies to uncover what types of EWOM information have the most influence on their customers, as then they would be better placed to provide them with the information they need, and to assist them with making informed decisions. With regards to practitioner value of the research, the results have the potential to lead to better EWOM communication strategies on the part of marketers, and the development and expansion of their place in the travel market.

Limitations

The findings cannot be generalised to general travellers because this study used Saudi Arabia for its geographical scope. Therefore the study is limited to the sample, which comprises those who travel to Saudi Arabia for work.

References


The Use of New Technologies for Corporate Marketing Communication in Luxury Retailing

Rosanna Passavanti, Eleonora Pantano, Costas Priporas and Saverino Verteramo

Abstract
The aim of this paper is to explore how luxury brands use new technologies as a tool for corporate marketing communication. Building on qualitative data from the luxury industry, our analysis reveals that this sector is conscious of the benefits of using new media as a marketing communication tool, while the effective use of these new media is still limited. As a consequence, the innovation forces affecting the retail industry are still limited to luxury retailers. The study provides an empirical contribution to the emerging topic of innovation and technology management in retailing with emphasis on the luxury sector through its in-depth investigation of the usage of smart technologies by the firms studied.

Keywords: technology management, corporate marketing communication, brand communication, luxury retail, innovation management

Introduction
Continuous progress in information and communication technology is dramatically changing the retail industry. In fact, the continuous availability of innovative systems is largely modifying the retail landscape (Hopping 2000; Pantano 2014), in terms of (i) providing entertainment experiences for consumers, while integrating leisure factors (Jones 1999; Arnold and Reynolds 2003; Backstrom 2011; Johnson et al. 2015; Pantano 2014; Demirkan and Spohrer 2014); (ii) consumer-retailer relationship building (Pantano, 2014); (iii) layout and atmosphere (Demirkan and Spohrer 2014; Poncin and Mimoun 2014; Pantano 2016); (iv) evolution of the physical point of sale (Pantano and Verteramo 2015); and (v) benefits for retailers (Alexander et al. 2005; Tsai et al. 2010; Pantano 2014; Hristov and Reynolds 2015; Evanschitzky et al. 2015). Pantano and Verteramo (2015) proposed three new main technology categories which are dramatically changing retailing: social media, mobile technologies and in-stores systems (i.e. augmented reality).

Although research on innovation for retailing can be witnessed in an increasing number of studies (Pantano 2014; Demirkan and Spohrer 2014; Hristov and Reynolds 2014; Evanschitzky et al. 2015; Pantano 2016) and the luxury sector is one of the most profitable marketing sectors (Joya et al. 2014), the literature on luxury retailing is still under investigated and there is a lack of research focusing on the effects of new technologies on luxury retailing. The luxury sector is largely recognized as one of the most profitable and fastest-growing sectors (Hennigs et al. 2015). Despite the high level of recognition of luxury brands, they face a challenge in creating a brand experience for consumers which ensures that customers perceive the products to be worth their high price. (Tyan et al. 2010; Hennigs et al. 2015). In fact, luxury consumption is more oriented toward experience than purely conscious consumption (de Lassus and Freire 2014). Similarly, the continuous growth in the luxury sectors highlights the continuous consumer search for emotional benefits (de Lassus and Freire 2014). Although luxury goods manufacturers resisted adopting the internet as a distribution channel and a huge percentage of them still do not sell online (Kluge and Fassnacht 2015), new technologies might provide new and efficient tools for luxury retailers and brands. Therefore, the aim of this paper is to explore the actual usage of new technologies as efficient tools for promoting luxury brands. The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: the next section reviews the literature on the benefits of new technologies for corporate marketing communication, and the usage of these systems within the luxury sector. Thereafter, we analyse the luxury companies involved in this study and provide the main insights of our research, and conclude with a case
comparison and a discussion of the implications for scholars and practitioners.

Theoretical background

New technologies for corporate marketing communication

The emergence of new media for communicating pushes marketers to review their traditional strategies and include new forms of personalization/customization, interaction and data consumers data collection and management (Hearn et al. 2009; Troung et al. 2010; Leeflang et al. 2014). New technologies support corporate marketing communication, by improving the diffusion of the marketing messages and the subsequent effectiveness (Floreddu et al. 2014; Reilly and Hynan 2014). For instance, social media offers a two-way communication channel for firms to directly interact with clients and stakeholders, by moving corporate communication from a unidirectional to an interactive scenario (Hearn et al. 2009; Floreddu et al. 2014; Kang et al. 2014). Social media provides a virtual space where consumers and firms co-create information and share opinion, by creating a sort of virtual community which is able to create trust, awareness and commitment towards a brand (Hsu 2012; Liu et al. 2013; Kang et al. 2014; Tsimonis and Dimitriadis 2014; Wu et al. 2015). For these reasons, current research considers social media as one of the most challenging and powerful force for successful corporate marketing communication (Leeflang et al. 2014; Melewar and Nguyen 2015).

Similarly, the mobile scenario provides a new way of attracting new consumers and increasing brand loyalty through apps that provide instantaneous interaction (Jin 2016). These allows consumers to perform several tasks such as searching, retrieving, comparing products and stores, sharing information, having fun through entertaining content, etc., thus the apps are currently able to enhance the brand experience (Kim et al. 2015). The success of the apps relies on their portability and how the information that they provide can be personalised, in other words the information provided can be accessed anytime anywhere according to consumers requests, thus creating value for consumers (Kim et al. 2015). Despite the increasing use of brand apps, their usage as a persuasive communication channel or loyalty building platform is still under investigated (Kim et al. 2015).

Moreover, firms might introduce new technologies directly at the physical point of sale in order to improve service and enhance consumers’ in-store experience. The new technologies are usually interactive, offering user friendly interfaces which consumers might browse to access more information on products, services, etc. through touch screen displays (Demirkan and Spohrer 2014; Poncin and Mimoun 2014; Pantano and Verteramo 2015; Pantano and Viassone 2015). Several retailers are currently adopting these technologies, for instance the make-up brand Clinique introduced interactive displays to enable consumers to find the best product for a certain type of skin, while the Dutch groceries Albert-Heijn introduced a portable RFID system for self-check-out.

Luxury sector

The luxury market encompasses several industries, from automotive to apparel, jets, fashion accessories, etc., implying differences in the technological/innovation orientation among the industries (Caniato et al. 2011). Past studies demonstrate the extent to which people create an impression of others on the basis of the clothing brands they wear (e.g. Willems et al. 2012). In this scenario, luxury usually evokes images of rich people with rich lives, a sort of exclusive and inaccessible lifestyle (Kapferer 2012). In fact, the consumption of luxury brands is driven by social attributes such as self-expression and self-presentation, and by the need to exhibit social standing (Bian and Forsythe 2012; Willems et al. 2012). Therefore, luxury brands can be seen as a symbol of personal and social identity (Tynan et al. 2010), while representing characteristics such as premium quality, heritage of craftsmanship, recognizable style, premium price, uniqueness (represented by the intrinsic scarcity value),
and global reputation (Bian and Forsythe 2012). In particular, premium price and quality emerge as the most important factors characterizing the luxury brand (Keller 2009).

In summary, luxury brands offer a hedonic multisensorial appeal and attract consumers at an emotional level, in terms of the superior material, experience and symbolic value they provide (Dion and Arnould 2011; Joya et al. 2014). Consequently, luxury retail relates to products that have an intangible value that outweighs the price of the product (Dion and Arnould 2011). Therefore, these superior qualities have to emphasize the orientation of the individual consumer and the needs of luxury customers (Hennigs et al. 2015).

Preliminary studies compared online and offline (in-store) luxury buying behaviour by highlighting the different consumer drivers: in the online context consumer motivations rely on price, convenience, product availability and online shopping attitude, while in the offline context, consumers are more interested in the aesthetic appeal, shopping experience and consumer in-store service (Liu et al. 2013). While other authors argued that luxury brand managers should focus on experiential marketing strategies to better promote the essence of the luxury product and emphasize it as a set of tangible, physical and interactive experiences that reinforce the perceived value (Wu et al. 2015). For instance, at the point of sale at a New York (US) store, Kate Spade introduced an interactive storefront to increase pedestrian flow towards the store, while Moschino proposed interactive mannequins for LaRinascente department store in Milan (Italy) (Pantano 2016).

Although new technologies are able to provide a new shopping experience (Johnson et al. 2015; Pantano 2014; Demirkan and Spohrer 2014), there is still a gap in the literature about the possible usage of new technologies (including online ones such as social media, and augmented reality ones such as mobile tools and new in-store technologies) for promoting corporate communication of luxury brands.

### Methodology

Given our objective to explore the way new technologies are used as a tool to enhance corporate marketing communication by luxury brands, we employed a multiple-case study as the research design, in which each case was treated as an independent experiment or a stand-alone unit (Ellonen et al. 2009). In particular, we chose five information-rich cases, with the similar characteristics of being large firms selling luxury brands which are aware of the importance of innovation (Table 1). In each company, we interviewed the key person in charge of marketing innovation strategies (i.e. the person responsible for digital marketing strategies or ecommerce, etc.) and collected data from annual reports, press releases, and direct observation of all the new technology categories used over 4 weeks (December 2015).

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Findings

**Alfa**
Alfa uses several social media sites, such as Twitter, Facebook, Pinterest, Instagram, and Youtube, that presenting the actual products, the new collections, and the launch of ad hoc events that present previews of new collections. We noted the extent of Alfa’s interest in these media as communication tools, with emphasis on Twitter and Facebook (which were the most used), due to the large presence of tweets (twitter) and posts (Facebook) for advertising purposes (promoting products). Furthermore, Alfa tends to reply to users (fan/followers) requests (usually within 24 hours) and uses these media as a tool for communicating directly with clients.

In opposite, a mobile app is listed on play store and app store (for android and apple platform respectively) but it cannot be actually accessed by users (this situation might create confusion among potential users).
In addition, for a limited period of time and only in a few selected stores, Alfa has introduced some interactive touch screen displays, which consumer may employ to access additional information on the available products (i.e. the best usage of the products). Compared to the other three cases, Alfa makes considerable use of social media, does not use mobile tools, and makes little use of in-store technologies as additional tools for communicating about products and marketing strategies.

**Beta**
Compared with traditional media (such as magazines), Beta does not seem to prioritize the development of strong social media strategies. In fact, it actually uses social media, particularly Facebook and Twitter, only to present products. In fact, unlike other companies such as Alfa, Beta usually does not comment on users’ posts nor invite fans to share their experience with the brand. Similarly, to date Beta has not developed a mobile app, nor tested any interactive technologies within the points of sale. Therefore, Beta only makes moderate use of social media and makes no use of mobile tools and interactive in-store technologies to improve brand communication.

**Gamma**
Gamma makes considerable use of social media. It largely uses social media to communicate about products and marketing initiatives through posts and videos. In comparison with the other companies, Gamma uploads content more frequently, although it does not comment on users’ posts. Despite this interest, Gamma does not make use of its mobile channel, which does not provide an app for consumers yet. Lastly, Gamma seems to be very active in adopting technological solutions for enhancing point of sales. In fact, it offers several services through interactive technologies (touch screen displays) which provide additional information on products, etc. These new systems are aimed at presenting the brand in a technology-enriched sensorial context that would improve the effectiveness of communication. To date, these technologies have been successfully and have been permanently introduced in many stores around Europe. In sum, we argue that Gamma makes considerable use of social media, makes no use of mobile tools, and makes considerable use of in-store technologies for supporting marketing communication.

**Delta**
While Delta makes considerable use of social media, like the other companies under investigation, it also has a considerable interest in the mobile channel in terms of mobile apps. Unlike the others, Delta offers different (free) apps that provide several services which are able to enhance both the usage of the products and the communication of the brand. In fact, consumers might access additional information on the products (i.e. past and actual products and collections) as well as exploit additional functionalities such as the virtual ‘try on’ (to virtually try the product before buying through the online measurements of size, etc.) Despite this use of social and mobile media, Delta interest in adopting new technologies at the physical
point of sale is still under developed. In fact, Delta has not introduced or tested any new technologies within the stores. For these reasons, we can argue that Delta makes considerable use of mobile and social media, but makes no use of in-store technologies.

Epsilon
To date, Epsilon has not made much effort to use online and offline technologies to improve brand communication. Although it is present on social media, particularly on Twitter, it is not very active. For instance, Instagram and Google+ are still little used, and have a limited number of posts (including images and videos) and no posts at all respectively. Similarly, Epsilon proposes a mobile app, which is available only for IOS, and which shows both additional services for optimizing the usage of the products, and information about the products characteristics (including the status of the order after the purchase). Epsilon did not show any interest in adopting technologies for enhancing marketing and brand communication.

We have analysed the firms’ use of technologies above. Table 2 summarizes these findings. All the firms studied introduced some kind of innovation (social media, mobile apps and in-stores technologies). Despite this adoption, they use the different technologies in different ways. From this perspective, Gamma and Delta could be considered more focused on using new tools for communicating about the brand than Alfa, Beta and Epsilon are. Only Delta makes considerable use of mobile apps, while Epsilon makes little use of them and the remaining three make no use of them at all. Gamma makes considerable use of in-store technologies, Alfa makes little use of them, and Beta, Delta and Epsilon do not use in-store technologies at all.

Discussion and Conclusion
The aim of this paper was to explore technology and innovation management in luxury retailing. We conducted a multiple-case study and built our analysis on qualitative data. In particular, this analysis revealed that the five companies are conscious of how social media, mobile apps, and in-store technologies can be powerful tools for marketing communication, particularly in terms of branding, even though they do not fully exploit these tools. In fact, none of them actually makes considerable use of the three types of new technologies (social media, mobile tools, and interactive in-store technologies). Correspondingly, while social media is the most used tool, mobile apps and in-store technologies receive limited attention from the luxury industry.

Since these companies are in the luxury sector, it is reasonable to assume that they have enough financial resources to use new online and offline technologies to develop new marketing strategies (Joya et al. 2014; Hennings et al. 2015). A reason for this lack of use might be the absence of the kind of routines and processes needed to successfully use these innovations as new marketing tools. Consequently, their marketing activities and outcomes are still more related to traditional media. Another possible explanation might relate to their internal understanding of the strengths and benefits of these technologies within a marketing communication perspective.

Although current studies have demonstrated the importance of developing new forms of communication based on a successful
explanation of how new media (Hearn et al. 2009; Troung et al. 2010; Leeflang et al. 2014) can improve corporate marketing communication (Floredudu et al. 2014; Reilly and Hynan 2014), our study reveals that the luxury sector is conscious of the benefits of using new media as a marketing communication tool, even though the effective use of these new media is still limited. Moreover, our study shows that even if there is an innovation force affecting the retail industry (Pantano 2014; Demirkan and Spohrer 2014; Hristov and Reynolds 2014; Evanschitzky et al. 2015; Pantano 2016), this force only partially impacts luxury industry.

From a managerial point of view, our study has some important implications. There are opportunities and risks related to the integration of social media, mobile app and in-store technologies in marketing practices. In fact, while past studies have demonstrated the low cost of introducing the technologies (Pantano 2014), maintaining the technologies requires investment and the technologies require frequent updating. For instance, the accounts on social media would need to be continuously updated and a new position would need to be created for this task in order to be able to collect information on consumer behaviour (including judgments, evaluations, experiences with the brand) and reply to customers’ requests and comments. The present analysis would advise luxury retailers on the possibility to better exploit the new media as tool for promoting marketing communication while providing new brand experiences.

**Future Works**

Although our study has some limitations, it suggests promising directions for future research. Firstly, the data are from five cases which represent different product categories (fashion, accessories, private jets and related services) in the luxury industry. Thus, further studies should focus on developing quantitative data so as to improve the generalizability of our findings to other products contexts.

Moreover, our study only focuses on the adoption of new media for corporate marketing communication. Other studies might extend our findings to how these media and technologies could be used to provide new consumers experiences, particularly ‘smart’ luxury experiences.

**References**


Effectiveness of Responding to Online Complaints

Sabine Einwiller and Wolfgang Weitzl

The internet and especially its social media applications allow the creation and exchange of user-generated content (Kaplan and Haenlein 2010). This has empowered internet users to voice their opinions about entities like organizations, products and brands with only limited effort (van Noort and Willemsen 2012). For companies this bears opportunities but also risks. A person who is dissatisfied with a company, its product or service may be motivated to express this dissatisfaction online as a complaint, for example on a complaint website or directly on a social network site (SNS) like Facebook of the respective company or brand (Einwiller and Steilen 2015; Lee and Song 2010). Because online platforms like complaint sites and SNS by companies and brands are generally made available for public view, complaints voiced here are accessible for all internet users. This is a viable threat to the reputation of the incriminated company. Thus, understanding online complaining behaviour and exploring how to effectively handle online complaints are important elements of a company’s online reputation management. It is furthermore essential to explore the effectiveness of corporate responses and their impact on complainants’ reactions like future purchase and word-of-mouth (WOM) intentions to maintain or restore customer satisfaction. As previous research on “traditional” complaint handling has shown, the restoration of customer satisfaction can result in positive WOM communication and repurchase behaviour of complainants (Halstead and Page 1992; Homburg and Fürst 2005; Maxham 2001). Content analysis of complaint handling on corporate Facebook and Twitter pages has furthermore shown that the complainant’s satisfaction can be positively influenced when the company responds to the complaint (Einwiller and Steilen 2015). The goal of the research presented here is to extend previous findings by analysing the effects and drawing causal inferences of corporate complaint handling efforts on important consumer reactions such as complaint satisfaction and behavioural intentions.

To reach this goal we conducted a survey among German and US consumers using large online household panels in both countries. The question whether the respondent had complained about a company online within the past six months regarding a specific dissatisfying incident yielded a total of 2658 online complainants (G: 1584, US: 1074). The reasons for complaining were predominantly product related (62%), 17% regarded displeasing employee behaviour, and 8% concerned CSR-related issues. The majority of online complainants mentioned to have contacted the company before regarding this very issue. They had done so either via email (84%), directly in the store (79%), by calling the telephone hotline (77%) or by writing a letter (74%). Most had tried various channels and eventually resorted to online complaining after none of the other complaint channels yielded satisfactory results. When asked whether they expected the company to respond to their online complaint, 76% answered yes. However, only in 35% of the cases the company responded to the person’s complaint online. Complainants who received a response by the company had a significantly more positive corporate image (M_{resp} = 3.71 vs M_{noresp} = 2.48, p < .0001), intended more positive WOM (M_{resp} = 3.64 vs M_{noresp} = 2.46, p < .0001) and were more likely to repurchase the firm’s products (M_{resp} = 3.56 vs M_{noresp} = 2.41, p < .0001). Satisfaction with the corporate response was highest when the company offered some form of compensation like money, a gift coupon, discount or product exchange (all F > 50). Thanking the complainant and promising that this wouldn’t happen again also had strongly positive effects on the complainant’s level of satisfaction with complaint handling. Satisfaction with complaint handling, in turn, highly correlated with the image of the company (r = .72), positive WOM (r = .66) and repurchasing intention (r = .63).

These preliminary results, which represent only an excerpt from the study’s findings, show that responding to consumer complaints voiced online can enhance complainants’ levels of satisfaction with the response as well as complainants’ image of the company and their behavioural intention to speak positively about it. Importantly, responding to a complaint online also has a positive effect on the complainant’s intention to repurchase the
company’s products or use its service. The positive effects seem to be engendered most strongly by compensating the complainant in some way, which has also been shown in studies on “traditional” complaining (for an overview see Davidow 2003). Although using online media has become mainstream, for many consumers the public sphere of the internet is not the first choice when it comes to selecting a complaint channel. The majority of respondents had used a “traditional” complaint channel before voicing their dissatisfaction on the internet, but without getting a satisfactory reaction from the company. They resorted to complaining online to raise the pressure by bringing the problem also to public attention. This implies that online complainers are likely at a very critical stage in their relationship with the company, namely very close to exiting it. The results of our study show that there is great potential for improvement in handling online complaints but also when it comes to “traditional” complaint handling. The necessity for improved and integrated complaint management within companies that includes marketing as well as corporate communication becomes evident. **Keywords:** complaining, electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM), internet, social media, customer satisfaction

**References**


Social Media Marketing and Examination of the Need for Consumer Closure

Ruth Marciniak

Introduction
Over the past three decades, Customer Relationship Management (CRM) has emerged as an established body of literature (Geersbro et al. 2013). Focus of this literature has been on the attraction, development, maintenance and retention of the customer relationship (for example, Berry, 1983; Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Verhoef, 2003 and; Rheinhartz et al., 2005). Moreover, attention has been given to identification of and engendering loyalty in the ‘preferred customer’; together with termination of least profitable customers (Ryals, 2003; Kumar et al., 2013).

Background
However, whilst this body of literature is well established and theoretically underpinned, academic research has predominantly been limited to investigations within a business to consumer context, that is, a practitioner’s perspective. For example, how best to capture the customer in order to begin the relationship and, subsequently, how best to develop relationships with customers that positively contribute to the profit and overall performance of the organization (for example, empirical work of Anderson et al., 1994 and; Rheinhartz et al., 2005). Within a social media marketing context, striving for improved performance is often manifest in practitioners’ tactics to ‘hook’ the consumer. For example, providing incentives to ‘sign up’, provide feedback and communicate positive word of mouth. However, whilst social media posts, such as email, function to maintain and retain the customer relationship, market research reports indicate that excessive business use of social media postings can potentially do the opposite. As a consequence, emails can be perceived as an intrusion, which serve to alienate the customer, and in doing so, undermine the company’s equity (Kilmartin, 2012). This is further compounded by companies who make it difficult for the customer to ‘unsubscribe’ in order to end the relationship. Alternatively, alienation can lead to customers to let their social media accounts become dormant thereby having their online personal data in the possession of companies they no longer do business with (MacLeod, 2013).

Academic empirical research supports customer dissatisfaction. For example, Truong and Simmons’s (2010) study, which explored consumer perceptions of intrusiveness in digital advertising. The outcome of the research was identification of challenges, such that intrusiveness presents, to strategic marketing strategy.

To date, academic literature exploring consumer relationship termination, specifically examining the need for closure, has predominantly been limited to research within a social psychological context (e.g. Kruglanski & Webster, 1996; Houghton and Grewal, 2000; Giacomantonio et al., 2011; Kossowska et al., 2015 and Sun et al, 2016). Out with social psychological literature, the focus of consumer relationship termination research is limited to exploring managerial actions to end a consumer relationship (Geersbro and Ritter, 2013; Su and Robson, 2011; and Kabue et al., 2015). However, as Moon and Yang (2015) indicate, there is little attention to how and why individuals decide to end their relationship with an organisation. Within a social media marketing context, the author deems that this is further underexplored.

Aim
The aim of the research is to explore consumer to business social media relationship termination, in particular, consumer motives that stimulate the need for closure (NFC). An assumption of the research is that closure experiences that facilitate a customer in ending a relationship with a company, as easily as they started, will serve to elevate the long term experience value, which in turn, potentially contributes to positive word of mouth. That is, a customer’s relationship with a business does not have to end badly.

Method
In order to probe motives for the need for closure within a social media marketing context, the research adopted an exploratory approach wherein qualitative data was obtained via face to face interviews. In total, 20 interviews were conducted with respondents who, in response to a screening
question, had direct experience of digital media (both internet and mobile platforms). For this exploratory research, respondents were recruited via convenience and multiplicity sampling. The resulting pool of respondents varied in gender, education and employment. In terms of age, most respondents, 18, were over 30 years of age. In addition, the majority of respondents, 15, were female and the majority, 14, held a university qualification. Further to this, 12 respondents were in full time employment. All respondents were based in London. Interviews were conducted in a location convenient to the respondent and followed a semi-structured interview protocol, wherein an open form of dialogue was encouraged. Given the nature of the research, choice of the respondents in this study focused on seeking out highly involved consumers on social media platforms and online businesses. This was gauged by the intensity, frequency and duration of their online behaviour and engagement with online businesses. In conducting the interviews, the same probes were presented to all the respondents. In exploring motivations stimulating the need for closure, probes were based on Kruglanski and Webster’s (1996) work on the theory of cognitive closure together with theory relevant to the termination stage of the customer relationship. The aim of undertaking multiple interviews was to achieve theoretical saturation. This was accomplished when the later interviewees failed to extract any new information. It was then that the data collection was concluded.

Consideration of customer relationships from the customer perspective is pertinent at this moment in time given the explosion in social media marketing and efforts of companies to ‘lock in’ their customers, wherein consumers sometimes perceive this as invasive behaviour. Results of the empirical research contribute to the growing body of literature in social media marketing, in particular, social customer relationship management. In addition, the results contribute to theory relating to the need for closure.

**Limitations**

With regards to research limitations, findings cannot be generalised to the general population. In addition, in terms of geographical scope, the study was limited to a sample who all resided in London, UK.

**Keywords**

Social media marketing, need for closure (NFC), customer relationship management (CRM)

**References**


Session D2: Marketing Communications

Toward the Characterization of the “Toy Packaging”: An Exploratory Research
Manel Mzoughi and Joël Brée

Augmented Reality in Stores for a New Customer Experience. The Case of “The Supermarket of the Future” at Expo 2015
Maria Teresa Cuomo, Francesca Ceruti, Giuseppe Festa, Gerardino Metallo and Debora Tortora

Consumer Suspicion as a Communicational Opportunity in Ethical Consumption
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**Toward the Characterization of the “Toy Packaging”: An Exploratory Research**

Manel Mzoughi and Joël Brée

**Abstract**
Recently, managers of brands addressed to young consumers, make sensible decisions about all aspects of their offering, including package design. To attract young consumers, they integrate innovation in their designs: vivid colors, fun and playful aspects, distinctive package shape, spokes-character. They conceived a new type of packaging called “Toy Packaging”. This research has sought to investigate the influence of this new packaging on children’s perception.

**Keywords**: children, new packaging, creativity, link with brand, toy-packaging

**Introduction**
Beyond providing protection to the product, the packaging performs four major functions: it conveys necessary information to the consumers, facilitates recognition of the brand, creates a positive emotional answer and assists in simplifying the decision-making process (Daoudi & Thialon, 1993; Underwood & Klein, 2002; Underwood, 2003; Louw & Kimber, 2006; Pantin-Sohier, 2009).

When dealing with packaging intended to children, special considerations are made. Graphic design elements, colors, presence of a cartoon character, and many other elements make it more accessible to the visual memory, which is less demanding than the verbal one (Brée, 1993; Cavassilas & al., 2012). A significant body of research suggests that package design, graphics, and colors used can have a powerful impact on consumer attention. The ability of the package design in building strong brands by distinguishing offerings has been argued. (Dano, 1994; Magne, 1999; Pantin-Sohier, 2004, Droulers & al., 2013). However, designs that attract children are different to those that attract adults; therefore, researchers have begun investigating children’s reactions toward the packaging (Mc Neal & Ji, 2003; Gollety & al., 2009, Gollety & Guichard, 2011; Guichard & Muratore, 2011). They concluded that packaging is capable of producing several types of reactions among children: facilitating a product’s recognition, creating a relationship between the children and the brand and stimulating their emotional needs; however, in order to make the product stand out and increase shelf visibility, an appropriate use of originality must be incorporated in a packaging design. Noticing that children are highly responsive to pictures, unusual shapes, and other funny elements, practitioners tend to integrate in their design the elements of amusement that is found in toys, to finally propose a new generation of packaging called “toy-packaging”. Despite, there appears to be a lack of academic work examining the attitude of the children toward this type of packaging. On the basis of these literature reviews and empirical assessments, this research addresses three fundamental questions:

1. How children perceive the new packaging called “Toy Packaging”?
2. What are the features of the “toy-packaging”, as seen by young consumers?
3. How can brands use this new generation of packaging to settle their communication’ strategy?

To develop guidelines that allow us to answer our previously outlined questions, the first section will begin to examine the influence of packaging on children responses. A review of scholars and literature sources will provide us the core features of the innovative packaging addressed to children. In a second section we will describe the research design and the type of research adopted. The last section is devoted to the presentation and discussion of our results related to children’s evaluation of toy-packagings. We conclude with the contributions of our research, its limits, and its perspectives.

**The role of packaging in child consumption**
This section provides a thorough review and discussion of previous scholars and literature
Facilitate recognition of the product
Marketing academics (Dano, 1996; Pantin-Sohier, 2009) recognized the impact of packaging on the symbolic and functional associations towards the product and brand; however, scholars did not explore this relation among child consumers. Researchers revealed that children tend to favor visual information processing in order to overcome the limitations of their cognitive skills (Rossiter, 1976; Meyers-Levy & Peracchio, 1992; Bree & Cegarra 1994; Bezaz-Zegache, 2014; Gollety & Guichard, 2011). Academic work confirmed that children at three years old are capable of memorizing the brand names by its association with visual attributes such as color or design (Macklin et al., 1996; Bezaz-Zegache, 2010a, 2014b); thus children between the ages of 6 and 12 years easily remember the physical appearance of a packaging (97.8%) rather than the product name (Luisi 1999). Rossiter (1972). Moreover, Felix (1993) showed that children have a rich visual database allowing them to retrieve representations, guide their choices, and define their preferences. The packaging is considered as the guarantor of this visual recognition through graphic elements such as the logo, the brand character, and the shape.

Stimulate the emotional need
The aesthetic dimension of a design can potentially activate emotions (Gallen & Sirieix 2011). Young children have limited ability to interpret information in comparison to adult consumers; therefore, to overcome their cognitive limitations, children must focus on emotional reactions. For instance, scholars explained that children are attracted to the story related in an advertisement rather than the verbal elements (Brée 1993; Guichard & Pecheux, 2012). For this reason, those who design packages targeted at children do need to be cognizant of this fact. Such packaging should exploit a mixture of visual elements on the package to ensure children’s attraction; thus marketers and package designers should constantly integrate cartoon characters, unusual colors, strange shapes, interactivity, etc., into their design to communicate the ‘fun’ and/ or ‘playful’ messages to the children. These execution elements, fun dimension, and cartoon characters contribute to create a relationship between the children and the brand and raise their emotional responses (Hémar-Nicolas, 2007). Despite the fact that children can be attracted to a product mainly because of its appealing package, a successful packaging should reassure parents and establish an emotional bond with the children (Bree & Cegarra 1994; Rouen-Mallet, 2002).

At any retail location, it is becoming difficult to be visible amongst a multitude of colorful and distinctive packaging design. Many brands are having to provide clear identification and satisfy consumers requirements of fun, pleasure, and originality. To win the battle at the retail shelf, Gollety and Guichard (2011) advocated an innovative use of fun.

The shape and design of a product achieves a particular sensory effect that extends brand communication and generates pleasure that influences consumer preferences (Daoudi & Thialon 1993; Magne, 2004; & Sirieix Gallen, 2011). When visual elements and unique shapes are combined with verbal and rhetoric dimensions, it becomes a powerful tool to satisfy children seeking for innovation and imagination. Researchers and designers are resolute about choosing design elements in order to develop a maximum aesthetic appeal, allowing children to experience the hedonic dimension of the consumption. To ensure success among young consumers, the packaging concept and design should raise emotional responses and lead the children into a world of dreams and fascination (Feuerhahn, 1987).
Packaging that should amuse and amaze

Recreational and leisure needs

The authors discussed how aware children are as consumers in today’s society; particularly, they attached a growing importance to the packaging considered as the brand’s first contact. As long as the fun dimension is integrated (Roberts, 2005), the packaging strongly influences children’s choices and their roles as prescribers (Gelperowic & Beharrel, 1994). “Through its shape and design, the packaging communicates the playful aspect of the product and introduces the child to the imagination world created by the brand” (Hémar-Nicolas, 2009).

In order to conceive a packaging that satisfies children needs, practitioners usually involve several dimensions. We choose to develop the three most important elements:

- The Spokes-character is broadly regarded as one of the most vital components of children’s product packaging brand. It can project the young consumer in a fictional universe appropriate to his or her development stage (Bree, 1984). The spokes-character helps to invoke visual brand recognition and would also aid the children to identify themselves to the animated character and, hence, have a great experience. (Hémar-Nicolas, 2007).

- “Vivid colors”, an essential determinant of shelf visibility, has a strong visual impact and differentiates the brand from alternative products. Unlike dark and sophisticated colors, bright colors tend to stimulate excitement as well as desire, emotionally charged messages, and ensure an appropriate signifying function. Researchers recognize the distractive capacity of the colors and their playful connotation (Bree, 1993).

- To win the battle at the retail shelf, various techniques of promotions are integrated in the packaging; quizzes, funny riddles, in pack promotions, and many other fantasy themes that are highly appealing to children are used. It offers a powerful tool of interaction with young consumers and may lead them to start a collection. It is also considered, for the children, one of the most important factors in establishing and maintaining the playful and amusement dimension of the packaging. (Muratore, 2002)

The quest for originality

According to Faison (1997), occidental consumers, searching for new experiences, are driven by emotional desires rather than cold and cognitive deliberations. Focusing on irrational buying needs, they are tempted by consumption behavior that involves a steady flow of fantasies, feelings, and fun encompassed by what is called the “experiential view”. This can only be reinforced in children whose behavior is governed primarily by emotional reactions (Derbaix & Bree, 1997; Pecheux, 2001) and who turn away from what was only yesterday a source of intense pleasure (Bree, 1993). Due to this volatile behavior, designers try to conceive an attractive and innovative packaging allowing children to have a unique experience (Muratore & Guichard, 2011). An appealing, eye-catching, new and funny packaging excites the children’s senses (Pantin-Sohier et al., 2011). A finding that is further supported by professionals is that young consumers are significantly more attracted to a moderate creative design, rather than a congruency among product and its packaging. Much of consumer research suggests that children are willing to reject packaging design perceived as ordinary or harmonious. Berlyne noticed in 1974 that moderate style modification operated to change or stimulate the sensory appeal might have a definite impact on the attitude toward the brand (Campbell & Goodstein, 2001); however, an exaggerated design may elicit negative responses. Furthermore, Filser (2003) advocated for keeping a certain level of congruency in order to reduce uncertainty and make the brand’s positioning clear and coherent. To stimulate arousal and thus...
motivate children to engage in the act of discovery, it is preferred to conceive a moderate level of irregularity in a packaging design: this is called moderate incongruity effect (Campbell & Goodstein, 2001; Maoz & Tybout, 2002). To create new, grateful, and hedonic experiences, Gallen (2005) proposes to explore the symbolic meanings of more subjective characteristics of a product.

From “funny packaging” to “Toy-packaging”
When evaluating packaging in the store, children focus on all elements which are designed to affect the emotional side of decision making. A funny design package can strongly influence a consumer’s choice; hence this playful dimension of the packaging subsequently helps the child-consumer to evaluate and categorize the product (De La Ville & al., 2010). As a consequence, marketers together with package designers constantly integrate the ‘fun’ and/or ‘playful’ dimension into their design. The concept of “toy packaging” succeeded to the “funny packaging”. This type of pack design with its specific characteristics, reunite a mixture of attractiveness, creativity, emotionality, innovation, uniqueness, experiential and recreational. Caru and Cova (2007) noticed that consumption began to be seen as an experience with a variety of symbolic meanings, hedonic responses, and esthetic criteria. Accordingly, this experiential perspective supports sensory pleasures, esthetic enjoyment and various playful pleasures, especially when it comes to young consumers. The various aspects of amusement, as defined by De La Ville (21010), as included in the “toy packaging” features such as dreams, magic, surprise, creativity, interactivity, the educational aspects as well as all the post consumption activities, surely offer a distinguish consumption’ experience to the child.

Methods
Given that the issue concerns a new phenomenon (the evaluation of a new type of packaging called “toy packaging”) applied to a particular consumer (the child), an exploratory approach was followed. The research consisted of two main parts. The first part provides an overview on the significance and the description of the ‘toy packaging’. The second part is concerned with in-depth interviews conducted with children.

Toy Packaging Features: the exploratory study
Despite research in packaging, there is a lack of viable research that depicts the characteristics of a toy pack design. The aim of this first study is to overcome this limitation. We choose to examine ten existing packaging products intended to children. Due to the inherent limits of children concentration, choice is limited to ten items. We decided to select «P’tit Dop» assortment, Ice Cream «Cuppets» and Milk «Ninho» from Nestlé, Amora dressing «Miam’s Mayo, Miam’s ketchup», Breakfast cereal «Big Bang», dehydrated fruit «Strange fruit», Brazilian packed fruits «Ybà», Cookies «Tesco», Shampoo and body wash «Bébé de forêt» and «Mundo marinho», Shower Gel «Petit Marseillais», and finally the kid’s water «Nature’s Yard». (Annex 1)

The selection of our products was based upon the following criteria:
- The notoriety and the success of the brand and the product.
- International Packaging design classification and rankings.

Based on the packaging products listed above, we meticulous examined the pack’s visual elements. This exercise led us to evaluate the characteristics of a package addressed for young consumers. The table found in the Annex 2 lists the salient visual aspects, which are common to all the selected products. The identified features, confronted to the interviews results, provide a more comprehensive review of the «toy packaging» functions.

In-depth interviews
Young consumers interviewed in this study were between 6 and 11 years. At this age, Piaget (1972) suggests that children reach the

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1 www.thedieline.com; www.revistafator.com.br
concrete operational stage; during this time, they gain a better understanding of mental operations and begin thinking logically about concrete events.

In total, 21 interviews were carried out until empirical saturation was reached. To establish heterogeneity among the research participants, we recruited different types of interviewees, based on variables like gender and age.

In order to avoid the context effect (Derbaix & Pecheux, 2000) and inspire trust among children, (Derbaix & Pecheux, 2000; Brée et al., 2012) we decided to meet the young consumers in focus groups (two or three children). This type of method led to interactions between respondents. We encountered children in their natural surroundings such as their private home, the multimedia library « Levallois Perret », and McDonald’s restaurants in Paris.

The interview guide was pre-tested in order to avoid children’s misunderstandings of some questions, and to make the necessary corrections. The terms « packaging » and « playful » were replaced respectively by « wrapping » and « funny » etc. (Brée, 2012). To limit children’s loss of concentration, the interviews lasted between 30 and 40 minutes. Reward sweets were distributed to motivate children participating in the interviews. (Brée, 2012).

We started our interview by asking the young consumers to define the packaging in general, and to give examples of products. In a second step, we asked the young consumers to evaluate a classic packaging and a playful one.

Following are the themes of the guide interview:

- A general appreciation and evaluation of packaging and offers targeting young consumers.
- Impact of the packaging on the making decision process;
- Influence of an innovated design on the packaging appealing
- Appreciation of the fun dimension
- The dependence of an attractive packaging with its reuse.

Once the interviews were completed, they were transcribed verbatim. Following a codification process, a thematic analysis was carried out. To encode the data, we chose the sentence or even the paragraph that we believe was most meaningful and productive. A label, or a short phrase to name the new code, in which the unit of analysis is assigned, was created.

Findings
A summary of the findings that emerged from our data analysis are presented in the following themes evoked in the interview guide.

General children packagings appreciations

Appreciation of shapes and colors
Unanimously, interviewed children considered that cubes and rectangular shapes are seen as ordinary, classic and non-appealing. The use of colors and the integration of animated characters may enhance the evaluation of the known and familiar packaging. Such elements are not sufficient to satisfy all the needs of the young targets. Independently from age and sexual identity, the young consumers rejected dark, saturated colors, simple shapes, and not animated graphism : [« ... you have brand first price it is all white and some blue, this product for example, you don’t want to buy it, you leave it and you are interested by other products. » Sarah 9 years old]. The importance of a colorful packaging has also been documented in the literature (Bezaz-Zegache ,2010, Gollety & al. 2009).

For older children, a packaging design should reflect the brand identity, facilitate the brand recognition and attract consumers. Moreover, they criticize the similarity among offers and suggest integrating more fun and amusement. They even provided us many brands examples: [« ...Personally, I like it when it is decorated with red and white hearts like MIKO ice-cream... » Marion 10 years].
Appreciation of the promotion techniques
For younger consumers, the promotion techniques, such as stories found on the packaging, can make an important contribution to the product. A packaging that contains a quiz or a riddle seems to be highly appreciated by the children aged from six to seven years old. To illustrate their idea, they gave us the following examples: Cookies « Trois chatons » and chocolate flavor powder« Nesquick ». More specifically, this exploratory study showed that children from all ages prefer innovative, colorful, and fun looking illustrations rather than standard packaging designs.

Appreciation of the spokes-character
The spokes-character is widely considered as one of the most important visual components of a product package. Spokes-characters act as a memory cue when consumers are choosing products and aids in brand (Macklin, 1996; Peracchio, 1992; Roedder John, 1999; Hémar-Nicolas, 2007); therefore children are generally attracted to packaging that employs any kind of animated spokes-character. They found it funny, appealing and evaluate subsequently the brand adapted to their childish universe. Based on the target audiences’ gender, companies may need to use different spokes-characters to attract young consumers’ attention. Young girls prefer products with female- oriented spokes character [« I adore Hello Kitty and I think that all the girls will like it and buy this ice-cream » Marion 8 years]; while boys are attracted to products with a male oriented symbols. The older boys will even reject a product that shows a female animated character [«...this is a hello kitty ice cream; it is for girls and not for boys » Andréa 9years].

For older children, multiple elements are involved in a decision making process. The visual dimension of the packaging arouses the young consumers interest; however, other factors must be taken into consideration. The product price could alter a buying intention, despite a nice looking pack design; additionally, the older children, especially girls, focused their attention on the nutrition information and the ingredients on the back of the packaging. We concluded that the packaging is considered as an important factor in purchase decisions. The conclusions emerging from the interviews analysis confirm previous research, which highlights the key role of the packaging in the consumer’s decision-making process. (Dano, 1996; Brée, 1993; Bezaz-Zegache, 2010)

Children’s reactions toward « toy packaging » characteristics
Children are highly influenced by the visual aspect of a product packaging, due to their limited cognitive capability and reading abilities. Extrinsic aspect of a product has also been identified as having a major influence on children’s choice

Choosing the right color palette
Before age of ten, both girls and boys assure having a preference to bright and vivid colors. The choice of a successful selection of colors grabs the young consumers’ attention and affects the emotional side of decision-making. The children claimed that, strikingly bright colors, in comparison with ordinary ones, tend to stimulate excitement and raise the likelihood of purchase. [«it is good to have packaging with plenty of colors, it is pretty». Elie, 10years, «...when they mix colors it is nice and inspire happiness, it is attractive. » Florent 7 years].

Influence of the innovation, the creativity, and the moderate incongruency on the packaging

Artistic and esthetic packaging designs are seemingly more appealing to children. Among our sample, the girls admitted being constantly attracted to distinctive and unusual packaging designs. Boys showed more rationality in their decision making. The distinctive package designs might be attractive for them, unless they noticed it was more expensive in comparison with the same product category. De La Ville & al (2010) states that young targets are seeking for novelty and originality, which seems to positively influence their attitudes. The children would judge more favorably a moderate incongruent design, which can be a major influence on how young consumers perceive a brand [«the other shampoo has an attractive shape while this one, it has a cubic ordinary shape, an ordinary shampoo» Marion 11years]. [«I like Nestlé products they are tasty and have always something new to show... » Flora 12 years]. It has been shown that there is a significant relationship between the use of novelty, creativity, and the satisfaction of the young consumers following the stimulation of their cognitive activity [«it looks like a dressing jar? Oh no! It is a soap bottle man shaped! » Alexis 7 years]. Our findings confirm previous academic work (Campbell & Goodstein, 2001).

Impact of the ergonomic innovation of the «toy packaging» on product evaluation

The role of packaging in fulfilling the needs of young consumers means that it can contribute to their overall satisfaction with the product. Children are becoming increasingly demanding in integrating the ergonomic aspect in a packaging design. Factors such as openability, reclosability, carrying, and dispensing facilities can all impact on convenience and satisfaction. [«...it doesn’t look like an ice cream stick it is more practical and easy to hold. » Rym 9years]. Many aspects of the product’s packaging can be used to increase convenience and appeal. [«...a soap in a shape of a little man when you pull his heat, it provides soap, it is easy to use. » Alexis 7years]. Hence, it becomes necessary to consider packaging’s roles in the young consumer’s complete product usage experience. However, pre-teenagers consumers, boys and girls, related the ergonomic dimension to the nomadism aspect. They prefer small and innovated pack design, providing portion sized servings, such as capsules or «pockets» bags. This type of design offers autonomy for our respondents [«...when we go to a picnic, we put it in a cool box and we can eat it whenever we want, Flora 12 years]. Unanimously, the children highlight the importance of the ergonomic innovation, element which is not integrated in a classic packaging. The increasing importance of ergonomics in packaging design offers better packaging that better meets the needs of the young consumers, and enhances product’s appealing.

Appealing design and reuse dimension of a “toy packaging”

The recreational and funny dimension in “toy packaging”

When we exposed the children to the selected items, a perceived funny pack design obtained the highest score. The younger respondents were attracted by packaging design that approaches their universe. The older consumers evaluate positively the recreational design, however they considered it more appropriate to younger consumers [«...it is very funny (Pets Nestlé) but it is for the little ones, they can play with» Andrea 9years]. Few boys rejected this type of design and judged it inappropriate [«...No I don’t like this shape, it’s like toys for babies» Elie 10years].
By making a packaging appealing to a broader range of children, positive attitude increases. The young consumers stated that a funny and nice looking design should be inspired by the toys universe. It could integrate a moderate incongruity dimension such as a creative shape, a figurine, or any unusual symbol, seen as more successful and competitive in the marketplace. [«...oh no! it’s like real fruits, I don’t see this when I go to shop with mom » Alexis 7years]. An appealing design confers to the packaging a second life: it could be reused for fun and decoration objectives.

The reuse dimension of a “toy packaging”

Some of our interviewed children assure that a packaging could be reused as a container or a toy [«...It is very unique, we rarely see a shower gel in a boat shape, and I find it very funny. To my little brother, it could be a toy; he can play with in the tub. » Marion 11years]. We concluded that the recreational dimension is significantly related to its capacity to be reused. The lifecycle of the packaging is extended. We noticed that children evaluate positively a packaging in a figurine shape. Moreover, it creates new opportunities to interact with brand through brand’s visual identity, which can lead to higher young consumer loyalty and better attitudes toward brands used. If the children begin to interact with a character as a social being, over time they can begin to feel an emotional connection with the spokes-character that can move from the character to the brand [«...Yes it is Gormetti, he is my favorite, I prefer this pot because it is funny to see cartoons on products that we buy. » Elie 10years]; [«...this one is nice you have this smiley little man. » Rym 9years]. The spokes character enhance children imagination: [«...If I can buy everyday an ice cream, I could build a farm with my Lego and put them inside (Pets of Nestlé).» Alexis 7years].

“Toy-packaging” and children’s socialization

The interviewed children evaluate positively the consumption characterized by playful and fun dimensions. The children assure that a “toy packaging” helps them to socialize. As argued by researchers (Holt, 1995; De la Ville & al, 2010) fun, amusement, collective games and hedonic experiences reinforce the children’s socialization. Our interviews highlight the importance of a “toy-packaging” in the socialization process, such as collecting funny packaging, using them in a collective playful activity or even give them to others as a present.

Discussion and Managerial Implications

This study has sought to investigate the features of the “toy packaging” that succeeded to the “classic packaging”. An existing knowledge from a comprehensive body of literature, and a qualitative study conducted with young consumers, allow us to highlight the importance of the packaging on children evaluation of the product. The sensory features of the pack design impacts the offers appreciation. In addition, this research adds to the existing research by showing that sensorial marketing plays in satisfying the specific needs of children. The use of colors, spokes-character, cartoonish scripts, illustrations were revealed as the most appealing elements capable to stimulate children interests. This will lead the young consumer to live the stream of associations that occur during consumption (imagery, daydreams, and emotions). The interaction between the spokes character and the product creates a link between the brand and the packaging. It can lend emotional appeal to the brand by personifying the product. It has been showed that when the packaging takes the shape of the character, it can give meaning to the brand by symbolizing its character through emotion appeal. The moderate incongruity and the innovative dimension of the package design accentuate the affective answer (Gallen & Sirieix, 2011). The innovative dimension related to the fun aspect of the packaging leave the young consumer amazed and admiring. The results from this study showed that participants assimilated the packaging to a “toy”. Thus, the children interact with the product, highly considered as a mean that conveys emotions and senses. A « toy packaging », through hedonic and amusing consumption, should
facilitate children’s socialization. This new type of packaging is, hereby considered as a gift that can be offered, and subsequently enhances the sharing value between children. Particularly, young consumers, starting a new collection of brands “toy packaging”, are exposed to comparison and competition among their peers. Finally, a “toy packaging” takes place in a collective funny activity. As a consequence, in line with above conclusions, we define a “toy packaging” as an innovative shape-design, characterized by a moderate incongruity. Combining the classic packaging features, the “toy packaging” involves sensory and hedonic aspects of the consumption. In order to develop more links with the fun universe, the packaging could be shaped in a figurine. The toy packaging should also be designed with a second life. It allows keeping packages and using them in new role for some time: the toy packaging could serve as a toy, a container, and an object for collection or even a gift to offer. The “toy packaging” is seen as an important tool during children’ socialization.

To analyze our interviews, we counted the quotes of the interviewers and we were able to identify the important features of a “toy packaging”, as seen by the interviewed children. Characteristics, listed in the table below, enable to distinguish between a “toy packaging” and a “classic packaging”

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<th>Feature</th>
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<th>Classic Packaging</th>
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Research has shown that children can be attracted to a product merely because of the appearance of the packaging and its physical characteristics (Roedder-John & Sujan, 1990). Based on the findings of this study, we recommend that managers seek to enhance the product package design particularly in the following areas: vivid colors, distinctive package shape; design to facilitate children in product usage and an attractive spokes character. Because young consumers have limited cognitive capability, practitioners should work on creativity, unusual design and moderate incongruity. The power of a funny and playful packaging design, particularly within children’s market should not be overlooked. As a consequence, a packaging, which is designed to affect the emotional side of decision making, have to enhance interactions between young consumers and the brand. Therefore, companies should make the efforts to create an interesting and distinctive design, called “toy-packaging”. It should be promoted because of creating additional possibilities to interact with brand, longer than direct product usage or consumption. The “toy-packaging” is an important mean allowing to distinguish between products targeting young consumers and those addressed to adults.

Limitations and Research Perspectives

While this research provided data-driven about a new form of packaging addressed to a specific target, there are research limitations that should be considered. Future research should be conducted with a larger number of children in order to increase the generalizability of the “toy-packaging” definition reported in this paper, and to affirm its attractiveness in the market place. Also, this research investigated the children’s perception of 10 packaging design. Working with a relatively limited number of items, and the inability to balance the sample on factors like products from other categories, lead us to inexact conclusions. Further research should consider a broader range of products. Furthermore, the children were not able to manipulate the selected “toy-packaging”. In order to overcome this issue, it will be interesting to develop three dimensional packaging in order to enhance interaction between the children and the selected products. Finally, a new research perspective is to examine the toy packaging impact among
Les enfants, la consommation et le marketing: entre rapprochement et distance perçue

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APPENDIX 1

Pt’Dop Products

Dehydrated Fruits

Green Finger » for baby care
Strange fruit »

Cuppets Ice cream - Nestlé

Strange

Petit Marseillais shower gel

Tesco cookies

Amora dressing

“Mundo Marinho” junior care

Cereals Big Bang

Ice cream Hello kitty

Milk Ninho - Nestlé

Packed fruits Ybà

Kids’water Nature’s Yard
## APPENDIX 2

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<tr>
<th>Packaging iconic components</th>
<th>Petit Dop</th>
<th>Cuppets</th>
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Maria Teresa Cuomo, Francesca Ceruti, Giuseppe Festa, Gerardino Metallo and Debora Tortora

Stimulating customers to come to a store and diluting the purchasing experience into environments of mixed reality, Augmented Reality (AR) can be conceptualized as a new strategic/operative marketing approach able to bring to life the retail stores. In actual fact, AR – as an addition of information in real environments, since 3D virtual objects are integrated into a 3D real environment in real time, enhancing the user’s perception of and interaction with the real world (Azuma, 1997; Caudell and Mitzell, 1992) – redesigns retail spaces by promoting a different mode of customer perceptions and sense making (Hoffman and Novak, 2012). According to the technology acceptance model (TAM – Davis, 1989, 1993) and its contextualization in applying augmented reality in stores (Olson et al., 2012) some elements are widely assumed to be relevant drivers of the user’s acceptance and the intention to use the technology. The main factors are: perceived usefulness, as the ability to access relevant product information via augmented reality applications (apps); perceived ease of use, as the user-friendliness of the application; perceived enjoyment – as the extent to which the activity of using a technology ‘is perceived to be enjoyable in its own right’ (Spreer and Kallweit, 2014, p. 21). Moreover, interacting with augmented reality through gesture controls seems to be promising from the users’ perspective. Stand alone installations, instant 3D models, QR codes, concept kiosks, apps, and so on, allow customers to virtually interact with the offer and other consumers as well, exchanging information, impressions and comments. In this sense, reality is socially augmented and the shopping experience itself becomes a social experience. Consumers try on products in a social atmosphere, linking the application to e-commerce offers interesting opportunities (Raajan et al., 2013). As a consequence of these technological and time changes in the contact between customer and goods/services, retailers need to modify their distributive strategies in order to accommodate today’s fast-paced shoppers. Optimization of local search, aggregation platforms and offer buildings and local referral marketing on social networks (Kang et al., 2015) are the main areas to connect brick-and-mortar shopping experience with the benefits of digital channels (Heinemann and Gaiser, 2015, p. 55). Thus, purchases take place in new spaces pending among digital and physical organization. In this way the integration of the channels, both physical and digital, aims at realizing a single intuitive and integrated distribution system, synthesized in the use of smart shopping carts and then of mobile devices and augmented solutions. Along with the objective of consumer behavior of going through cross-media and bridge-experiences, new retailers’ challenge consists in developing an integration able to enrich the user experience. At last, the omni-channel approach provides that a full interaction can be triggered by customer and a full integration is controlled by retailers (Verhoef et al., 2015; Beck and Rygl, 2015).

The adoption of innovative tools in store represents a disruptive chance that allows to manage lots of features able to increase the shopping experience value (Dennis et al., 2014). Augmented reality may help retailers in various activities (Huang and Liu, 2014) such as: it improves conversion rates and reduces returns (i.e. virtual fitting room); optimizes warehouse space; combines traditional retail experience and ecommerce (i.e. Chinese E-commerce Grocery Yihaodian); enhances brand recognition (i.e. gamification added to physical products helps to engage customers with a product and works as an incentive to a quicker purchase); empowers advertising campaigns (i.e. Volkswagen); lets customers “try” before they buy with a 3D product preview (i.e. Lego); displays additional information about products shown, enriches shopping experience (i.e. IBM
Research); searches for deals around; visualizes product catalogs (i.e. IKEA); brings customers inside a store (i.e. Hugo Boss). The augmented in-store experience, both functional and emotional, attracting and maintaining customer attention, reinforcing the link with brand/product, boosting the conversion rate and reducing risks, is considered according to many studies the new way we will shop in the future.

In the light of this theoretical framework, the analysis of the “Future Food District” case study has been conducted, using a qualitative approach (single case study; Stake, 1995; Maylor and Blackmon, 2005). The descriptive study methodology is used to describe the phenomenon of augmented reality and the real-life context in which it occurs (Yin, 2003; Baxter and Jack, 2008), underlying the researchers’ interest in naturally occurring features in the context (Dul and Hak, 2008). As it has been stated before the aim of case study research is an in-depth understanding of how the described innovative tools can affect customer experience in a ‘natural’ environment of application: the store. Special attention is given to complexity in reconstructing and analyzing the Future Food District, after having verified the conformity of the phenomenon to the criterions of internal and external validity (Yin, 2009).

The Future Food District is a thematic area located at the centre of the Expo Exhibition 2015 (Milan, Italy), realized in conjunction with Coop, Accenture, MIT Senseable City Lab and the Carlo Ratti Associati Studium. It presents a ‘supermarket of the future’ and a square with an expository structure (Exhibition Area), where the principles of sustainability and cooperation are combined with features of interactivity and innovation to describe an involving and stimulating space able to tell how new technologies and to know how contribute for augmenting customer experience. The so called ‘Coop’s Supermarket of the future is an innovative space that tackles fundamental issues linked to food, shopping and sustainability. Technology, quality products and interpersonal relationships meet here to give an answer today to the needs of those who will live on our planet tomorrow’ (supermercatedelfuturo.e-coop.it, 2015). It is a multi-purpose area where products can show their stories, in terms of local values, methods of production (processes, environmental impact, supply chain), market trade and so on, by means of augmented labels that may interact with customers while they are buying (expo2015.org, 2015). Thanks to digital devices, the offers/brands enrich themselves of extra-contents (both informational and sensorial), amplify their significance toward consumers and inflects their commercial and emotional charm through new dimensions. The store becomes first of all a social trade area, in a peer to peer way that can make consumers more informed and conscious. Consumers require total involvement in the consumption experience, and the governance of brand interaction has to be redefined ad hoc in the specific socio-constructed space of the environment, technology, service and sociality mix. In the Future Food District digital devices are also used to make customer experience fluid allowing people to interact together. In other words ‘augmented reality is on service of consumption’. Using a gesture of the hand, the interaction with products and the information is realized via touch points and 200 kinect sensors that allow to visualize indications on a screen. The experience is then completed with an app in augmented reality that makes shopping in line with the customer lifestyle. Accenture, that is the technological partner of the retail programme, has calculated a Digital Density Index which correlates a high level of digitalization with better economic performances. According to the study, an increase of 10 points of the index could provoke an additional growth in GPD of 0.25%, about $ 41 billion in the next five years and an increase of 1.8% of the Italian GDP by 2020.

The Future Food District experiment, with its 1.500.000 visitors at October 2015 (e-coop.it/expo/home, 2015), demonstrates that retailers should consider the augmented
reality as a ‘project’ for value creation – and not only as a marketing tool. In this way it could integrate harmoniously into a broader and more complex brand’s overall customer marketing ecosystem, where genius, technology and content must bring together traditional and innovative forms to generate customer engagement. Hence, to avoid the risk of falling into the technophobia it is necessary to constantly draw towards a breakable balance among a communication-interaction and a communication-meaning, where customers arbitrate with their purchase, satisfaction, perhaps loyalty. A value experience, however, is enriched whether augmented reality simplifies – in terms of decision-making – the user experience by giving them immediate, identifiable benefits (Prunesti and Lalli, 2011). By this way it can spontaneously create new interactions between people and ‘things’ (real or virtual). Thus, it would be necessary to restructure the ‘in-store augmented experience’ identifying the factors that are really able to capture the customer shopping experience with information contents, and sometimes removing additional information that can result redundant. Despite the lexical antithesis, ‘diminished reality’ can be considered a form of augmented reality, too (Cuomo et al., 2014).

In conclusion, based on the consideration that a good practice can be transformed into a better theory (Lewin, 1951; Amaratunga and Baldry, 2001) and in the light of the theoretical framework described above, the observed findings demonstrate that an overall customer experience can be really reached only with the balanced presence technological and human factors, that compose augmented contexts. Augmented reality as strategic tool for smart retailing can be considered an interesting context of research for its economic relevance; future perspectives of research need to analyse cooperation and synergies relative to all the actors involved in the value chain, with the focus remaining on firm/customer interaction in this conceptual scheme.

**Keywords:** augmented consumption, retailing, digital tools, theoretical framework

**References**


www.e-coop.it/expo/home

www.espo2015.org
Consumer Suspicion as a Communicational Opportunity in Ethical Consumption

Artemis Panigyraki and Claudia Jasmand

Abstract
Trust is fundamental in all social interactions and in particular in marketing theory and in all forms of integrated communication. This paper proposes the notion of suspicion, as a unique opportunity for persuasion in the exchange between the consumer and the company. More particularly, it focuses on whether suspicion can be more efficient than trust for marketers, to achieve persuasion, in the context of ethical consumption. Since trust enhances the credibility of the source, eventually, limiting information search. This paper argues that the notion of suspicion can be extremely significant, especially in the ethical consumption context, where companies focus their entire strategic positioning on ethical claims. The information search that might be triggered by a certain level of suspicion may give to actually ethical companies the opportunity to overcome the generalized distrust that seems to exist in today’s corporate communication campaigns. Furthermore, this paper underlines for the first time the importance of the distinction between consumer suspicion and distrust.

Keywords: Ethical Consumption, Suspicion, Distrust, Information Search, Authenticity of the Message, Persuasion

Introduction
Would we expect today’s consumers to trust companies despite numerous corporate misconducts and scandals that had led to generalized distrust? Would we expect consumers to trust Starbucks’s fair trade claims when at the same time the company denies fulfilling its economic liabilities to the British government? Would we expect consumers to trust Gap, Nike, Mango or Primark and prefer them over other brands when they know that part of their production processes relies on child labor? The same question arises for corporate misconducts such as those of Enron, Lehman Brothers and Goldman Sachs (questionable accounting practices), additionally, for other kinds of such deeds as France Telecom (aggressive management), BP and Shell (harmful environmental policies), Nestle (human rights violation) and Monsanto (product safety) (Tsalikis and Seaton, 2006; Bello, 2010; Velentzas and Broni, 2010). These and other misconducts, including greenwashing and deceptive advertising, challenge consumers’ trust towards the ethicality of corporations and have contributed to the emergence of a new type of consumer who has been identified by Roddick (2002, p.5) as one who acts more like an “ethical watchdog” rather than a “hungry consumer” being more skeptical and critical than ever, “expecting brands to reflect their ethical concerns”. Previous research suggests that incidents of corporate misconducts may induce consumers to generalize that no marketer or businessman should be trusted (e.g., Pollay, 1986; Darke and Ritchie, 2007). The potential presence of such generalized distrust seems critical, as consumers’ personal beliefs about marketers’ actions likely affect their responses to marketers’ persuasion attempts (Friestad and Wright, 1994). In this regard, DeCarlo and Barone (2009) suggest that suspicion may influence consumers’ coping strategies with regard to persuasion attempts. Therefore, the purpose of this research is to investigate how consumers cope with suspicion in the context of ethical consumption and whether it can lead the consumer to information search and eventually to trust, and finally to persuasion. More specifically, we build on and extend the Persuasion Knowledge Model (Friestad and Wright, 1994). Thus, following Bray’s et al. (2010, p. 603) observation that many consumers strongly believe that “most of the premium that they paid did not reach the end beneficiary”, the main objective of this study is to investigate to what extent consumers trust ethnically oriented corporate communication strategies (such as recycling, ecological and fair-trade products) and when and why suspicion may arise and even become an opportunity itself for companies to prove the authenticity of their marketing communications strategies, improving their overall efficiency.

Literature Review
The term ethical consumption is becoming increasingly popular. According to Yeow et al. (2014, p. 88), this term is defined as “decision making, purchases and other consumption experiences that are affected by the
consumer’s ethical concerns”. It is based on the overall consumers’ evaluations of personal and social impact derived from the consumption of products (Frestone and McGoldrick, 2008). More specifically, the notion of ethical consumption includes many of the consumers’ choices considering, among others, energy use, animal welfare, and employee rights. Such choices form an overall behavior of ethically minded consumers who feel responsible not only for the environment but also for the society (Harrison et al., 2005; Newholm and Shaw, 2007; Freestone et al., 2008; Sebastiani et al., 2013). The ethical consumer gets involved in various kinds of behaviors from ethical buying to boycotting and ethical simplification (Loureiro et al., 2002). Ethical consumption is not a new phenomenon (Yeow et al. 2014). Actually, it has become mainstream during the last three decades, attracting more and more academic interest in various disciplines such as psychology, sociology, business and anthropology.

The ambiguity and complexity of the meaning of ethical consumption have led to several attempts to conceptualize it (Bray, 2010). Hunt and Vittel (1986) approach ethical consumption as an ethical decision making process. According to their model, upon completion of the final decision the individual experiences the consequences of the final decision, which results in a learning process, which is an important aspect of ethical consumption (Bray, 2010). Chatzidakis et al. (2006) following the above lead, propose that possible consequences of the final decision to solve the ethical dilemma can be enhanced satisfaction, when preferring the ethical choice, or guilt, when choosing the less ethical alternative. Finally, Freestone and McGoldrick, (2008) give an overall view, referring to ethical consumption as reflecting the overall evaluations of personal and social impact derived from the consumption of products.

Nowadays, it seems that there is a high possibility of business misconducts. Often media uncover various news regarding certain companies just investing in creating an ethical, socially responsible brand image, without really “walking the talk” or as an effort to cover other scandals. This seems to feed consumers’ suspicion about the level of genuineness and altruism considering companies’ socially responsible activities, providing them more opportunities to say “I told you so” (Saul, 1981, p. 269). Previous research suggests that incidents of corporate misconducts may induce consumers to conclude that no marketer or businessman should be trusted (e.g., Pollay, 1986; Darke and Ritchie, 2007). The potential presence of such generalized distrust seems critical, as consumers’ personal beliefs about marketers’ actions likely affect their responses to marketers’ persuasion attempts (Friestad and Wright, 1994). In this regard, DeCarlo and Barone (2009) suggest that suspicion may influence consumers’ coping strategies with regard to persuasion attempts.

According to Ferguson (2011), when being suspicious, one searches for more plausible explanations of a particular action, when perceiving that an entity is acting “out of character”, and looks for more cues trying to assess the actor’s true intentions in the best possible way. This encourages one to look beyond apparent explanations and find alternative ones (Ferguson, 2011). Deutsch (1958) defined suspicion as a “state induced when an individual perceives a risk (i.e. degree of uncertainty) that another will act in a malevolent or undesirable way”. Fein (1996, p. 1165) defines suspicion as “a dynamic state in which the individual actively entertains multiple, plausible rival hypotheses about the motives or genuineness of a person’s behavior”. Previous research has defined consumer suspicion as “a psychological state in which the presence of an ulterior motive casts doubt on the motives of another’s behavior” (Fein, Hilton and Miller, 1990), which, for example, may arise when an individual believes that the communication within a specific context may be deceptive.

More recent attempts to define suspicion (for a review, see Ferguson, 2011) seem to agree that suspicion is a psychological state in which hidden motives for an actor’s behavior are considered (Campbell and Kirmani, 2000), when an individual may be considered about “unproven allegations of untrustworthy behavior” (Kim, Ferrin, Cooper and Dirks, 2004, p. 17), and where there is potential presence of ulterior motives. To conclude, the doubt for ulterior, hidden motives creates this psychological state that suspects a kind of behavior as untrustworthy. In this paper, we adopt Sinaceur’s (2010) definition according to which suspicion is “the state which
perceivers experience ambiguity about a target’s motives”.

Previous research on consumer suspicion in a business/marketing context focused mostly on consumers’ interactions with salesmen emphasizing the effects of sales message and consumer’s suspicion of ulterior motives on salesperson evaluations (LaFrance and Hecht, 2000; DeCarlo, 2005; Abel and Abel, 2007; Main, Dahl and Darke, 2007; DeCarlo, Lacziak and Leigh, 2013). Moreover, Ferguson, Ellen and Piscopo (2011) investigated the relationship between suspicion and perceptions of fairness of prices in times of crisis. Their results show that suspicion may arise when other explanations for motives, regarding the increase of the price of a certain product in times of crisis, are plausible. This may lead to stronger negative affect toward the retailer.

As a result, consumers may become more suspicious towards certain corporations and increasingly look for companies’ ulterior motives to promote an “ethical image”. When consumers have more knowledge about certain companies and their activities, they also gain more information about possible mismatches between companies’ promoted image and their actual behavior. This may lead to an increase in consumers’ ability to identify why and how companies can profit from promoting an “ethical image”. The latter could in turn lead to a higher possibility to detect inconsistencies that differ from their expectations (Kraut 1978; Friestad and Wright 1994; Stromwall and Granhag 2003). For example, when consumers are informed about a company’s effort to reduce low carbon emissions but then get informed by the media, that the company has failed to do so, they may be able to detect an inconsistency. It is likely that this may become a barrier for consumers to actually trust the companies and eventually consume the “ethical” alternative that certain companies may offer (i.e., generalized suspicion or distrust).

According to the well-known Persuasion Knowledge Model by Friestad and Wright (1994, p. 1) “over time consumers develop personal knowledge about the marketers’ persuasion attempts. This knowledge enables consumers to identify the circumstances under which marketers try to influence them”, which then influences them on whether they will be persuaded by the brand or not-
persuasion episode-. Thus, this paper focuses particularly on how consumers cope with suspicion and how can that affect the persuasion episode (ethical consumption decision) proposed by the Persuasion Knowledge Model.

**Research Gap and Research Questions**

Is trust always efficient for marketers to persuade consumers, as we may always consider it? From a philosophical point of view, suspicion has been traditionally considered a prerequisite to acquire knowledge (Descartes, 1637/2006; Hume, 1748/2000). Specifically, suspicion is defined as a psychological state in which perceivers consider that an actor may have a hidden motive for behavior (Fein, 1996), while distrust involves having negative expectations about another’s motives (Sinaceur, 2010). Sinaceur (2010) is the first researcher pointing out, for the first time, the distinction between distrust and suspicion in the context of social psychology (negotiations) and it is considered extremely important to point out this difference in the context of consumer behavior (ethical consumption) as well. Kramer (1998) defines distrust as “a powerful force that is capable of producing persistent biases in judgment”. While according to Sinaceur, (2010, p. 543) “distrust involves having negative expectations about another’s motives, suspicion is defined as a state in which perceivers experience ambiguity about another’s motives”. Susicion differs from distrust to the extent that it operates through an information search mechanism – according to which the individuals search for information in order to confirm or reject a certain suspicion about a company- (De Carlo et al., 2013). On the other hand, when consumers distrust a company they may even engage in punishing it or boycotting it (Papaioikonomou, Valverde and Ryan, 2012). To conclude, enhancing the lead of Sinaceur (2010), we propose suspicion itself as an opportunity for companies to
eventually gain consumers’ trust, since even though, both, suspicion and distrust presuppose a lack of trust, in the state of suspicion it means experiencing ambiguity about a target’s motives. On the other hand, lack of trust in the state of distrust it means not trusting at all a target, which implies a definitive judgment. Thus, we derive the hypothesis that:

**H1: Suspicion is a distinct construct than distrust.**

Following the lead that suspicion and distrust are two different constructs, we point out the power of suspicion to result in information search. Taking into consideration that suspicion includes more conscious attributional thinking (Hilton et al., 1993; Fein, 1996) it seems that when one experiences suspicion, carefully considers potential motives that underlie a target’s behavior (Fein, 1996). Furthermore, Kramer (1998) point out that suspicion may lead to an increase in perceivers’ rational information search about a target, whereas, Cambell and Kirmani (2000) investigate the notion of suspicion, presupposing that it leads one to consider of a salesperson as less sincere. Following Sinaceur’s (2010) empirical findings in the context of negotiations, showing that during his research suspicious participants in negotiations gave more importance to conscious motives and got involved in more information search than did the trusting or distrusting participants, we propose that it is plausible that suspicion may generate great information search about a company’s motives. This is considered extremely important especially in the ethical consumption context, where companies position themselves as respecting and promoting ethical aims. Thus, we derive the hypothesis that:

**H2: Suspicion can lead to information search in the context of ethical consumption.**

Existing research (Rubin & Brown, 1975; Pruitt & Kimmel, 1977; De Dreu et al., 1998) supports that trust enhances value creation through the information provided whereas, suspicion has its bases on information search (Sinaceur, 2010). In other words, when a consumer experiences suspicion about a company’s motives this may lead one to search for more information about the authenticity of a company’s ethical message, and then according to Sinaceur (2010) suspicion is eventually replaced by trust or distrust. We propose that when the message is indeed genuine, proved through information search, this will lead consumers to be able to trust the brand and also facilitate consumers’ persuasion episode (ethical consumption decision), according to the Persuasion Knowledge Model (Friestad and Wright, 1994). Whereas, we propose that when the consumer finds out that the promoted message is not authentic, the consumer will not be persuaded by marketers’ attempts and this may lead one to eventually distrust the brand.

**H3: When information search leads a consumer validating the authenticity of an ethical brand message, the consumer may trust the brand, which may lead to a successful persuasion episode (ethical consumption decision), while when the information search results in an inauthentic message, this may lead to an unsuccessful persuasion episode and the consumer to eventually distrust the brand.**

Trust can be considered a vital ingredient for the development of a stable relationship and as a facilitator of one. The term “trust”, according to Deutsch (1958), one of the most cited researchers of the area, includes notions as “confidence”, “assured anticipation” and “assured reliance”. Hosmer (1995, p. 393) comes to a unified definition of trust characterizing it as “the reliance by one person, group, or firm upon a voluntarily accepted duty on the part of another person, group, or firm to recognize and protect the rights and interests of all others engaged in a joint endeavor or economic exchange”.

However, previous research shows that the notion of trust is heavily associated with “assured reliance” that excludes further information search. On the other hand, suspicion involves more conscious attributions thinking (Hilton et al., 1993; Fein, 1996) and also provides a motivation for effortful information search in order to ensure the accuracy of another’s motives (Sinaceur, 2010). As a result, in the state of trust one relies just on the information provided, whereas, suspicion may lead one to further information search (Parks, Henager, and Scamahorn, 1996). Sinaceur (2010) has already shown that suspicious–trusting dyads in negotiations can create more value than
the trusting–trusting dyads since trust leads to a hundred percent acceptance of the information provided, thus, limiting information search. Thus, we derive the hypothesis that:

**H4: Suspicion can be more efficient than trust for marketers in order to persuade consumers about an ethical brand.**

**Research Methodology**

The type of survey that a researcher decides to use is considered one of the most critical decisions in the social research context (Tochim and Donnelly, 2008). The methodology for this research will be based on a combination of quantitative research methods (experimental research design) and qualitative methods (face to face interviews). The actual research instrument is proposed to be a series of experiments that will study the relationships among the research constructs. Experimental Research is increasingly common in marketing, consumer behavior & communication (Winer, 1999; Churchill and Iacobucci, 2002, p. 88; MacQuarrie, 2004). In particular, laboratory experiments are ideally suited to the investigation of a phenomenon as complex as ethical consumer behavior (Armstrong, 2011).

As an additional research method the researcher will also conduct a series of interviews. Interviews with the participants seem of great importance for deeper understanding of consumers’ intentions and actual decision making processes characterizing their behavior. Moreover, according to Crane (1999) and Nancarrow et al. (2001) they will allow participants to recount stories, examples and scenarios that enlighten the nature of the construct within the particular context. Finally, after setting up the experiments, a pre-test will be realized in order to check and ensure the required flow of the various statements and respondents’ ease of use.

**Conclusion**

One of the main current market trends is the one towards ethical consumption where we can see more and more a more consumers engaging to ethical consumption and to a more sustainable lifestyle, acting as a more responsible consumer, caring for the environment, tempering his/her desires for the social wellbeing and often enough even being willing to sacrifice his/her personal pleasure for the overall social wellbeing (Gabriel and Lang, 1995). However, there is also a number of people considering ethically oriented corporate strategies (such as recycling, ecological and fair-trade products) with healthy skepticism, general suspicion towards marketers, or even boycotts (Darke, 2007). More particularly, Chatzidakis (2007) is one of the first researchers offering empirical findings that a significant number of people think of ethically oriented corporate strategies as a marketing ploy or a small scale initiative.

Following Darke’s (2007) call for better understanding of the types of reactions consumers have towards marketing tactics, and Bray’s et al. (2010, p. 603) observation that many consumers strongly believe that “most of the premium that they paid did not reach the end beneficiary”, the main objective of this paper is to investigate to what extent consumers trust ethically oriented corporate communication strategies (such as recycling, ecological and fair-trade claims) and when and why suspicion may arise and even become motivation for further information search looking for the presence of (an) ulterior/hidden motive(s) over a company’s behavior (Deutsch, 1958; Fein, Hilton and Miller, 1990; Fein, 1996; Campbell and Kirmani, 2000, Kim, Ferrin, Cooper and Dirks, 2004, p. 17). More particularly, the main objective of this study is to investigate how consumers cope with suspicion during their ethical consumption decisions and when and how the consumer may be led to trust and persuasion by the marketers’ strategies or to eventually distrust the company. Finally, this paper underlines the notion of suspicion as a unique opportunity for the actually ethical companies to overcome generalized distrust towards companies’ ethicality, proving the authenticity of their communication strategies and eventually gain consumers’ trust.

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Session D3: Advertising

**Exploring Digital Native Advertising in Turkey: Insights from Digital Natives and Immigrants**
Sema Misçi Kip and Pınar Umul Ünsal

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**The Beauty Phenomenon in Advertising: An Experimental Study on the Role of a Message Source’s Physical Attractiveness on Advertising Effectiveness**
Uğur Bakır and Muge Elden

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**The Hidden Practice: TV Viewers’ Ethical Attitudes Towards Embedded Paid Content - The Israeli Case**
Dorit Zimand-Sheiner and Tamar Lahav
Exploring Digital Native Advertising in Turkey: Insights from Digital Natives and Immigrants

Sema Mişçi Kip and Pınar Umul Ünsal

All players in brand communication business such as advertisers, communication agencies and publishers are trying to find new and attractive ways to get and keep the attention of consumers. In the meantime, the new generation of consumers are exposed to many messages coming from every single medium and are more sceptical than ever in this turbulent market environment. Increasing with each day, digital media channels offer new ways to professional brand communicators who want to improve their brands. By means of developing technologies, consumers themselves are becoming more powerful in persuasion; they are now able to share information via social platforms and consumer decisions are affected by peer-to-peer interaction in which they learn from each other (Wang, Yu and Wei, 2012). Day by day, the relationship between brands and consumers has become increasingly important in this growing and evolving digital landscape. The pursuit for the sake of building relationships via providing more engaging content has led advertisers, social networks, agencies and publishers to experiment with new formats in brand communication. While the tradition of native advertising can originally be dated back to advertorials in print and product placement in television and movies, it has come to be discussed once again as a rising format of advertising in digital media with all its pros and cons. Digital native advertising can be defined as producing a brand and medium-related content that is relevant with consumers’ satisfactions (Lieb, Szymanski and Etlinger, 2013; IAB, 2013; Austin and Newman, 2015). Such advertisements should be designed and implemented in a way which would not lead to losing both the brands’ and the media’s trust and credibility in the eyes of the audience (Egan, Wehrle, Smit, Pavia, 2015). In that sense, the effectiveness of native content lies in the fit between a brand’s story and the selected medium’s customary content (Campbell and Marks, 2015). In other respects, Internet gives freedom to consumers; not only in terms of creating and/or consuming content but also in terms of advertising they would like to view (Campbell and Marks, 2015). Therefore, digital native advertising seems to present an opportunity for advertisers, communicators and publishers alike, since users of on-line media now have the ability to identify and choose to block or not to click on display advertisements (Austin and Newman, 2015). Due to these reasons, budgets of on-line advertising are mostly switching to digital native advertising where brand messages closely resemble the medium’s own content. According to the report of Europe’s leading native advertising platform and network, Adyoulike (2015), digital native advertising will grow rapidly and worldwide expenditures are expected to double in 2018. As many consumers increasingly choose to stay connected to the Internet by utilizing mobile technologies, digital native advertising holds a promise to become one of the fundamental formats of advertising in the following years.

On one hand, digital native advertising has the potential to increase both the value of a brand and the medium when it is deemed relevant in the eyes of the target audience. On the other hand, some issues such as disclosure of the source, transparency and authenticity of publisher or social platform make digital native advertising vulnerable (Lieb, Szymanski and Etlinger, 2013). The existing literature indicates that discussions on digital native advertising are mostly related with how much the consumer is aware of the source of advertising (Campbell and Marks, 2015), how identifiable digital native advertisements are (Porter, Windels, Heo, Wang, Jeong, and Jung), and how brands are becoming the creator of news and stories in publications (Vercic and Vercic, 2015). Debates on digital native advertising, which suggest that this kind of advertisements blur the line between advertising and editorial content (Vercic and Vercic, 2015), raise some questions on what consumer groups think about it. Campbell and
Marks (2015) indicate that clear disclosure of native advertising can deliver effective results for brand communication in the digital media. According to their research, secrecy of source produces negative attitudes in consumers. Comparing native advertisements with banners in digital media, Tutaj and Van Reijmersdal (2012: 5) found out that consumers find native advertising “less irritating, more informative and amusing”. Howe and Teufel (2014) conducted a research about the acknowledgment of native and banner advertisements and reported that participants have noticed banner advertisements more clearly, and younger respondents were more likely to notice advertisements on websites than older respondents. An industrial research conducted in the US and UK on consumer attitudes towards native advertising further reveals that useful and funny native advertisements such as Buzzfeed ad-related content or informative native ads which have clear fit with the content of both the medium and the brand are of interest among consumer groups (Austin and Newman, 2015). According to the same research results, it can be stated that consumers tend to accept digital native advertising when they are clearly informed the content is sponsored by a brand. Austin and Newman (2015) report that younger consumers are more open to digital native advertising, since they more often come across this format in the digital media. In contrast, after examining native advertisements in on-line publishing sites, Wojdynski and Evans (2015) found out that although majority of the examples in the sample have stated their source at the beginning of the content, very few have explicitly declared they are “advertising”; leading to lower ad recognition among consumers and inducing more negative assessments about digital native ads.

Digital native advertising research is an emerging issue both in the industry and in academia. Industrial and academic researchers attempt to understand this growing advertising format in terms of brand communication from various perspectives such as consumers, publishers or social platforms. Studies investigating consumer attitudes towards digital native advertising (Tutaj and Van Reijmersdal, 2012; Wojdynski and Evans, 2014; Howe and Teufel, 2014; Austin and Newman, 2015; Porter, et al., 2015) usually approach consumers in general. However, consumers in different cohorts, such as digital natives and immigrants, might have different attitudes towards this new format. Digital natives are individuals who have grown up while being highly engaged with the digital environment, where they can use their mobile devices to access information (Kirk, Chiagouris and Thomas, 2015). They are usually born after 1980, are “native speakers of technology” (Prensky, 2005: 8), and have more experience with digital media tools when compared to digital immigrants; who are considered as an “older generation learning and adopting new technology” (Prensky, 2001: 1). Because of the differences in the way in which digital natives and immigrants approach to digital media, their attitudes towards different content can vary. Therefore, the main purpose of this study is to gain insights into if/how attitudes of digital natives and immigrants living in Turkey differ towards digital native advertising.

The study attempts to make an original contribution to the existing literature on brand communication in general and on native advertising in particular, which is a nascent format in advertising. Moreover, digital native advertising has brought about a brand-new discussion in the advertising industry both worldwide and in Turkey. With a rapid and steady growing potential in digital media consumption, delivering insights into Turkish consumers will unravel significant managerial opportunities and implications as well. In order to get deep insights of both groups and to enhance understanding of digital native advertisings in different social platforms, in-depth interviews are planned.
References


The Beauty Phenomenon in Advertising: An Experimental Study on the Role of a Message Source’s Physical Attractiveness on Advertising Effectiveness

Uğur Bakır and Muge Elden

The use of physical attractiveness is essential to the advertising industry, which considers that using people with a high level of physical attractiveness as message sources in marketing will have a positive effect on an advertisement’s effectiveness. Many scientific studies in the business and advertising sectors have substantiated this idea in relation to a number of variables. This study investigated the effect of the use of physically attractive message sources on those exposed to the advertisement in the context of the gender of the message source, the relevance of physical attractiveness to the product being advertised, and the gender of the person assessing the advertisement. A message source with a high level of physical attractiveness had a significant effect on all the dependent variables. Thus, a more positive attitude developed towards advertisements in which the message source was of high physical attractiveness and to the brands featured in these advertisements, and a higher level of purchase intention emerged in relation to products advertised using message sources with high physical attractiveness. This effect did not vary according to the relevance of physical attractiveness to the product being advertised, the gender of the model in the advertisement, or the gender of the person assessing the advertisement. An analysis of perceived source credibility showed that physical attractiveness had an effect on the perceived credibility of the person in the advertisement, but this effect varied according to gender.

Keywords: physical attractiveness, source credibility, persuasion, advertising effectiveness, match-up hypothesis, experimental design
The Hidden Practice: TV Viewers’ Ethical Attitudes towards Embedded Paid Content. The Israeli Case

Dorit Zimand-Sheiner and Tamar Lahav

Abstract
This paper focuses on the concealed practice of embedding paid content on TV, i.e. paid content woven into media content. Embedded paid content (EPC) in Israel is widely used whether as selling (and buying) a TV drama plot or investigative reporting program. The premise of this research is that it’s harder for TV viewers to recognize this practice than recognizing other kinds of paid content such as product placement, since it is seamlessly woven into the media content. Previous studies indicate that most consumers, in Israel and worldwide, have positive attitudes towards product placement (The Second Authority for Television and Radio 2007; Khalbous, Vianelli, Domanski, Dianoux and Maazoul 2013; Brennan, Rosenberger and Hementera 2004), moreover, consumers were able to recognize product placement in media content, and did not perceive it as an interruption (Gupta, Balasubramanian and Klassen 2000; Gupta and Gould 1997), while the current research addresses a substantial gap of the literature investigating attitudes towards EPC.

The three main objectives of the research are (1) to examine the perceived ethicality of embedded product placement in general; (2) to contribute to the field of ethics and marketing communications in the context of the moral bases of consumers’ rejection or acceptance of embedded paid content (EPC); (3) to highlight the relationships between media organizations, marketing organizations and consumers - in the context of EPC ethics.

The Multidimensional Ethics Scale (MES) (Reidenbach and Robin 1988, 1990) was used by presenting an EPC scenario to respondents (n=350). General attitudes toward product placement were compared with ethical attitudes after EPC scenario was presented to respondents. Three ethical philosophies were presented – relativism (moral action is culturally dependent), utilitarianism (sales growth is an indication of customer satisfaction) and moral equity (ethical concerns such as fairness and moral acceptance).

Findings demonstrate that ethical attitudes towards EPC are significantly less positive than attitudes toward product placement. Findings indicate that the use of embedded paid content is morally unacceptable by TV viewers. The moral equity philosophy elicited the strongest correlation with participants’ ethical attitudes. In other words, respondents consider the practice of EPC unethical mainly because they feel that it is unfair and morally unacceptable in their judgment. Moreover, participants assign greater ethical responsibility to the media than to the marketer. Implications regarding ethics of marketer and media organizations as a component of corporate social responsibility and the need for regulation enforcement are discussed.

Keywords: paid content ethics, attitude, television; corporate social responsibility

References


Session E1: Related Areas

*Consumer Driven Media Planning and Buying*
Don E. Schultz, Martin Block and Vijay Viswanathan,

*Thinking in “One Dimension”: How Does the Position of Health and Taste Messages in the Vertical Plane Influence Consumer Response*
Alexandra Festila and Polymeros Chrysochou

*Role of MNEs in Capability Enhancement of Local Firms and Poverty Reduction*
Suraksha Gupta, Pervez N Ghauri and Fatima Wang
Consumer Driven Media Planning and Buying

Don E. Schultz, Martin Block and Vijay Viswanathan

Abstract
Media planning and buying has historically focused on efficient message distribution. Thus, most media planning approaches have focused on optimization models based on estimated reach and frequency. Those models assumed a hierarchy of effects base where consumers move through a purchasing journey driven by assumed media exposures. In this exploratory paper, an argument is made for a consumer-generated media consumption model. Thus, their focus is on media influence rather than simply exposures. The model is demonstrated with data from a U.S. based online consumer data set. The authors posit technology has made their approach superior to traditional models. A set of managerial implications is included.

Keywords: media planning, media optimization, media consumption, media influence, customer-driven data, simultaneous media usage

Introduction
Historically, media planning and buying has been conducted from the view of the marketing organization. That is, the firm spent/invested the money to purchase media time and space. Therefore, the media planners/buyers objectives were to get the greatest returns on those investments for the marketers. Over time, returns morphed into distributing the greatest number of messages at the lowest possible cost. The agency in this planning and buying model operated simply as an agent...recommending and buying media forms that would optimize the marketer’s investment in terms of message distribution. Thus, optimization came to mean message distribution, not product or service sales as result of those media–delivered investments. Since measurement of consumer actions and reactions to the messages and incentives were quite primitive and marketplace results difficult to obtain, media planners developed what they thought they could do, i.e., measure message distribution. It was an approach where the greater the number of messages delivered made up the value of the media investment.

That message distribution system, often called an “inside-out” approach, made inherently good sense. Most marketing planning and development concepts were developed for a mass marketing system which it was assumed the marketer controlled. For example, the marketer decided what products would be made and sold. Where they would be available or how they would be distributed. The price that would be charged and how and in what way the information about the product or service would be made available to buyers. Since the marketer controlled all the elements, it was assumed that group also controlled the system.

Several concepts and approaches developed which supported that view. Chief of those was the hierarchy of effects model (see Exhibit 1) developed by Lavidge and Steiner (1961).
That conceptual approach, (which apparently has never actually been proven or demonstrated in the marketplace) posited that consumers could be moved along a pathway to purchase. That was done by sending out various forms of marketing communication activities developed and distributed by the marketer through various media forms. The greater the investment in marketing and communication activities, i.e., the more messages purchased and sent out, the more rapidly the consumer would move through the process and the more rapidly positive responses would occur. Thus, the calculus was “spend more, move customers and prospects more rapidly through the process and therefore, generate more rapid returns”. Interestingly, there is only limited evidence that the hierarchy of effects model worked as Lavidge and Steiner hypothesized it. Yet, it has been widely accepted by the marketing and advertising communities over the years and still underlies almost all media planning approaches.

A corollary to the H-of-E model is the belief that there is some magic formula which determines consumer reactions to advertising messaging. That is the basis for the concept of reach and frequency. That simply means there is some magic combination or number of consumers who have a chance to see or hear the marketing communication messages and there is also a magic number of times they need to be exposed to the message, i.e., repetition. Krugman (1963) hypothesized that frequency of exposure number was three exposures. That too has never been proven conclusively either. When combined the balancing of number of people exposed to the message and the number of times they were exposed was supposed to generate the greatest response for the marketer. Thus, agencies and clients alike have constructed optimization models based on the assumed number of people exposed to the advertising message and the number of times they would be exposed through the media activities to develop the concept of reach and frequency. (Leckenby and Hong 1998; Howard 1978; Cheong, Federico, Kihan 2010)

As a result of these assumptions and hypotheses, media planning models were developed to support them. Over the years, a large number of media planning and modeling tools have been generated over time. (Gensch 1970; Leckenby and Hong 1998; Naik 1998),

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**Exhibit 1**

**Table 1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Related behavioral dimensions</th>
<th>Movement toward purchase</th>
<th>Examples of types of promotion or advertising relevant to various steps</th>
<th>Examples of research approaches related to steps of greatest applicability</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CONATIVE— the realm of motives. Ads stimulate or direct desires.</td>
<td>PURCHASE</td>
<td>Point-of-purchase</td>
<td>Markets or sales tests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONVICTION</td>
<td></td>
<td>Retail store ads</td>
<td>Split-run tests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AFFECTIVE — the realm of emotions. Ads change attitudes and feelings.</td>
<td>PREFERENCE</td>
<td>Competitive ads</td>
<td>Intention to purchase</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Argumentative copy</td>
<td>Projective techniques</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“Image” ads</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Status, glamour appeals</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COGNITIVE — the realm of thoughts. Ads provide information and facts.</td>
<td>LIKING</td>
<td>Announcements</td>
<td>Rank order of preference for brands</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Descriptive copy</td>
<td>Rating scales</td>
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<td>Classified ads</td>
<td>Image measurements, including check lists and semantic differentials</td>
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<td>Teaser campaigns</td>
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<td>AWARENESS</td>
<td>KNOWLEDGE</td>
<td>Information questions</td>
<td>Projective techniques</td>
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<td>Play-back analyses</td>
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<td>Brand awareness surveys</td>
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<td>Aided recall</td>
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reams of academic and professional papers published (Cannon 2001; Cannon, Leckenby, and Abernethy 2002; Mulhern 2009) and voluminous textbooks written. (Jones 1999; Katz 2014; Sissors and Bumba 1991; Kelly and Judgeheimer 2003) All claimed to have developed, or identified or created the most efficient media planning and distribution methodologies to fulfill the advertiser and agency perceived view of the best and most productive audience. (Weinreich 2006; Yim 2003) Thus, for the past 60 or so years, optimization of advertising message distribution has been the primary concept supporting media planning.

Today, the latest iteration of that same conceptual model is seen in the development of programmatic media planning and buying. (Gertz and McGlashan 2016; Stevens, Rau, and McIntyre 2016) Unfortunately, these new, highly sophisticated, machine-driven media planning and buying tools are simply automated models and algorithms which attempt to match up potential media audiences with pre-selected marketer and agency developed consumer profiles to determine the most efficient media distribution combinations to use. If, in a programmatic system, a match occurs between an advertiser’s desired audience and a media exposure opportunity, a bid/buy can be made. If not, the media opportunity is rejected or ignored. All these new approaches are based delivering the most efficient bundle of reach and frequency based marketing communication messages to what are perceived to be the best audience. Interestingly, while these programmatic buys are supposedly the most sophisticated in the world, the models and approaches that underlie them continue to be based on traditional media thinking and planning developed in the 1960s, i.e., identifying and buying the most efficient delivery of standardized messages or incentives. Whether these new computerized approaches have improved or enhanced media planning or purchasing in terms of generating consumer responses to the messages has yet to be determined.

All this flurry of activity over the years has been done in the name of improving the search for the media planning and buying “holy grail”, i.e., to deliver the “right message to the right audience at the right time at the lowest possible cost”. If that can be accomplished, the assumption is the marketer’s media investments will be optimized and various desired results will occur. Yet, optimization is still based on message delivery, not on consumer responses, i.e., sales or returns or desired responses on the products or services being promoted. Thus, the complaint of Wanamaker made 75 or so years ago that “I know half of my advertising spending is wasted, but, I don’t know which half” (AdAge 1999; Fox 1984) continues to ring true in spite of the technological advancements which have been made.

So, despite all the study, evaluation, research and pontificating that has occurred in the advertising and media fields over the past dozen years, the question still remains: are marketers really any closer to determining or defining the optimal media plan than they were nearly a century ago when the initial media planning and buying concepts were developed. We argue they are not.

In this conceptual and exploratory paper, we propose a media planning and buying approach which will hopefully overcome many of the past and even current issues and challenges which face marketers and their agencies. Thus, we posit that the methodology proposed here is a more relevant and closer to an optimal system than the tools and approaches currently in use.

Starting at the Other End
The opening paragraphs above seem to be quite damning to the entire marketing communications profession, particularly to the media planners and buyers since they challenge both scholars and practitioners alike. Surely some progress in media planning and buying has been achieved. Computers, big data, new algorithms, more sophisticated tools and techniques and the now available
interactive media systems must count for something. There must be some result from all this sophistication on the part of the advertiser, their agencies and even the media purveyors themselves. Unfortunately, many of the historical challenges still exist. Advertisers and their agencies still seek media optimization through cost efficiencies, that is lowest cost delivery systems that deliver “eyeballs” or “potential exposures” or “media touches” even though many of the proposed “opportunities-to-see” (OTS) still cannot demonstrate that they even occurred. (Evans 2008; Dreze and Zufryden 1998) The recent flurry on the media audience ability to see pre-roll mechanically inserted commercials seems to be only the tip of the iceberg. (Girod, Chakareski, and Kalman 2002; Roca 2014)

Media planning and buying is still a field that relies on heroic assumptions to fulfill the hopes and dreams of the media planners and buyers. The only thing the industry has clearly proven is that advertisers can spend millions of dollars, distribute billions of messages and yet, still not be able to successfully connect that spending to financial returns to the firm. So, advertisers can “dish messages out”, but, there is limited evidence that consumers or customers or prospects can actually see or hear them and even less evidence that they respond to them.

The primary problem seems to be that professional media managers and their research cohorts have continued to focus primarily on developing media efficiencies in the form of simple reach and frequency models. (Cannon, Leckenby, and Abernethy 2002) That simply means identifying and then implementing the most efficient method of message distribution, optimizing that distribution algorithm and then assuming a financial model can be calculated that will determine results. There is little or no evidence that the ultimate goal of generating the most effective marketing communication returns, that is, message consumption and response by qualified or at least potentially relevant audiences can be determined using the current tools. Thus, in the current system, the focus is always on the “outputs” of the media program, not on the “outcomes” or returns to the sponsoring organization. In other words, a job half done seems to summarize the current media planning and buying situation.

A. Reviewing the past

One could argue, however, that if the goal continues to be efficient message delivery, the current methods are reasonable and rational. And that seems to be the case with too many marketers and their agencies. Having developed and embedded a set of systems and methodologies that they all agree upon, they are wont to change or even adapt the process to today’s marketplace. Interactive communication models (Stern 1994; Rodgers and Thorson 2000), consumer “pull” approaches (Urban 2005; Unni and Harmon 2007), networked consumer and brand communities (Schau et al 2009; Casalo, Flavian, and Guinalui 2008) and a host of other factors found in today’s marketplace simply can’t be accommodated or included in today’s outmoded media planning and buying systems.

A current example is the proposed general industry initiative that advocates GRPs or Gross Rating Points should be the industry standard in developing media plans and programs no matter what media form is used. (Morgan 2001; Masse 2014) This very simplistic “rule of thumb” approach attempts to equate all media forms to one standard yardstick, that is, the percentage of the potential audience who has or had an opportunity to see the message. Even this approach ignores the fact that a GRP is still simply an estimate of the number of messages that have been distributed to what is assumed to be the total audience. There is no mention of whether or not those messages were received or acted upon by the audience. In truth, the premise seems a step backward rather that a move forward.

If the goal of the marketer and his or her marketing communication investments is to generate a recognizable influence on
consumers and customers, and even on this point, not all marketers agree, then most of the current media planning and measurement tools and techniques are likely missing the mark. To put it more bluntly, if the goal is to generate some type of return of value to the firm for the financial investment being made on the “spend”, then current media planning and investment approaches are not only missing the mark, they are deeply flawed and it is most likely they can never achieve the ROI goals which all senior managers say they demand. So, no matter how sophisticated the models nor how extensively they are implemented, the equation is still not relevant.

B. Major change is needed
We argue efficient marketing communication message distribution will never fill the objective of achieving effective financial returns on those investments (ROI) without major changes being made to the system. Even today, with the use of interactive social media systems which can clearly identify even the specific person to whom the marketing communication was sent and whether or not they had an opportunity to see it (OTS), and then measure their individual response to those or that message or incentive is flawed. The systems in place simply will not allow media planners and buyers to achieve the ultimate goal of measuring returns on the marketer’s communication investment. In other words, some reliable and identifiable response is simply not possible so long as the goal is only efficient media distribution of messages and incentives. The growing senior management demand for financial accountability and measurement seems to be too great for the present media planning and buying systems to survive based only on making minor tweaks and adaptations. In short, nothing will change.

Wholesale change is needed and that is what is proposed in this paper. The basic issue is and continues to be: planning and measuring media today on the basis of efficient distribution is passé. The approach made some sense in a world of mass media, mass markets and mass distribution where all consumers were assumed to be “about the same” and any differences were based simply on broad demographic segments. This “satisficing” approach, which developed based on what could be done, i.e., identify media distribution through counts of print runs or correlating the numbers of radio and television sets to the distribution patterns of the broadcast electronic signals of the various stations to develop such measures as “opportunities to see” (OTS) are no longer relevant or relatable given the changes in technology. Yet, marketers and their agencies, propped up by the traditional research measurement organizations are still using methods based on “what we can all agree to, even though we know it has major flaws” syndrome. Quite honestly, nothing will change unless the system is changed.

The balance of this paper describes a conceptual approach, which while still relatively untested in the marketplace, seems to fit the demands of today’s marketers/agencies. We acknowledge it is still “exploratory” but we believe it contains the elements required to radically change the media planning and buying models of today and provides a window for the future.

A Review of the Media Consumption Model
As the basis for the approach presented in this paper, we draw on and update a methodology first proposed by Schultz, Block and Pilotta (2004). In several papers presented at preceding and succeeding European Society of Opinion Marketing Research (ESOMAR) and Advertising Research (ARF) meetings (Schultz and Pilotta 2005), during 2004 and 2005, they argued for a “media consumption” model, rather than an “advertiser distribution” approach. (Shrum 2002) While widely praised at the time, the advent of the commercialization of the Internet during that same time period shifted emphasis away from media measurement to how to deal with the host of new distribution opportunities the World Wide Web, digitalization and interactivity had presented. Thus, with rare exceptions, the concept of a “media
consumption model” flashed quickly and was put aside just as rapidly. It has, in essence, lain fallow for the past decade.

In this paper, we argue that the concepts that Schultz, Block and Pilotta developed and presented a dozen or so years ago are now more relevant than ever. Aided by new technologies, media forms, big data and more sophisticated research and development techniques, the concept of media consumption can and should be revived and developed. That is precisely what has been done in this paper.

A. Challenging the hierarchy
In their 2004 paper, Schultz, Block and Pilotta (2004) (SB&P) demonstrated how a media consumption model could be populated using data from a set of online questionnaires developed by BIG Research (now Prosper International) headquartered in Worthington, OH. (www.goprosper.com). In that paper, they argued that three critical changes were needed in media planning and buying at that time. Those were (a) recognition of consumer simultaneous media consumption and usage. That is, the consumer’s increasing ability to multi-tasking with several media forms at the same point in time. That clearly obviated the individual and sequentially aggregated media measures of distribution which underlay the media planning and buying approaches being used, i.e., the assumption of a “hierarchy-of-effects” model. (Lavidge and Steiner, 1961)

That model has been widely challenged over the years (Barry and Howard 1990; Wijaya 2015) yet it remains the bedrock of media planning. It is now accepted that consumers do multi-task with media forms (Foehr 2006; Bardhi et al 2010; Alzahabi and Becker 2013) and the growth of the new mobile media forms make the argument essentially moot.

Yet, in spite of widespread evidence that multi-tasking and simultaneous media use is in wide use around the world, marketers, their agencies, the media and the media measurement organizations still cling to the OTS and the Hierarchy of Effects model for media planning.

B. Cognitive vs. behavioral models of consumer behavior
The second issue Schultz, Block and Pilotta raised was the importance of a “cognitive” model of consumer media behavior. Those issues had been identified earlier and recent research in neural networks and information processing. (Haykin 2009; Robert and Dennis 2005; LaRose 2009) makes them even more critical today.

Cognitive behavioral models have and are replacing the traditional “behaviorist” views which had dominated most media research. Other studies and findings since 2004 (Bronner and Hoog 2014; Chartrand et al 2008) have clearly demonstrated that it is the consumers who choose the media forms they will attend to employ. There seem so be few relationships which connect the volume of advertising being distributed by the marketer to the value being returned by consumer consumption. Thus, any media planning and buying model today must take into account what consumers are selecting and the media forms to which they are attending.

C. Cross-media synergy
The third element SB&P suggested was the recognition of cross-media synergy. That simply means that when simultaneous or sequential media consumption is occurring and is generated by the consumer, there must be some synergistic impact of multiple messages for the same product or service occurring during and within the consumer media consumption experience. (Teng, Laroche, Zhu 2007; Chan et al 2011)

While these issues raised by SB&P have not been totally resolved, it is clear that today’s media landscape is much more like the one they envisioned than the approaches which continue to be practiced by today’s marketers.

D. Four specification factors
In their media consumption model (2004) SB&P used four elements as specifications for populating their on-line generated model. Those were (a) consumer-reported time spent with various media forms over previous time periods, (b) a new usage segmentation
scheme based on reported media usage patterns based on propensity to seek or distribute information with others and (c) the information delivery capability of the various combinations of media being accessed and used by individual consumers. The fourth factor (d) was the propensity of the individual consumer to multi-task or use several media forms simultaneously. Those elements are still relevant today even though there have been major marketplace changes and disruptions.

The Challenge of Change
Over the past decade or so, the media field has changed dramatically, i.e., the introduction of social media (Hoffman and Fodor 2010; Mangold and Faulds 2009; Rapp et al. 2013), mobile media (Dimmick and Holplamazian 2010; Feldman 2005; Nilsson et al. 2001), programmatic buying (Irons 2015; Stevens, Rau, and McIntyre 2016), the development of emerging markets such as China and India (Dawar and Chattopadhyay 2002; Enderwick 2012), big data availability (Chen et al. 2012; Eynon 2013; Mayer-Schonberger and Cukier 2013), the speed of communication systems (Eggleston, Jensen, and Zeckhauser 2002; Proakis et al. 2012) all have impacted how media forms are accessed and used by consumers today. Yet, media planning and buying have generally continued in their well-trodden pathways with only minor and often fleeting changes being made. (Turk and Katz 1992; Cannon, Leckenby, and Abernethy 2002) Thus, much of today’s media focus continues to be on improving, enhancing and adapting incremental changes to what already exists. The current industry drive to gain acceptance for Gross Rating Points (GRPs) is just one indication of this “creeping incrementalism” approach which hangs onto the past while supposedly espousing the future.

This paper draws heavily on the arguments and concepts Schultz, Block and Pilotta (2004) developed over a decade ago. We update many of those same approaches, that is, the use of an online questionnaire data gathering system developed and distributed by Prosper International (www.goprosper.com; SB&P 2004). But, in this paper, we now include some of the new approaches, technologies and concepts that have developed over that time period, particularly that of using longitudinal big data as the foundation for our research and analysis.

We argue, therefore, this is essentially a new approach to understanding today’s consumer, based on a process of segmenting and classifying them based on their consumption of media dayparts which seem the most valid approach. In short, by understanding that each consumer essentially creates his or her own personal media consumption pattern and that is further enhanced by their own product and service demands, we argue a more relevant, practical and innovative media planning and buying communication approach can be developed. Therefore, we use consumer media consumption, not marketer message distribution as the basis for this approach.

In this example, rather than making a dramatic break with the past by trying to develop individual customer examples, we continue to use aggregated groups based on some commonality. That would seem to be the most practical and possible approach in today’s marketplace. The process and approach is described below.

A. The Prosper International Data Set
As discussed earlier, Prosper International, Worthington, OH (the successor to BIG Research) has been soliciting, gathering and analyzing consumer media usage data from U.S. consumers through an online system since 2001. The methodology is quite simple. Prosper creates a set of questions based on bespoke and syndicated surveys which are then distributed through an online process to consumers, age 18+ throughout the U.S. Consumers complete the surveys and return them electronically. When returns are received by Prosper, they are sorted by a computer algorithm based on the same 14 primary classification factors used in developing the U.S. Census. Excess responses
for any classification variable are abandoned. Thus, every Prosper study provides a nationally projectable sample of the total U.S. population. These surveys, particularly the syndicated versions, are conducted monthly, quarterly and annually. It should be noted that these are not panels but each study is developed separately and individually among representative consumer response groups.

Over the years, Prosper has worked with a number of colleges and universities by sharing their data for academic research. The Integrated Marketing Communications department at Northwestern University was one of the first academic units to take advantage of the data. Their analytical work with that data has been reported over a number of years. (Schultz and Block 2013, 2014a, 2014b, 2014c) In fact, the original media consumption model described above was based on Prosper data.

In this paper, use is made of the Media Behavior and Intentions (MBI) syndicated studies conducted by Prosper. Although earlier MBI studies were conducted quarterly and then semi-annually over the years, MBI is now an annual study. The data has been collected by Prosper to provide their clients with an overview of media usage patterns among U.S. consumers. That includes how much time they report spending with various media forms on their purchasing activities for a set of product categories and the like. The data used in this paper comes from the December 2014 MBI study along with earlier data which has been aggregated for analytical purposes. The sample sizes of the MBI data for the December period since 2003 is shown in the exhibit above.

The typical MBI sample frame is roughly in the 15,000-16,000 respondent range with the exception of the 2009-2012 when the sample was somewhat larger.

B. Media consumption

In the MBI studies, consumers are asked to report their media consumption (usage) for the average weekday and weekend day by day part, i.e., 6 am to 10 am, 10 am to Noon, Noon to 4:30 pm, etc. on an average day. Those reports are then converted to average hour probabilities and then to average minutes per day. The media categories reported include TV, radio, satellite radio, web radio, internet, email, social media, magazines, newspapers and direct mail.

One of the big advantages of this MBI data is the ability to track the changes in consumer media consumption over time. For example, Exhibit 3 shows the pattern of consumer reported media consumption in the U.S. from 2003 through 2014 for TV, internet and social media. (Note: Social media is shown in the lower right hand corner starting in 2012). The
The chart illustrates the amount of time reported by MBI respondents plotted against the left-hand axis. In general, reported TV viewing has been declining during that time, while Internet time has been increasing. Trend lines show the general direction of growth for both TV and the Internet.

Although not shown, each medium exhibits a unique consumer usage pattern, i.e., radio is heavily reported being used in the morning and TV usage peaks in prime time. Digital (Internet) usage grows slowly during the day, peaking in prime time and then trails off during the nighttime hours. Other media forms have unique patterns which can be identified through the MBI data.

C. Identifying media segments

Using the reported day part patterns by MBI respondents and then enhancing that data with other information found in the research studies, it is possible to create a large number of media segments (in this example, nineteen (19)) are identified based on a k-means segmentation of their reported daypart patterns). For this example, we have used weekday only data (weekends have been excluded). Obviously, more segments could be created by finer gradations of the MBI data even down to the individual level. This example, however, will illustrate the proposed process.
The first step is to identify and separate those consumers who are heavy media users from those who are lighter. In the chart below, we illustrate the Heavier Media Usage Segments. As shown, we have calculated their percentage of the total sample and have listed some of the media forms which distinguish them. (Note: The segment names employed are primarily descriptors of the segment, i.e., All Night Socials are heavy users of social media and their media usage patterns skew toward heavier usage in periods after 11:30 pm. Evening Socials have much the same patterns except their media activities occur earlier in the evening and so on).

Lighter media usage segments are shown in Exhibit 5 below. The first noticeable difference between the Heavier and Lighter media users is the total numerical size of the population. For example, the total base of the MBI data on which this paper is based is 16,228. In the Heaver Media User segment, the largest reporting group is titled Family-Oriented Socials which consist of only 4.7% of all MBI respondents or roughly 762 persons. The smallest group of Heavy Media Users are the Social Males at 1.3% of the total or 211 respondents. Thus, it is easy to see that heavy media users, while small numerically, are disproportionate users of various forms of media. This, in and of itself, differentiates the media consumption approach from the message distribution methodology which is generally based on a normal curve.

Looking at the chart below of Light Media Users, some interesting comparisons are found.

The largest group of Light Media Usage MBI respondents (excluding Low Media users) are the Daytime Digitals who make up 12% of the sample or 1,947 respondents. The Kids and Dogs segment is only 1.8% of the MBI sample or 292 people. What is most interesting about this comparison is the manner in which consumers access and use media compared to the current system which considers every person to be essentially of equal value.

Probing a bit deeper into the data, we can see that the four groups we have focused on have dramatically different media consumption patterns. For example, among the Heavier Media user group of Family-Oriented Socials the predominant media forms used are Radio 6 to 10 am, TV 4:30 to 11 pm, Internet between 6 and 11 pm and Mail 4:30 to 7:00 pm and Social Media, almost all day (6 am to 11 pm). Alternatively, in the Light Media usage group, the largest group, Daytime Digitals have media patterns of TV 4:30 – 11 pm and Internet 10 am to 4:30 pm. Limited use of radio, mail and social media illustrate the differences in these media groups. So while they are all media users, their media usage patterns are not at all the same nor is it
likely that their value to the advertiser is the same either.

This same type of media consumption analysis can be further enhanced by including such things as Income. That is shown in Exhibit 6 below.

Above, the reported income for all 19 segments is shown based on fairly traditional income breaks. As can be seen, the heavy media consuming Family-Oriented Socials have substantially different incomes (generally $35,000 income and above) when compared to the lower media users, i.e., the Daytime Digitals which report incomes generally in the $15,000+ range. Similarly, the heavy media using Social Males have reported incomes which seem to aggregate around the $30,000 - $50,000 range while the lighter media using group called Kids and Dogs have even lower reported incomes ranging between $15,000 and $25,000. Thus, media consumption is clearly not evenly spread among the U.S. population and definite skews can be found in the various groups. That is dramatically different from traditional media planning models which are based primarily on reach and frequency among fairly traditional demographic groups.

Occupation is another variable which can be identified from the Prosper data set. The findings for the December 2014 data set are shown as Exhibit 7.

Using the same four comparison groups, i.e., Heavy Media Users identified as Family-Oriented Socials and Social Males and the light media using groups of Daytime Digitals and Kids and Dogs, we can see substantially different variations among the groups. The Family-Oriented Socials group employment tends to be professionals and clericals. The Social Males tend to skew toward Professional occupations. In the light media using groups, Daytime Digitals tend to be Retired or from Professional employment groups. The Kids and Dogs group tend to be mostly in Business and Professional occupations. In all cases, however these are very broad categorizations. For example, the Kids and Dogs group has a wide and varied occupational patina, i.e., Salespeople, Laborers, Clerical, Homemakers and even Students. They are not, however, Retired. It is this type of extended definition which goes far beyond most media analytics of age, sex, geography and perhaps even income that makes media consumption a much more relevant and useful media planning tool.

In addition to the broad generalizations discussed above, it appears that it is now and will be increasingly possible in the future to draw even more detailed descriptions of media audiences based on longitudinal big data which is the tool used in this analysis.
Clearly, what differentiates the media consumption approach from that of traditional media planning is the understanding of various media audiences. Although all Prosper data is self-reported, the consistency of the findings over the years lends substantial credibility to its validity measures. In addition, by providing a representative sample of the total U.S. media consumption population, inferences can be developed which go far beyond what can be achieved compared to that generally available through traditional media planning tools and techniques.

There are a number of other factors which can be included in this media consumption matrix. The above analyses are just glimpses into what is possible from the extended use of big data based on consumer reported information. For example, in the Prosper data set, we can identify media users by ethnicity, simultaneous media usage, health conditions and even anticipated life changing events which are anticipated to occur in the next six months or have occurred in the past six months. Those include such things as going off to college, buying a new home, having a baby, getting married, getting divorced, moving house, getting a new job, retiring and several other personal categories. All can be related to the 19 media segments created in this initial study.

That all this seems to show is that the traditional media segmentation schemes which have developed over the years are in essence now likely obsolete. Planning media simply on the basis of efficient message delivery seems quite antiquated when compared to what can be developed and accomplished in terms of understanding media audiences, their variations and the opportunities which that might present advertisers and marketers. In short, we argue media consumption is the future of media planning. Targeted distribution and optimization of distribution is the past.

Unfortunately, space limitations restrict further discussion of media planning using consumer reported data which can be captured and analyzed over time. There are, however, two additional factors that seem to hold great promise. Using the Prosper data, we are also able to parse out the respondent reported influence on purchasing which each of the media have on purchases in nine product categories, i.e., electronics, apparel/clothing, grocery, home improvement, cars and trucks, medicines, telecom services, eating out and financial services/insurance. Thus, we move closer and closer to truly understanding the impact and effect of media promotion can have on ultimate consumer purchases.

We believe it is also possible to connect these types of media consumption data to stores shopped or retailers frequented simply by connecting various loyalty cards to MBI-type data. That would move us an additional step
closer to actually determining the impact of media messaging to actual consumer response, i.e., the real return-on-investment which various forms of media deliver to the media buyer and distributor. While not the “holy grail” of media planning and buying, it is certainly several steps closer to that goal than the current media distribution approaches.

Managerial Value
This new approach to communication planning, i.e., media consumption by audiences is no longer a “pie-in-the-sky” concept. The growth of consumer tracking capabilities from computer searches to aggregation schemes to online tracking is now a fact of life. We know much more about consumers than we have ever known and that information will only increase. Media knowledge of use by whom and of what media form is exploding. Data availability is exploding and is now a key element in any type of marketing activity. Data storage of consumer media usage can be accessed online and in real time. And, the internet of things is quickly being incorporated into all marketing systems. In short, there is simply no reason for marketers to continue to use media planning methods and approaches from the last century when more useful and valuable methods are available.

If we know who our customers and prospects are, we know what media forms they are using and we can develop and employ more sophisticated distribution techniques, there simply is no reason to continue with present practices. The future is here. It is consumer media usage that is the next stage of media planning.

Limitations and Next Steps
Clearly there are some limitations to the use of Prosper or any other consumer reported gathered data. Geography is one. Prosper data covers only the United States. Other data sets may be possible and practical going forward which could be used to build additional models. The other limitation is the number of media forms being gathered. As the media landscape literally explodes with mobile and social media, the use of only traditional media forms such as television, print, direct mail and the like may well become irrelevant. That does not, however, preclude the use of media consumption as the future base for media planning and purchasing. It simply means that existing models must be enhanced and expanded to accommodate the expanding media spectrum.

Another issue is that of consumer reported data. Can consumers accurately recall what media forms they used and the amount of time they spent with each of them? That problem seemingly is being solved through technology. Consumer tracking through online data capture is now introducing mechanical forms of media tracking, not just of traditional media but of new media as well. (MacGregor 2007; Granello, Haag, and Wheaton 2004) The combination of ComScore and RenTrack (Matta and Livek 2015; Neff 2015) promised to give a much more detailed picture of what media forms consumers actually use through the use of electronic means than has ever been possible before.

For the present, our next steps will involve the inclusion of additional data captured in the Prosper studies. From that, we believe we can develop more sophisticated measures such as factor analyses based on consumer product purchase frequency, a better understanding of how media contributes to retail and manufacturer brand preferences, how online and offline purchasing compares and is different among various media consumption groups, how future purchases might be predicted based on media consumption and a host of other questions and issues which have plagued marketers for decades. In short, the use of media consumption opens up a host of new research and learning opportunities for both the professional fields and academia.

While all these methodologies are still in the developmental stages, they do provide a view of what the future may be like. What is clear, though, is that simply sending out marketing and marketing communication messages and
then trying to relate those to marketplace results is a futile task. Investing in and measuring returns on media consumption is clearly the future. Thus, the sooner marketers, their agencies and even the media forms recognize this inevitable event, the quicker marketers will be able to determine what is being returned from their media investments.

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Thinking in “One Dimension”: How Does the Position of Health and Taste Messages in the Vertical Plane Influence Consumer Response

Alexandra Festila and Polymeros Chrysochou

Abstract
A high position in the vertical plane is associated with power, luxury or morality (Meier, Sellbom, & Wygant, 2007). This has direct implication for marketing communication, as the position of an element in a visual format (e.g. ads, packages) can influence consumers’ perceptions about the brand (e.g. Sundar & Noseworthy, 2014). Of particular importance these days, given the current societal issues with obesity, but also an increased interest in healthier eating, is how to communicate healthfulness more effectively and encourage more informed food choices. The present research (by means of two experimental studies) contributes in this direction by showing that the position of the health or taste claims within the visual plane (of ads and packages) influence communication effectiveness.

Previous research has shown that a higher position in the vertical plane is associated with high morality (Meier et al., 2007). Following this rationale, we propose that a health-related claim reflects a virtue and is therefore associated with a higher position in the vertical plane top, while a taste claim reflects a vice (guilty pleasure) and is associated with a lower position the vertical plane (H1a). Further, we hypothesize that ads that have a fit (vs. don’t have a fit) between the vertical dimension and the type of claim will have more (vs. less) positive evaluations (H1b).

Finally, we argue that the type of product carrier (vice versus vice) will attenuate the effect of the fit on ad evaluation, in two directions. For virtue products, the fit between the taste claim and the vertical position will bring less differences in ad evaluation (H2a), whereas for the vice products, the fit between the health claim and the vertical position will bring less differences in ad evaluation (H2b).

To test our hypotheses we conducted two studies. In the first study, we conducted a between-subjects experiment in which we tested two conditions: health claim vs. taste claim. Participants (N=106) were exposed to a blank square and they were instructed to click on the position within the blank square where they wanted to place the claim. The position of the click was recorded in terms of pixel coordinates (where a lower number means a higher position). A t-test with the type of claim (health claim vs. taste claim) as independent variable and pixel coordinates on the vertical axis as the dependent variable revealed that participants placed the health claim higher in the vertical plane (M=191) than the taste claim (M=215) t(104)=1.03, p=.3, r=.1. There seems to be a difference in the position of the claim, although it didn’t reach statistical significance (H1a).

In the second study we conducted a 2 (claim: health vs. taste) x 2 (position: top vs. bottom) x 2 (product type: virtue vs. vice) between-subjects experiment. Participants (N=393) were exposed to an ad and afterwards asked to report their attitudes towards the ad. An ANOVA with type of claim and position as independent variables and ad attitude as dependent variable revealed a significant interaction between the position and the claim (F(1,393)=3.6, p=.058). Participants evaluated the ad with a health claim more favourably when presented at the top (M=7.4) than when presented at the bottom (M=7.2). Conversely, participants evaluated the ad with a taste claim more favourably when presented at the bottom (M=7.3) than when presented at the top (M=7) (H1b).

We further examined if different patterns emerge for those that were exposed to an ad of a virtue product (apple) or to an ad of a vice product (muffin). For this purpose we split the sample in two (virtue vs. vice products ads) and employed the same analysis as before. For the virtue sample (N=197), the interaction between the claim and position did not reach
statistical significance \( F(1,197)=1.5, \ p=.2 \). However, a closer examination of the means reveals that there is a much greater difference between the means at one tail of the interaction. Participants evaluated the ad with a health claim more favourably when presented at the top \((M=7.7)\) than when presented at the bottom \((M=7.31)\), \( r=.13 \). For the ad with a taste claim, there doesn’t seem to be a clear difference between top \((M=6.87)\) and bottom \((M=7)\) positions, \( r=.03 \) (H2a). For the vice sample \((N=196)\), the interaction between the claim and the claim approached significance \((F(1,196)=2.4, \ p=.1)\). Respondents evaluated more favourably the ad with a taste claim when presented at the bottom \((M=7.6)\) than when presented at the top \((M=7.1)\), \( r=.17 \). For the ad with a health claim, there was no difference between bottom \((M=7)\) and top \((M=7.1)\) positions, \( r=.05 \). Our account for these results is that the type of product (virtue or vice) acts as a qualifier for the claim (H2b).

Overall, our findings indicate that there is a connection between the type of claim and the position in the vertical space. This means that a health claim (virtue) will be preferred at the top, while a taste claim (vice) will be preferred at the bottom. For marketers this means that if they want to position a product as healthy, in order to communicate more effectively, they should place the health claim at the top, while the reverse holds true for products that they want to position as tasty/hedonic. However, there are some limitations to this, as the type of product itself might influence how effective the message actually is. In a similar manner, consumers might be benefited if they become more aware of these implicit associations and try to make more informed choices.

References

Role of MNEs in Capability Enhancement of Local Firms and Poverty Reduction

Suraksha Gupta, Pervez N Ghauri and Fatima Wang

Abstract
Multinational Enterprises (MNEs) traditionally enter relatively prosperous countries with superior capabilities to communicate to linkages they create (Tasavori et al., 2014). Research on MNE linkages and spill over effects of their marketing activities is of interest to managers who seek to establish their business in such markets and policy makers in these markets who strive to find ways to promote local individuals and firms. Host governments recognise the positive impact of linkages and relationships between MNEs and local firms, therefore there is an increase in policies to promote FDI that is based on local sourcing (Giroud, 2007). Literature reflects on poverty reduction as a spill over effect of MNE activities achievable through engagement of local firms. Addressing needs of the customers in the target market using local firms requires MNEs to adopt a strategic approach because while local firms help them develop linkages, lack of skills and capabilities amongst local firms act as a barrier to efficiency (London and Hart, 2004). Therefore, although engagement of local firms is a key step to sustainable economic development and can have a positive impact on poverty reduction, MNEs find it difficult to engage local firms because capabilities are not easily transferrable as they are often embedded in people involved and systems adopted (Amit and Schoemaker, 1993; Makadok, 2001). Furthermore, business environment of developing markets discourages MNEs to engage and ignore business interests of local firms, thereby diluting spill over effect of MNEs on economic development of local market. Considering the growing inflow of FDI in developing countries and the anti-poverty push worldwide, it is important to investigate whether and by what means MNEs influence poverty reduction in developing countries. There are a number of contextual, theoretical and methodological gaps in existing studies on the impact of FDI in developing countries. Contextual gaps include a lack of work on FDI in developing countries with extreme poverty, as MNEs traditionally enter relatively prosperous countries with higher than average purchasing power. Theoretical gaps also demonstrate a lack of qualitative, in-depth methods that could provide a holistic view of linkages, and a lack of work which looks at all entities which may be involved in the linkage formation process. Moreover, there are a limited number of studies examining linkages over time following the period of FDI and how these linkages develop. This paper aims to review the current literature on the impact of marketing activities of MNEs as spillover effects to explore if intervention of capability enhancement of local firms can influence poverty reduction. In order to understand how MNEs can develop capabilities of local firms and thereafter contribute to social challenges, we draw on literature on marketing, communications, linkages, spill over effects, capability enhancement and poverty reduction.

References
Session E2: Marketing, Communications and PR

Barriers Against the Adoption of a Toy Packaging: Age and Gender as Characteristics of Targeting Children
Manel Mzoughi and Joël Brée

Usage of Virtual Environment in Terms of Public Relations Professional Associations: A Research on Public Relations Associations’ Websites
Ibrahim Özbükerçi and Nilay Başok

Digital Content Marketing and the Practice of Public Relations
Tamar Lahav and Dorit Zimand-Sheiner
Barriers Against the Adoption of a Toy Packaging: Age and Gender as Characteristics of Targeting Children

Manel Mzoughi and Joël Brée

Abstract
This exploratory study aims to provide an explanation for the brakes to the adoption of toy-packaging targeting children and may be related to age and gender. In the light of 21 semi-structured interviews with children, we propose to identify the characteristics able to generate a targeting error and subsequently a negative affective response to the brand.

Keywords: toy-packaging; children; targeting; affective response.

Introduction
The literature appears to be non abundant in terms of impact of packaging on children’s behaviour. This being the case, the child is more and more present on the sales premises (Brée, 2012; Hélies-Hassid, 2007) and his/her contact with the packaging becoming more common (Mac Neal and Ji, 2003; Pantin-Sohier, 2009; Cavassilas et al., 2012). Researchers agreed upon the idea that the child is visually oriented (Roedder John, 1999). Indeed, he/she appreciates more the processing of visual information (Dammler and Middelman-Motz, 2002) and easily evaluates the perceptual characteristics exposed in the packaging. In fact, the shape, the design, the colour of packaging, etc., are all heuristics which facilitate the ownership of the product. They allow continuation of strengthening the emotional bond with the brand even more in the case of a toy-packaging, defined by professionals as a package that suggests the childish universe in toys reproduction. However, to anticipate the possible errors of targeting within the child’s universe, this research aims at identifying the plausible brakes against the adoption of this type of packaging which may subsequently have impacts on the affective response shown by the child facing the brand.

Conceptual Framework
From classic packaging to toy packaging: the initiators of change
A pleasant packaging stimulates children’s act of consumption (De La Ville et al., 2010). The pleasant component, which is first a characteristic of distinguishing a toy-packaging from a conventional packaging, can be considered to be the best heuristic tool allowing the child to assess supply and classify products. Therefore, designers of children’s products have not spared the effort to push the boundaries of unpleasant packaging. Now, we see innovations replacing pleasant toy-packaging by packaging with a focus on the connection between game and toy packaging design. Indeed, as far as the conceptual framework is concerned, the challenge is to reconcile originality, emotion, innovation, recreation and experiential by adding funny and pleasant sensory stimulation. The evaluation of a toy-packaging incorporates thirteen funny key dimensions (De La Ville et al., 2010) including incitement to dream, magics, surprise, custom, personalized consumption, participatory and educational aspect and post-consumer activities. A toy-packaging, which is a new packaging line specific for children, reflects the specifics of the target thanks to the recovery of the world of the toy elements. It is an essential element of the product which has different aspects such as communication, identification and weaving emotional ties between the child and the brand.

Childish specificities and consumption
In parallel with the work of Oaklay (1972), “Gender” is a question of culture and it refers to the social classification of human beings into male and female. Research on child psychology had shown that children’s consumption is determined by gender stereotypes in terms of games and toys (Brougère, 2003; Traquet-Ruel, 2009). In the
market, color codes are respected; for example blue is for boys and pink for girls, even though the efforts to eliminate differences. Also, imitation games show that girls are attracted by dolls while boys get excited for outdoor games and technical activities. Moreover, according to researchers, gender differences contribute to explain children’s emotion expressions. In fact, over the first few years, boys have higher level of arousal than girls, which require adapted communication’ strategies (Chaplin and Aldo, 2013). However, this gender differentiation was valued by the children’s marketers without much interest to researchers. Also, we note the lack of theoretical literature based on the choices guided by the variable gender to the target child. Starting from an empirical observation that joins the work of Ezan and Lagier (2007), the aesthetic judgment faculty develops in children when they touch the preteen. Therefore visual rankings capacity grows with age, thereby allowing the young consumer to easily make his choice.

Therefore, our goal is to analyze the impact of the child gender and his age on the assessment of toy-packaging to find explanations to the likely barriers of the consumption of products packaged in this innovative type of packaging.

Methodological Approach
Given that the issue concerns a phenomenon which has not aroused researchers’ interest (the evaluation of possible barriers to adopt toy-packaging led on gender and age of children), it is wise to use an exploratory approach. This study is specifically based on making 21 in-depth semi-structured interviews with children aged from 7 to 11 years (girls and boys spread across all age groups), until empirical saturation was reached. According to Piaget (1972), children reach the concrete operational stage; during this time, they gain a better understanding of mental operations and begin thinking logically about concrete events.

In order to avoid the context effect (Derbaix & Pécheux, 2000) and inspire trust among children (Derbaix & Pécheux, 2000; Brée et al., 2012), we decided to meet the young consumers in focus groups (two or three children). This type of method led to interactions between respondents. We encountered children in their natural surroundings such as their private home, the multimedia library “Levallois Perret”, and “McDonald’s” restaurants in Paris. The interview guide was pre-tested in order to avoid children’s misunderstandings of some questions and to make the necessary corrections. The terms « packaging » and « playful » were replaced respectively by « wrapping » and « funny» etc. (Brée, 2012).

At the end of the discussion, we thanked the children by giving them some sweets - they did not know at first (Bree, 2012).

It must be noted that two main topics were discussed namely the segmentation criteria based on the characteristics and the expectations of packaging in terms of children taken by funny toy-packaging. During interviews, we utilized visual aids illustrating toy-packaging to facilitate the understanding of the topic with the interviewees and the development of comparaisons.

Results
What is a toy-packaging for children?
By asking the children to characterize the new line of packaging proposed (considered by professionals as the toy-packagings), the funny aspect is one that has been most appreciated. The youngest, boys and girls, are attracted especially by anthropomorphic packagings in which the shape imitates the world game. As for older, they claim mostly to enjoy the recreational packages, although they consider themselves too old to play with “... it is very funny (Pets Nestlé) but it’s for the little ones who like it. "Andrea,9 years].

Indeed, the recreational characteristics, the proximity of the game world and the anthropomorphic aspect are crucial when evaluating products. In fact, they attract the
attention of the child and allow to develop in him a sympathy for the brand. The design-form of a toy-packaging comes down, according to the words of the interviewees in the strong resemblance to the toy and the ability to generate positive feelings. Therefore, distinctiveness is the fact that a toy-packaging refers to the child's universe for the target to make it fit him in the end.

The concept of consumption that puts the emphasis on the game and its funny aspect was mentioned by several interviewees who claim to use the toy-packaging to maintain a social activity with their surroundings.

The socialization of the child goes through the game, the entertainment and the hedonic experiences (Holt, 1995 quoted in De La Ville, 2010). Collecting the so called funny packaging, offering them or even use them in a collective activity game were mentioned repeatedly by respondents, such as Alexis a seven years old child says that "[... if mom often buys us an ice like that, I'm going to build a farm with my Lego and we hide in it me and my brother. "].

The calculation of occurrences, allowed us to determine the possible role of a toy-packaging in socializing with peers.

What are the segmentation criteria which are generated by a toy-packaging and their impact on consumption?

A toy-packaging is originally considered by professionals to customize offers for children. Unanimously, the children say that they prefer packaging that resumes figurative representations to be qualified as funny and attractive. However, the choice of the emblem or the mascot seems to have a power of segmentation. The girls attribute products whose packaging contains their favorite heroine, as stated by Marion, 8 ["...I love Hello Kitty and I think that all girls will like and will buy the ice"] while boys will like a product only if it is associated with either a neutral or masculine emblem. The older are able to reject the product as soon as they realize the feminine nature of the illustration ["Kitty ... there it is, it'll be for girls and not for boys." Andrea, 9 years]. Similarly, according to the theme of figurative illustration of toy-packaging, children are able to categorize the age of the target: the characters as well as animals and gentle creatures are associated with the younger target (Bree 1993; Hémar-Nicolas, 2007).

To sum up, children’s reactions towards the segmentation dictated by the toy-packaging, clearly demonstrate that in his blind, this innovative type of packaging can create barriers to consumption. Indeed, it is considered to distinguish the products dedicated to children from those dedicated to adults. Through this analysis, it was possible to understand that a toy-packaging, given its proximity to the world of toys, can also operate in segmentation within the target child: the aesthetic expectations for girls (colour codes, design, muse, etc.) differ from those of boys; which inhibits consumption when the child realizes that the packaging is intended for the other gender. This observation is applicable to children from the age of 9 years: from here in this age, the gender variable does not stimulate the rejection of a toy-packaging. The criteria for verbal judgment (familiar and gentle animal, colour palettes, round shapes, etc.) used by younger of 7 and 8 years do not overlap with those of older, 9, 10 and 11 years. Those one, feel as preteen, deny the consumption of products on toy-packaging, finding them more suitable to kids. In conclusion, a toy-packaging is able to create an affective link between brand and children in a hand, and in the other hand, it allow an easy segmentation between adults’product and children’one. However, it may presents barriers to consumption if considered as inappropriate. Marketers may allow more attention when using this type of packaging to avoid irremediable strategic errors like abhorrence of the product and the brand.

1 The website, www.amazon.com, in its American version adopted a companion to prohibit racking girl and boy toys; Super U French distribution chain has made the effort to upset conservatism hanging over the toy world with a catalog of un-gendered toys.

2 in the selection of toy-packagings we referred to the global ranking of the best packaging designs for children which is considered by professionals as the toy-packaging. Thus, we made use of the sites www.thedieline.com ; www.revistafator.br
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Usage of Virtual Environments in terms of Public Relations Professional Associations: A Research on Public Relations Associations’ Websites

Ibrahim Özbükerçi and Nilay Basok

Introduction
Public relations has been a research area for a long time. Both the description of public relations and alteration during this process and differentiation of execution area made this discipline approach variously. For this reason public relations has been a professional field. This discipline which has been for long years comes to the forefront as professional associations. The professional association which provides better professional practice takes part perceptibly in public relations. For this reason public relations professional associations should have manage virtual environment with public relations tools with determinated purposes. This study contains a research which related with public relations, professional associations, virtual environment and usage of public relations tools in virtual environment aspect of public relations professional associations.

The study is significant in terms of public relations associations’ web sites usage and positioning. Understanding website’s usage habits among different geographical and cultural fields show public relations professional association’s business manners. Moreover, websites of public relations professional associations’ educates their audience and their members. The knowledge of public relations profession’s has been shared by websites of public relations professional association. Reaching audience or members and educates the profession’s members is main objective for public relations associations which executed via their websites.

With those purposes, we have researched different public relations professional associations’ websites (Global Alliance, PRSA (Public Relations Society of America), CIPR(Chartered Institute of Public Relations), PRIA (Public Relations Institute of Australia) and TUHID (Public Relations Association of Turkey) are in the scope of function and presentation. Furthermore study will be shown an instance for comparing business manner among different cultures and corporate communication understanding.

Background
It is crucial to use digital communication tools in terms of public relations. Digital communication defines a communication as information transfer between different points in space or time, where the term information is loosely employed to cover standard formats that we are all familiar with, such as voice, audio, video, data files, web pages, etc. (Madhow, 2008: 1). Using of digital communications tools is important for any public relations professional associations with regards to contact their audiences and members. Especially web sites are a tool of digital communication (Wade, et. al, 2014: 7072) which belongs to public relations professional associations serve a very important purpose in order to understand their member’s necessities or sharing professional knowledges with public and members.

Definitions of professions usually contain two attributes in particular. One of these is the idea that a profession is built around a substantial body of theory and knowledge, which must be continuously tested, revised, and expanded. Thus one value an association can bring to its profession is to encourage and support research that feeds the theoretical/knowledge base of the profession. The second attribute of a profession deals with its members constantly pursuing the new or revalidated knowledge that is a result of research efforts in the field or from cognate fields (Fisher, 1997: 321). Professional associations have an active role in improving, recognizing and strengthening of any profession (Palea, 2012: 18). Furthermore, Professional associations put forward occupational values thus determine to moral rules about the profession. Developing of profession, reaching to well-deserved place,
offering a business opportunity for its graduates and creating national and international information nets are among the proposes of public relations professionals (Goksel, Basok, 2006: 50).

The digital communication which has a significant position among the developing and conventional technological tools, provides access to target market in the manner of effective and differentiated (Gul, 2014: 56). In terms of professional associations, using of website ensures many functions as contact with media, share information with target groups, execute interactive communication with members and strengthen of occupational image. Public relations professional associations enable reaching the members and potential members of association to educate with sharing craft knowledges.

Method
The analysing of public relations professional associations’ websites has significant point in terms of understanding the intended purposes of websites. The public relations professional associations which create this factor and share with other professions should be example for other professions and professional associations.

Aim of this study is to understand how websites using in different geographical regions in the way of overall functions and delivery properties. With this design, the public relations professional associations’ websites which both take place in Europe, United States, Australia as official members of Global Alliance and maximum number of members have been analysed. Although TUHID (Public Relations Association of Turkey) is not an official member of GA, Its website has been examined within the purpose of comparing. To understand business manner which takes place among different culture and geographic regions is significant in the way of web sites usage. With these purposes; GA (Global Alliance), PRSA (Public Relations Society of America), CIPR(Chartered Institute of Public Relations), PRIA (Public Relations Institute of Australia) and TUHID’s (Public Relations Association of Turkey) official websites have been examined for the purposes of exposition how they execute their web sites within the scope of functions and delivery. On the other hand these countries which have chosen for study present different culture and approach about use of official websites’.

The information which has been determined through public relations professional associations’ websites have been verified with e-mails by the authorities. After this process, acquired data within study, are obtained with content analysis method which has applied by Gibson et. al. (2001) and described research has executed with their categories.

Findings
The research has been executed between the dates of 1st-31st May 2015. Public relations professional associations’ websites which are within the scope of research has analysed in terms of overall functions and delivery properties. Overall functions are composed of informational provision, networking, participation, campaigns; the delivery properties have glitz factor, access, navigability and freshness factors as well.

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<th>Overall Functions of Websites</th>
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<td>Informational Provision</td>
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<th>Delivery of Websites</th>
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<td>Glitz Factor</td>
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The research has asserted that PRIA (Public Relations Institute of Australia), Global Alliance and PRSA (Public Relations Society of America) use their website’s effectively in terms of overall functions; on the other hand it has determined that the same public relations professional associations evaluate delivery of websites professionally. Moreover the study has shown that TUHID doesn’t make a point on website in terms of functions and delivery. It has dropped behind among other public relations professional associations which has examined in this study. In contrast with TUHID, PRIA has executed this process as professional. This public relations professional association has rich context and functions in its official website.

It has been found in this study that websites upgrade levels are different from each other. For instance in TUHID’s websites “president’s massage” has belongs former president despite new president has been selected in June 2014. This means TUHID’s official website is out of upgrade. However PRSA or CIPR shares current information in their official websites. By means of this indications public relations professional associations’ official website has different level about functions or delivery in terms of various cultures and regions.

Results and Discussion
In terms of getting contact and keeping touch with determinated websites have presented that public relations professional associations websites much more active and effective in point of content and technique in Europe, United States and Australia in comparison with Turkey.

It is clear that public relations professional associations which take place in Turkey are incapable of managing virtual environment tools and removed from professionalism. In contrast with this the public relations professional associations which chosen different continent (Europe, United States and Australia) and connected merely via e-mail and website information, are more professional in terms of manage their websites.

The study has also reflected that America, Australia and Europe are professional about managing their official website as public relations professional associations in contrast with Turkey. For instance, Although PRSA has many functional tools in its web site even for the students of PR or CIPR has accessibility button in their official website for disabled people, TUHID doesn’t have any button for even English Language option. As a result of this study, PRIA has highest points among other public relations professional associations in the way of overall functions and delivery of websites. This situation means that PRIA manage its website as more professional than the other public relation professional association which has been examined in the study. On the other hand, geographically, Australians has a professional manner about this process as against others.

In addition; In Global Alliance, CIPR, PRSA, PRIA’s websites provide ideal and professional instances about virtual environment tools. Both being satisfied in terms of content and technique characteristics and experiencing in research process proved that these public relations professional associations use virtual environment tools in a professional way.

Limitations and Future Research
Being public relations professional associations which constituted research sample, have chosen among the official members of Global Alliance and have English Language option in their websites have made up our research’s limitations. In additional, taking place in different geographical areas and having maximum number of members were the other limitations of the research.

On other future researches, it can be beneficial to give a place to public relations professional associations’ social media tools for be researched. Because of these reasons researching the social media tools which belong to public relations professional associations are advised by us.

Keywords: public relations professional associations, corporate communication, website analysis, pr in virtual environment
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Abstract
In recent years, the practice of Public Relations (PR) worldwide and in Israel has been adopting the use of Paid Digital Content Marketing (paid DCM), meaning the inclusion of payment for content produced by marketers for marketing purposes, in the content of digital channels such as news sites, social media, etc. This content is similar in terms of its location, design, and writing style to the editorial content of websites or to content created by users of social media.

This widespread phenomenon, which is developing against the backdrop of: (1) technological changes (such as ad blocking); (2) changes in media consumption habits by consumers transitioning from traditional media to digital media; and (3) changes in the distribution of content by content producers in digital media (Clark and Aufderheide 2009), is worth noting and discussing on four main dimensions.

The first dimension addresses academic definitions of the PR practice, specifically definitions of Marketing Public Relations (MPR). These definitions stress the role of PR experts in promoting brands and organizations’ positive publicity on the one hand—and PR’s lack of control over publicity content (either positive or negative) and over timing and location. The role of PR experts, according to these definitions, is to promote content distribution through forming positive relationships with journalists and editors (Arens, Schafer and Weigold 2012; Bivins 2009). The claim is that in effect, paid DCM transfers control from the media to PR experts, much like the control that advertisers exercise over content, location, and timing of advertisements. Furthermore, PR DCM, similarly to advertising, is paid, unlike unpaid publicity in the traditional media. In these aspects, the line between PR and advertising is blurred, and there is a need to readdress and reexamine the definition of PR.

The second dimension is based on the fact that distribution of media content in traditional media by PR experts through the practice of media relations leans on close relationships benefiting both journalists and PR experts. The likelihood that a press release is published depends on these relationships (Dozier, Grunig and Grunig 2013). On the other hand, the use of paid DCM does not rely on mediation by journalists, and therefore, as far as PR experts are concerned, nurturing reporter-PR relationships is in effect unnecessary.

The third dimension at the heart of multiple, updated definitions of PR relates to the development and maintenance of beneficial relationships with various stakeholders (Richardson and Laville 2010; Corbett 2012), as it arises from the Two-Way Symmetric Model (Grunig and Hunt 1984). These definitions emphasize the role of PR in promoting the positive image of the organizations and brands that they serve, while forming a positive win-win relationship with stakeholders including media, consumers, the community, organization employees, suppliers, stockholders, etc. (Ledingham and Bruning 1998; Lahav and Avraham 2008). In light of the discussed practice of paid DCM, the examination of the Two-Way Symmetric Model should be performed especially in aspects of the direction and objectives of communication, as its direction and objectives no longer need to be “two-way”, but in many instances become one-way, directed from the organization to its audience.

The Two-Way Symmetric Model also relates to the fourth and final dimension, addressing the ethical implications of the use of paid DCM without exposing of neither its source of content, nor the fact that it is paid for. While the model addresses the dialog leading to the satisfaction of both parties, the manipulation involved in the writing and distribution of covert marketing content as editorial content or user generated content contradicts the...
basic principles of the model. Models in PR ethics, such as the PR Ethical Dilemmas Model (Limor and Rashi 2012) and the code of ethics of PR firms like the Professional Ethics of the Association of Media Consultants and Public Relations in Israel (ISPRA) do not directly discuss paid DCM, but rather the basic accepted codes of ethics regarding the social responsibility of PR firms such as fairness, the public’s right to know, and transparency. The use of paid DCM while concealing the message source could violate trust between PR firms (and the organizations they represent) and various audiences.

In summary, the future use of PR experts of paid digital marketing content embedded in digital media could be influenced by variety of stakeholders’ public opinion, including the regulators. Therefore, it is important to continue to follow the future developments in DCM and its impact on PR practices over time. Payment for content may decrease, or alternatively, could change the field of digital PR, making it increasingly similar to the practice of advertising, which itself utilizes editorial content-like advertising in digital channels.

**Keywords:** content marketing, public relations; paid digital content, two-way symmetric model; media relations

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Session E3: Corporate Identity and CSR

*French Water-Controversy, Private and New Public Brands and Responsible Communication*
Céline Pascual Espuny

*Corporate E-communication: Its Relationship with the Corporate Logo in the Construction of the Consumer’s Online Interaction*
Elisa Montes and Pantea Foroudi

*Old Dog, New Tricks: The Imperative Challenge of CSR*
Cristina Fona, TC Melewar, Charles Dennis and Keith Dinnie
French Water-Controversy: Private and New Public Brands and Responsible Communication

Céline Pascual Espuny

Abstract
Along with the emergence of an ecological consciousness and a responsible communication for well-known brands (Pascual Espuny 2008, 2010, 2011), a strong digital counter-culture had been developed in Internet and supports formalized spaces of resistance and rebellion against traditional communication forms and discourses (Austin, Plouffe, Peters, 2005). Humor and the art of parody as well as homemade ironic and satirical videos subverting traditional media and ad campaigns have acquired a growing popularity on digital social networks, counting millions of views and more (Lim, Golan, 2011). From an individual-liberal perspective to a more radical rational-critical or even cyber-libertarian discourse (Dahlberg, 2001) these initiatives were primarily the actions of individuals. Nonetheless, organized civil society movements and even public institutions rapidly grasped such techniques in order to serve their own agenda and thus produced numerous parodies and satires such as the Pinocchio awards (Catellani, 2009) or the Greenpeace detox or palm oil free ad campaigns. In these cases, entertainment and humor act as food for thought and subversion weapons for a new, swift and powerful digital culture jamming (Klein, 2001, Harold, 2004, Carducci, 2006). These organizational uses question the role of entertainment as both an object of communication resistance as well as a strong tool to shift public opinion. A new form of hybrid rhetoric, even stronger on the web (Bronner, 2013), emerges, based on a matrix of discontent resistance discourses (Fischer, 2001, Pascual Espuny 2013, 2014) and more subtle denunciation discourses, mixing an engaging and activist content, brand content codes and environmental and societal discourses.

Humor and parody in particular are analyzed as a communicative act, and our theoretical framework relies on research that looked at resistance to the consumerist system and which have highlighted both a dynamic social but also an armed counter-culture specific codes and rhetoric. (Chreim, 2006). Joseph D. Rumbo (2002) and considered a reaction mass to an "oversaturation" of commercials, which would have led to strategies for turning (Speck, Elliot, 1997, Goldman, Papson, 1994).

The parody is also a media of fission of the image and the reputation of companies in these public spaces: in recent years, parody campaigns attacking not the product, but the base of the company’s values, and, ultimately, his reputation. Brands first were the subject of rejection because they were the symbols of a culture of mass consumerist (Thompson, Arsel, 2004). Today, they face an almost professional activism lookouts, ethical and militant, which draws its resources from the speeches of social and environmental responsibility issued by the companies corporate communication. Dominique Roux (2007) proposes the concept of combined resistance, which would be the result of a set of negative emotions and cognitions encoded through the repetition of market situations containing elements potentially triggers opposition.

Finally, parody can be seen as support of commitment and new on-line code of civil society. It is an alternative land, which is expressed in the codes used, but also the practices and uses, and which is based on the concepts of emancipation, liberation and creative consumption (Firat, Ventakesh, 1995, Kozinets, 2002, Holt 2002, Toumajian, 2003, Thompson, 2004). New practices are derived, such as donation, exchange, sharing, which connote also issues communications of this wide community, and sometimes chain in parodic communications circulating on the Internet. This community, which is expanding rapidly, will create a space for expression more or less confidential on the Internet, and then will open through what Raymond (1999) called the Noosphere.

Our research question is this: How can parodied companies react to their own parody? What consequences in terms of communication?

We propose to focus our communication on the french market of water, which has been strongly shaken his last years in terms of controversy and communicative responses. Indeed, the public
authorities were formed as brands and invested advertising, causing shock and repositioning of all brands in the market. After a first analysis part parodies dynamics and the first reactions of companies, we install our research one or two years after the issuance of the parody on the internet. We analyzed the parodic communications campaigns carried out by the GOS on large groups (Nestlé Waters, Danone, Neptune, but also public authorities: waters of Paris, Lyon, Dijon GrandO, water of Geneva, etc.).

This article will present primary results, based on semiotic and content analysis. On the one side we analyze parodic communication campaigns and on the other side we study corporate responses especially those focused on public commitment. We include a wide variety of documents, from mockumentaries to digital viral marketing campaigns. Our corpus is large and longitudinal, we proceed by 2-3 last year’s case study. We analyze their communicative reactions in advertising and corporate and marketing terms. We analyze more fifteen brands that represent over thirty communication campaigns. The idea is to understand the influence of the parody on the corporate communication of the company, over the long term. Were there adaptation? Denial? What are now the codes of companies scramble by the parody?

We rely on different issues of information and organizational communication science research (Grammaccia, 2001, Weick, 1995, Libaert & alii, 2006), but also on research on considerations around the flow of ideas (Latour, 1989, Callon, 1998a, MacKenzie, 2003).

**Keywords:** reputation, brand, parody, resistance, organizations, communication strategies

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Corporate E-Communication: Its Relationship with the Corporate Logo in the Construction of the Consumers Online Interaction

Elisa Montes and Pantea Foroudi

Abstract
The purpose of this article is to examine the influence of the corporate logo on the consumer's attitude within corporate e-communication. Taking into account previous corporate constructs theories, the author proposes a new conceptual framework to explain how corporate e-communication interacts within an organisation's structure, and also to show that the consumer's interaction in corporate e-communication platforms is based on the corporate logo perception held by consumers; as a consequence, the corporate reputation is affected.

Introduction
In today's world, digital platforms (e.g. Facebook, Twitter, and the website) have a crucial role in the way companies communicate, especially from a marketing perspective, as these channels contribute to the construction and management of the organisation's interaction with their stakeholders (Drèze and Hussherr, 2003). The constant communication exchange through corporate websites and social media networks between firms and consumers make all types of digital communication a fundamental tool of corporate communication (Abdullah et al., 2013).

Scholars have talked about the fundamental role of internet platforms in organisation's communication (Gilpin, 2010; Nguyen et al., 2015), specially in terms of marketing strategies, where they have identified Facebook as a great social network to reach a massive number of consumers and interact with them more efficiently (Duffet, 2015; whiting et al., 2013). Twitter is an effective online microblogging platform to create brand awareness and engagement with shareholders (Gilpin, 2010). It seems that the new marketing trend is mainly focused on brand awareness and online engagement, and e-communication channels have been created for that. Therefore, e-communication should be integrated in the corporate structure.

This article contributes on the understanding and expansion of the organisation's structure by introducing a new corporate construct, named 'corporate e-communication', defined as the digital interaction than an organisation has with its stakeholders, it involves everything it says, shows and does. It is influenced by corporate constructs, which can be divided into antecedents and consequence dimensions. The antecedents are those constructs that build the consumer attitude within the corporate e-communication, and the consequence dimensions are those constructs influenced by the interaction created in the corporate e-communication channels.

In the last few decades there has been an increasing amount of research into corporate logo, corporate image and digital communication platforms (e.g. Abdullah et al., 2013; Muller et al., 2011) It has added to the understanding of how multiple online channels contribute to the construction of corporate image. This research allows public relations practitioners to paint a richer portrait of an organisation through dialogue and direct interaction with stakeholders. In addition, a company's reputation is built by a social and semantic digital network system (Gilpin, 2010). Moreover, scholars (Balmer and Gray, 2000; Dowling, 1994) have suggested that corporate logo is related to a corporate image. In 2014, Foroudi et al. demonstrated the inclusive relationship between a favourable logo and its sub-constructs (i.e. corporate name, typeface) from the consumer's perspective, and its effect on a favourable corporate image and favourable reputation. Therefore, the corporate logo/brand must parallel means of corporate communication, including e-communication channels, to allow audiences to have a full understanding of what the company really is (Llorente-Barroso and García-Garcia, 2015).

In order to obtain a full understanding of the relationship between corporate logo and corporate e-communication, the following sections will provide a background and antecedents of those construct from the most recent literature. It also explains how the market has converted Facebook and Twitter into a digital communication channel to transmit the
company’s image. Additionally, for the purpose of this research, a conceptual framework has been built based on the analysis of previous frameworks relative to the subject mentioned.

**Corporate Logo Background**

The concept of the corporate brand/logo began in the 70s when Margulies (1977) showed with case studies how a simple change in the company’s name could affect the corporate identity. In the 80s, Winters (1986) ran an investigation of how corporate advertising affected company image and reputation.

In the same year Bernstein (1986) also affirmed that organisations present their personality and values through the corporate logo, which encompass those corporate dimensions. The subject becomes popular in the 90s, when several authors addressed this topic in a broader conceptual structure, including concepts such as corporate identity, corporate image, culture, organisational design (Chajet and shachtman, 1994; Dowling, 1994; Fryxell and Wang, 1994; Fombrun and Shanley, 1990). In the following years until present, research constructs have been a focal point of investigation with a key focus on corporate image and reputation, where the corporate logo plays the main role of the company reputation and the customer promises (Van Riel et al., 2001). Early research focused on the difference between the corporate logo’s intrinsic and extrinsic characteristics (Van Riel, 2001). The most recent research of Corporate logo has been into the marketing field, where the target market and the consumer perspective are the focal point (Foroudi et al., 2014; Muller et al., 2011).

Taking into account previous and recent definition, corporate logo is what differentiates one organisation from another; it is a fundamental element in the organisation’s communication and also in the company’s image (Foroudi et al., 2014; Henderson and Cote, 1998; Henrion and Parkin, 1967; Margulies, 1977; Melewar, 2003; Melewar and Saunders, 1999; Olins, 1978; Pilditch, 1970; Schmitt and Simonson, 1997; Selame and Selame, 1975; Van den Bosch, de Jong, and Elving, 2005). In 2015, Llorente-Barroso and García-García stated that a logo is a sign of a symbolic nature with its own autonomy, whose construction is based on some of the connotations of the expressive elements of which it is constituted.

With the purpose of obtaining positive responses from the audience, firms use their corporate logo within their communication strategies. This approach develops recognition and empathy from stakeholders toward an organisation’s logo/brand, allows the audience to define an organisation, and also transmits a company’s status through the colours, shapes, texture used (Aaker, 1991; Balmer and Gray, 2000; Downey, 1986; Foroudi et al., 2014; Henderson and Cote, 1998; Melewar et al., 2005; Muller et al., 2011; Pittard et al., 2007; Van den Bosch et al., 2005, 2006; Van der Lans et al., 2009).

Today’s managers invest large amounts of money in the creation and maintenance of their firm’s logos, as they are aware of how corporate logo can affect consumer perception and consequently the firm’s reputation (Girard et al., 2013). A similar statement was exposed in 1995 by Dubberly, who said that if the corporate logo is not memorable and/or meaningful; the company cannot reach their goals (van Riel and van den Ban, 2001; Dubberly, 1995). This means that logos contribute to the brand recognition process (Peter, 1989; van Riel and van den Ban, 2001).

Following the same line, Pham et al. (2012) stated that logos are the primary instrument with which to communicate corporate image, increase recognition and enhance customer loyalty, although these logos can also provoke negative emotions in the audience. Other scholars have demonstrated the positive results on brand modernity, loyalty and responses from an organisation’s logo (Muller et al., 2011).

Taking into consideration that this research is focused on e-communication, it is relevant to quote the concept of corporate e-logo stated by Check-Teck (2001), which says that despite the high numbers of benefits the internet brings to an organisation, this can affect the logo in a negative way, as it can damage some of its main elements such as: design, colours and other factors, besides the huge competition faced on digital channels. Thus, if a company wants to generate a positive image and reputation for its stakeholders through digital
platforms such as Facebook and Twitter, the corporate logo should be a vital phase within an organisation’s digital marketing strategy (Check-Teck, 2001).

**Corporate E-Communication**

The evolution of the internet has changed the way human beings communicate with each other. It has made e-platforms the main channel for interacting and an example of those platforms are Facebook and Twitter. Through these, users are able to show status, connect with different people around the world and share thoughts and feelings. This revolution has affected the relationship between companies and customers/clients, as those channels have become the main platforms of corporate communication. E-communication platforms satisfy the consumer’s desire of being associated with companies, as this makes them feel one with the brands they follow (Engeseth, 2005).

In the same way, Piskorski (2011) says that social media has been used by companies as an external communication with stakeholders such as customers and vendors. Most companies that implement social media in their communication plan have a multi-pronged strategy that crosses various platforms. Scholars have defined social media platforms as a tool for enabling consumers to interact with others, sharing information, experience, and perspective (Chinn, 2010; Weinberg, 2009; Parganas, 2015). Moreover, Social Media Platforms have given much attention to the marketing field, which has been used by enterprises for social networking, microblogging and social tagging; making this platform part of an integrated enterprise social media platform (ESM) (Leonardi et al., 2013).

According to Leonardi’s definition, social media allows internal communication between co-workers and external communication with stakeholders. Moreover, from a marketing perspective, digital channels have been used in pursuit of cost efficiencies in building and maintaining brand and customer relationships (Drèze and Hustherr, 2003). In terms of the relationship between customers and corporate brands, research has pointed out the main role of the social user in generating content and actively discussing, sharing and commenting on products and services, and by doing this generating a positive word-of-mouth reputation (Hanna et al., 2011). Taking into account the fact that everything an organisation says, makes and does is communicating in some way (Melewar, 2003), digital platforms have built multiple online channels for image construction and company interaction with their stakeholders (Gilpin, 2010). Nguyen et al. (2015) named this way of interacting as an external communication, which this research will refer to as an e-communication.

Abdullah et al. (2013) said that the internet is part of company’s communication channels used to transmit messages to the constituents. They identified corporate websites, social media and the internet evolution as a powerful tool of corporate communication to promote the corporation’s online brand personality and build the relationship with the audience. Supporting this statement, Whiting and Williams (2013) declare that social media is a means of global communication.

Additional to the high audience reachable by e-communication, today many companies are going into social media because of their lower-cost alternatives. These attempts to reach new stakeholders allow organisations to engage directly with stakeholders. As a consequence of this revolution, some companies now only exist online, which makes relevant the online appearance, as it is the main feature used to influence the stakeholders’ minds (Nguyen et al., 2015). Therefore, it is necessary for companies to know how to display their online appearance allowing a positive response from their audience, and also understanding which corporate elements are involved. Social media also allows the chief decision maker in the organisation to grasp the prevailing mood of the public (Cadogan and Diamantopoulos, 1995; Narver and Slater, 1990; Yan, 2011).

**Conceptual Framework**

This framework evaluates the relationships between the research constructs, by interlink concepts and ameliorate the understanding of such (Jabreen, 2009). In this research the concepts that support or articulate together are: corporate logo, corporate name, typeface, e-communication, corporate image.
and corporate reputation (Figure 2.5). e-Communication (e-C) and corporate logo (CL) are the focal construct of this research, CL being a significant item influencing corporate e-communications. Corporate name and typeface are the dimensions that build corporate logo. Corporate image and corporate reputation are presented as constructs affected by e-communication (Figure 1).

Different Authors (Foroudi et al., 2014; Henderson, Giese, and Cote, 2004) state that corporate logo and typeface are related. The typeface has high importance as stakeholders form opinions from this, and which in turn influences the stakeholder’s the impression of and reaction to the corporate logo. It can further be said that the company logo creates a reaction within the stakeholder to the corporate name (Foroudi et al., 2014). The corporate logo strongly influences the corporate image (Balmer and Gray, 2000; Dowling, 1994; Fombrun and Van Riel, 2004; Muller et al., 2011; Olins, 1989; Van den Bosch et al., 2005; Van der Lans et al., 2009).

The communication creates impressions and as a result images are being formed (Melewar, 2003). Therefore, Image is built through social networking, as social media is a digital communication channel (Gilpin, 2010). Additionally, corporate image affects corporate reputation, because a stakeholder instantly forms a picture of the company which affects and builds on the corporate image and reputation. Consequently, multiple images enhance the overall evaluation of consumers, which is defined as corporate reputation (Balmer, 1998; DeChernatony, 1999, 2001; Fombrun, 1996; Fombrun and Shanley, 1990; Foroudi et al., 2014; Gray and Balmer, 1998; Gotsi and Wilson, 2001; Herbig and Milewics, 1994). Overall this research wishes to show that e-communication and corporate logo have a strong relationship.

**Modelling Testing**

The study followed a deductive approach, which is defined as a testing process that starts with a general approach and then an investigation into individual responses in order to discover whether the theory is true of specific instances. This approach most commonly adopts quantitative research (Hyde, 2000). Taking into account that this research seeks precision and the development of reliable statements about consumer opinions based on facts, a quantitative research methodology has been used. And it is also based on existing literature that will be apply to a specific market.

The data collection phase was conducted in Colombia, as this country is part of the emerging countries listed last year with a total score of 48.93 and an average GDP growth of 4.58% between 2014 and 2015 (figure 3.1). The company designated was a shopping mall named Arrecife Shopping Centre. As this study aims to investigate customer experience across the whole country, the company’s location will provide customer perceptions from different parts of Colombia. Additionally, the application of an online survey will contribute to this goal.

![Figure 1 Conceptual Framework – Developed by the researcher](image-url)
Quantitative research was based on online and face-to-face surveys from a sample of 428 respondents. For the purpose of this research a structured questionnaire with multiple choice questions was designed. Multiple choice questions allow the researcher to have a large sample population, formulate more reliable facts and also obtain specific information from the respondents (Malhotra et al., 2012). 28 surveys were used at the shopping mall, as the study seeks to know how many of the visitors have experienced the organisation logo through the organisation’s e-communication. 400 participants contributed to the online surveys, all of whom are followers of the shopping social networking platforms (Facebook and Twitter). The sample size used in this study was 428 participants. 400 surveys were applied online and 28 at the shopping mall to evaluate the company’s social media awareness from the mall visitors. The survey was posted on the organisation Facebook page, as the participants needed to have interaction with the company’s e-communication to be able to answer the questionnaire. The survey’s target was broad, as the participants needed to be online consumers, Spanish speakers and men and women. Measurement items from previous studies were checked by the researcher for validity and reliability of the questionnaire. The following table illustrates the scale items per constructs selected to assess the hypotheses stated in this research. It also shows the source of each item.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Scale Items</th>
<th>Sources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Corporate name</strong></td>
<td>The company's name is easy to remember</td>
<td>Chan and Huang (1997), Collins (1977), Klink (2003), Kotler and Armstrong (1997), McCarthy and Perreault (1987), Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The company's name is unique versus the competition</td>
<td>Chan and Huang (1997), Collins (1977), Klink (2003), Kotler and Armstrong (1997), McCarthy and Perreault (1987), Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The company's name is always timely (does not get out of date)</td>
<td>Chan and Huang (1997), Collins (1977), Kotler and Armstrong (1997), McCarthy and Perreault (1987), Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The company's name communicates news about the company and the product's benefits and qualities</td>
<td>Collins (1977), Klink (2003), Kotler and Armstrong (1997)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The company's name is short and simple</td>
<td>Chan and Huang (1997), Collins (1977), Klink (2003), Kotler and Armstrong (1997), Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The company's name is promotable and advertised</td>
<td>Chan and Huang (1997), Collins (1977), Kotler and Armstrong (1997), Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The company's name is pleasing when read</td>
<td>Chan and Huang (1997), Collins (1977), Klink (2003), Kotler and Armstrong (1997), Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typeface</td>
<td>or heard and easy to pronounce</td>
<td>McCarthy and Perreault (1987), Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
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<tr>
<td>The company's name is recognizable</td>
<td>McCarthy and Perreault (1987), Kohli et al. (2002) Klink (2003), Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
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<tr>
<td>The company's name is easy to recall I like the company name</td>
<td>Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
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<tr>
<th>Corporate Logo</th>
<th>The company's typeface is attractive</th>
<th>Henderson et al. (2004), Foroudi et al. (2014)</th>
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<tr>
<td>The company's typeface is interesting</td>
<td>Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
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<tr>
<td>The company's typeface is artistic</td>
<td>Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The company's typeface is potent</td>
<td>Childers and Jass (2002), Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>The company's typeface is honest</td>
<td>Henderson et al. (2004), Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The company's typeface communicates with me when the logo is simply not feasible</td>
<td>Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The company's typeface is immediately readable The company's typeface makes me have positive feelings toward the company</td>
<td>Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The company logo is appropriate</td>
<td>Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The company logo is familiar</td>
<td>Kapferer (1992), Stuart (1997), Pilditch (1970), Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
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<tr>
<td>The company logo evokes positive effect The company logo makes me have positive feelings toward the company</td>
<td>Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
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<tr>
<td>The company logo is distinctive</td>
<td>Ajala (1991), Cutlip and Center (1982), Henderson and Cote (1998), Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Corporate e-communication</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The company logo is attractive</td>
<td>Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The company logo is meaningful</td>
<td>Henderson and Cote (1998), Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
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<tr>
<td>The company logo is visible</td>
<td>Fombrun and Van Riel (2004), Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
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<tr>
<td>The company logo is high quality</td>
<td>Henderson and Cote (1998), Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The company logo is interesting</td>
<td>Henderson and Cote (1998), Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>I like the company logo</td>
<td>Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The sites (Facebook and Twitter) have an attractive appearance</td>
<td>Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The sites (Facebook and Twitter) provide accurate information</td>
<td>Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The sites (Facebook and Twitter) provide relevant information.</td>
<td>Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The sites (Facebook and Twitter) provide timely information.</td>
<td>Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The sites (Facebook and Twitter) provide easy to understand information.</td>
<td>Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The sites (Facebook and Twitter) provide information at the right level of detail</td>
<td>Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
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<tr>
<td>The sites (Facebook and Twitter) present the information in an appropriate format.</td>
<td>Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The sites (Facebook and Twitter) provide appropriate security measures.</td>
<td>Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The sites (Facebook and Twitter) make it easy and convenient to make purchases.</td>
<td>Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The sites (Facebook and Twitter) provide</td>
<td>Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate Image</td>
<td>believable information</td>
<td>The sites (Facebook and Twitter) provide appropriate company information.</td>
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<td>-----------------</td>
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<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>The sites (Facebook and Twitter) provide customer service information.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>The sites (Facebook and Twitter) have a design appropriate to the type of site.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I like the company compared to other companies in the same sector</td>
<td>Williams and Moffitt (1997), Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I think other consumers like the company as well</td>
<td>Williams and Moffitt (1997), Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The company's logo communicates information about the company to its customers</td>
<td>Henderson and Cote (1998), Pilditch (1970), Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The company's logo enhances the company's image</td>
<td>Brachel, 1999, Henderson and Cote (1998), Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate Reputation</td>
<td>I have a good feeling about the company</td>
<td>Chun (2005), Fombrun et al. (2000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I admire and respect the company</td>
<td>Chun (2005), Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I trust the company</td>
<td>Chun (2005), Fombrun et al. (2000), Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The company offers products and services that are good value for money</td>
<td>Chun (2005), Helm (2007), Fombrun et al. (2000), Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The company has excellent leadership</td>
<td>Helm (2007), Fombrun et al. (2000), Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The company is a well-managed</td>
<td>Chun (2005), Fombrun et al. (2000), Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The company is an environmentally responsible company</td>
<td>Chun (2005), Helm (2007), Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I believe the company offers high quality services and products</td>
<td>Chun (2005), Helm (2007), Foroudi et al. (2014)</td>
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</table>

Source: The researcher
Discussion
This article contributes to explain how corporate e-communication interlinks with corporate constructs. Based on previous studies, a new conceptual framework was built. Models based on corporate logo and corporate image relationship was used to develop a new structure, where corporate e-communication takes place as a main factor. This study reaffirms that corporate name and typeface are sub-constructs of corporate logo and also the close relationship with corporate image and reputation. Moreover, this study suggests that the corporate logo perception held by consumers and corporate reputation influences the consumer’s attitude or response within corporate e-communication. Therefore, the way stakeholders react to corporate e-communication is determined by corporate logo impression and also the firm’s reputation. Arrecife Shopping Centre recalled the importance of having a good corporate logo to develop a positive reputation, this statement is based on the positive relationship between these two constructs shown in the data collection analyses.

Additionally, this research suggests that corporate e-communication plays a main role in the construction of corporate image which affects corporate reputation. Hence, this study states that corporate logo and its sub-constructs are the antecedent dimension which will affect the way stakeholders interact with corporate e-communication. And corporate image and corporate reputation are the consequences of the relationship between the antecedent dimensions. In other words, an organisation image and reputation is generated by the interaction of its corporate name, typeface and corporate logo with its corporate e-communication.

Additional to the theoretical contribution stated belong the data results which provide managerial contributions for the retail market, concerning the use of corporate e-communication to obtain a favourable corporate image by the right display of corporate logo through corporate e-communication. Moreover, it offers validated information which helps to understand the corporate e-communication role in retail and also how the Colombian market responds to it. The data analysis provides clear information about how consumers engage easily on the corporate e-communication channels (Facebook and Twitter) when the corporate logo is attractive to them. 83% of the respondents have engaged with the company’s e-communication channels and 54.8% of them like the logo. Talking about Arrecife’s corporate logo, the sample shows that even though a logo is recognisable it could not be memorable in the consumer’s mind, since, the survey shows that 55% of the respondents said that the logo is recognisable and only 33% believe that it is memorable.

Moreover, the finding illustrates that credible information is interlinked with the company credibility, as 42.3% of the respondents believe that the information shown on the website is credible and 50% of them think that they can trust the company. Taking into account that the surveys were applied online, it is possible to state that the way the corporate logo is displayed on corporate e-communication channels, such as: Facebook and Twitter, has a strong relationship with consumer perception toward corporate logo. This fact is shown in the results, when 46.3% of the respondents strongly agreed and another 40.5% agreed that Arrecife’s logo (online version) transmits information about the company. Overall the survey demonstrated a high level of company awareness and engagement in the organisation’s e-communication platforms (Facebook and Twitter).

In conclusion, this study found as the most important outcome the influence of corporate logo on corporate e-communication. Therefore, the data analysis fully supports the constructs relationship illustrated in the framework and the hypothesis mentioned in chapter II. The quantitative researches show the strong correlation between each theoretical construct, therefore it was concluded that each constructs have a strong influence on corporate e-communication and the way consumers react on its platforms.

Limitations and Future Research
This study tested the relationship between corporate name, typeface, corporate logo, corporate e-communication, corporate image and reputation in Colombian consumers; taking corporate e-communication as the main construct. The study divided the constructs into two categories, antecedents, corporate name, typeface and corporate logo, as they influence the way consumers
react to the corporate e-communication channels, and consequently, corporate image and reputation, as they will be affected by the way companies display their content on the e-communication channels. Despite the fact that the research objectives were reached in this study, the study faced some limitations.

The main limitation faced was the demographic, as this study was conducted in a single location and applied to one company. The findings may be different if the research had been carried out in a multiple location and different retail companies. Based on this, the researcher suggests for future research a multi-case study approach which should be attempted in an emerging country (e.g. Colombia) and a developing country (e.g. UK). This approach will provide a global understanding about how those constructs influence each other, and also will provide an in depth managerial implication to the retail market, which will be able to improve their corporate e-communication practices based on an international comparison.

Another limitation faced was the theoretical constructs selection, as the antecedents constructs was limited by corporate name, typeface and corporate logo. Although, these dimensions provide an accurate result for the objective stated on this research, the results could provide a deeper understanding of the research questions. Therefore, future research should include more corporate constructs on the antecedents dimensions to identify which corporate logo sub-constructs have more influence on corporate e-communication. This research sought to contribute early insights about corporate e-communication in Latin American markets. Accordingly, this research should be taken as a foundation for future studies in the same field with a broad study scale. In addition, a constructs research expansion was advised for further investigations.

References


Old Dog, New Tricks: The Imperative Challenge of CSR

Cristina Fona, TC Melewar, Charles Dennis and Keith Dinnie

Abstract

Political Awareness In the 21st century more than ever before organisations acknowledge the need to be perceived as respectable and socially responsible (Morsing, Schultz and Nielsen, 2008). Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) is one of the most compelling areas in communication and marketing, which has been widely investigated in the last two decades by academic, business and non-business press (Podnar, 2008; Malik, 2015), widely used by businesses as a form of marketing communications (cynically or otherwise) (Dennis and Harris, 2005). If consumers have raised their social expectations (Dawkins and Lewis, 2003), companies on the other hand have dramatically increased their investments in CSR (Malik, 2015). According to a study of KPMG, 95% of the 250 largest companies in the world have adopted a CSR strategy (KPMG, 2011). While multinationals lead the way, SMEs seem likewise “motivated, challenged and engaged in CSR issues in many different ways” (Morsing and Perrini, 2009, p.19).

Although widely discussed and adopted, many authors have highlighted the inadequacy and complexity of the concept (De Bakker, Groenewegen and den Hond, 2005; Sweeney and Coughlan, 2008; Frynas and Stephens, 2015), often described as ambiguous due to its numerous definitions (Podnar, 2008). This has led to a proliferation of new terms (e.g. corporate sustainability, corporate social rectitude, corporate social performance...), more or less original (Carroll, 1979; Varadarajan and Menon, 1988; Wood, 1991), but also different approaches and theories (stakeholder theory, triple bottom line approach...), equally controversial, complex and unclear (Garriga and Mélé, 2004). This is also due to the fact that the interpretation of CSR is predominantly contextual. It is often difficult, hence, to identify an unequivocal and universal answer unattached to personal or political interests (Argandonà and Hoivik, 2010).

“The old claim that CSR “means something, but not always the same thing to everybody” (Votaw, 1972, p.25) is no less true today” (Geva, 2008, p.57). What has changed compared to 1953, when Bowen first introduced the idea of a social responsibility of business (Bowen, 1953), is the advancement of a strong public awareness and a firm ‘ethical demand’, that academia is often unable to embrace due to the theoretical fuzziness. According to van Marrewijk (2003) the above-mentioned situation has created many difficulties for business executives, leaving them with more questions than answers. It is time that scholars give their contribution, overcoming the gap and developing a solid integrated vision that synthesises this complexity. This means not only addressing the definitional issue, but also revitalising the entire conceptual and philosophical background, to identify and then address actual challenges such as the so-called discretionary (when is business responsible), relativity (how is business responsible) and stakeholder (to whom is business responsible) issues.

This paper contributes to knowledge facing this imperative challenge. Unlike the majority of authors who tried to answer those questions through the development of alternative concepts, indeed, this study aims to demonstrate how and why an old dog can and should learn new tricks. It overcomes the semantic constraints, strengthening the existent concept of CSR and providing theoretical, conceptual and sociolinguistic justifications for its use. Opting for a rationalisation and consolidation of the terminology, it highlights, therefore, the role of academics, in fostering the profusion of language and concepts in a specific sector, as already posited by Waddock (2004). Academia would be, thus, able to offer a unanimous answer to practitioners, which rejects the ‘hypocritical window dressing’ and embraces a ‘shared value approach’ (Schütte, 2011).
Moreover, this research identifies a specific framework that underlies corporate social responsibility, called ‘ecology of human development’, which combines evolutionary and ecosystems theories. Until recently, indeed, most of the debate has “...been conducted in terms of the contribution to business success- so its legitimacy is couched in terms of shareholder interests, which has detracted from the imperative for ethical justification of business practices” (Baden and Harwood, 2013, p.616). Through the ‘ecology of human development’ the researcher aims to reverse this viewpoint, supporting the ethical challenge of CSR or rather the contention that it should “focus more on the human causes and outcomes of sustainable/unsustainable behaviour, rather than organizational drivers” (Lawrence, 2010; Ghobadian, Money and Hillebrand, 2015, p.273).

Although the study seeks to enhance the universals of the social responsibility concept, some limitations should be noted linked to linguistic as well as cultural restraints. Furthermore, being a conceptual level paper, the term and the new framework need to be assessed through a future qualitative and quantitative stage, to ensure validity and reliability. Finally, the paper takes primarily a practitioner’s viewpoint, to enhance the understanding and management of corporate social responsibility strategies. Further studies should analyse the impact and consequences of this framework on consumers.

By providing a relevant review of the literature concerning the relationship between business and society, this research clearly highlights how CSR has remained for centuries a latent idea discussed by academics and practitioners. The same need of interconnectedness expressed by the Greek philosophers Plato and Aristotle and highlighted by Drucker and Bowen, fathers of the CSR concept, still represents the real crux of the matter. Following Bowen’s idea that business, “like government, is basically of the people, by the people and for the people” (Bowen, 1954, p.5), the study, thus, treasures the heritage of the past literature to illuminate the future of a responsible business and ethical communication.

**Keywords:** corporate social responsibility, communication and marketing

**References**


Session E4: Branding and Communication

*The Power of Blogging: Have Fashion Bloggers Become The ‘New’ Brand Ambassadors?*
Ioanna Papasolomou and Yioula Melanthiou

*An Investigation into the Impact of Corporate Rebranding Upon Corporate Performance in a Bottom of Pyramid (BOP) Context: A Case Study for Telecom Industry in Bangladesh*
Mohammad Uddin Choudhury, TC Melewar and Zhongqi Jin

*The Role of NFC (Near Field Communication) in Building Brand Equity*
Kaniz Batul, TC Melewar and Charles Dennis
The Power of Blogging: Have Fashion Bloggers become the ‘New’ Brand Ambassadors?

Ioanna Papasolomou and Yioula Melanthiou

Abstract
Marketers are living in exciting times. Over the past few years they have witnessed a dramatic shift in the way people in general and consumers in particular communicate. Today, about a billion people have internet access which enables them to create and share information with others instantly around the world. Never before, people have been able to access others or information so quickly and completely. Consumers have realised and subsequently have demanded to participate in two-way communication rather than the traditional one way communication loop where information is pushed from sellers to the final users through the use of primarily advertising and other promotional messages. Consumers seek out and obtain information when they are ready. They have become part of a mutually beneficial community that includes them and the marketers in roles that need to be founded on trust, respect and mutual understanding. Both consumers and marketers have evolved into partners in creating brand awareness and building brand value. Marketers need to identify and understand the importance of a two-way brand relationship founded on the utilisation of both traditional and new media channels.

This new perspective needs to be founded on marketing strategies that use the fundamentals of the public relations (PR) discipline in innovative ways, fostering interaction and open two-way communication between businesses, brands, consumers, and the media. PR is defined as the firm’s efforts to build good relations with its publics by obtaining favourable publicity, building up a good “corporate image”, and handling or heading off unfavourable rumors, stories or events (Armstrong and Kotler 2009). PR more than any other promotional tool focuses on building and sustaining mutually beneficial relationships not only between a business and its customers but between a business and all its internal and external publics.

In the context of this digital new era, it is clear that social media plays a pivotal role for business. Social media users comprise of over 29% of the global population and it is estimated to reach one-third of the world’s population likely by the end of 2015 (Kemp, 2015). This rise in social media has given way to users or consumers to share their views about products (Lipsman et al., 2012) and even carry out their discussions online about products, brands and companies (Kietzmann, et al., 2011). Over the last few years a number of marketing tools that share similarities with PR have emerged under the label ‘consumer generated marketing’ (CGM). Under CGM, consumers create marketing messages and other brand exchanges themselves (Armstrong and Kotler 2009). These messages are generally referred to as word-of-mouth and buzz. Both PR and CGM require the marketer to hand over the promotional messages to an intermediary in order to reach the ultimate consumer is the very essence of Marketing Public Relations (MPR). MPR is defined as an effort or campaign which is designed to improve, maintain, or protect the sales or image of a product by encouraging intermediaries to voluntarily deliver a message about the firm, product or brand to their audience of businesses or consumers (Giannini, 2010). These intermediaries can be bloggers who are in essence non media connectors who spread the word about brands of all kinds to others through the use of social media. While celebrity endorsement has been recognised for some time now as a potentially potent tool in communications, with celebrities viewed as more powerful than anonymous models and campaigns (Carroll, 2009), it is these new intermediaries that seem to be the most influential today.

Blogging emerged in the second half of the 1990s and was initially used to provide a unique way for people to share their
thoughts, feelings, experiences, and opinions. Blogs allow users to share their ideas and thoughts over which other people can comment (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). However, today both businesses and individuals are utilizing blogging (in addition to other digital reach methods) to enhance their digital presence and inevitably increase their ‘connections’, promote word-of-mouth communication, create awareness and interests for their brands and subsequently generate sales. In today’s internet-based society, businesses have to have a powerful online presence in order to stand out among their competitors. To this end they can create their own blogs or collaborate with bloggers who voluntarily transmit promotional messages from businesses to potential customers. Giannini (2010) claims that non-media connectors (NMC) have existed for as long as marketing itself. But who are these “non-media connectors”? Non-media connectors are active in a given industry or a given brand. They are usually professionals or simply consumers with a passion for a brand, product or business. Veronika Heilbrunner, Chiara Ferragni, Leandra Medine, Helena Bordon, Elena Perminova, Miroslava Duma, Alexa Chung, Poppy Delevingne, Matthew Zorpas are some of the most influential fashion and lifestyle bloggers today with thousands or even millions of followers often featured in fashion and lifestyle magazines such as Hello, Elle, Vogue and Harper’s Bazaar.

These fashion and lifestyle bloggers are increasingly shaping the consumers’ brand choices. Their personal interests, brand choices, opinions and shared experiences have elevated them into opinion leaders with a strong influence on their devoted followers. These people who in essence act as intermediaries for the marketing message appear not to have a stake in the success or failure of the products and brands that they support. As a result their message evokes credibility and is perceived to be trustworthy. Increasingly, the fashion industry is using fashion bloggers as their brand ambassadors.

The purpose of this research is to examine the use, appropriateness and potential effectiveness of bloggers as brand ambassadors for fashion brands during this social media hype era. The paper draws upon marketing literature to formulate a set of research questions which are then investigated qualitatively but gathering, studying and analysing various fashion blog comments posted by users. It is envisaged that the results may provide interesting insights not only as a theoretical contribution to the areas of branding, fashion marketing, and communications, but also as practical contributions for brand marketers and professionals.

**Keywords:** blogging, brand ambassadors, fashion, social media, marketing communications

**References**
An Investigation into the Impact of Corporate Rebranding Upon Corporate Performance in a Bottom of Pyramid (BOP) Context: A Case Study for Telecom Industry in Bangladesh

Mohammad Uddin Choudhury, TC Melewar and Zhongqi Jin

Relationship of the proposed research to previous work
In an increasingly competitive business world, survival and success depends on the aptitude to evolve gradually to meet new challenges that arise (Dubey and George, 2012). Some organizations elect to go much further and see corporate rebranding (CR) as the best way to remain competitive (Tevi and Otubanjo, 2013). Corporate rebranding is usually expressed by a change of name, logo or even changes to the company’s slogan. But in this modern business world it is not simply a tactical change in name or logo (Kay, 2006). It is an important marketing strategy decision of the corporation undertaken as a result of a change in the customer or employee base, new products and services or a revisited strategic position and value proposition (Cettier and Schmitt, 2008). Sometimes corporations can perform re-branding for its international development and shift in emphasis from one business line to another (Melewar, Hussey and Srivoravilai, 2005). Numerous prominent companies have rebranded themselves, such as Philip Morris, British Steel, Andersen Consulting, PepsiCo, ExxonMobil and SciFi Channel, etc. (Dubey and George 2012, Male, 2010, McCarthy, 2008). Cettier and Schmit (cited above) in their study revealed that half of all rebranding activities were successful in the periods from 1995 to 2004. However, most of the recent corporate re-branding was unsuccessful (Male, 2010).

So, it is clear that corporate re-branding entails risk (Bravo, Montaner and Pina, 2009). That means the new brand may fail to attract new customers and potentially alienate existing ones. Despite the entailed risk corporations are involved in rebranding activities with the hope of better corporate performance. In line with developed countries, many corporations of developing nations have also rebranded themselves within the last decade (Machado, et. al., 2012). In a small developing country, Bangladesh, five companies out of six in the telecom industries observed corporate rebranding in recent times. Rebranding has also been observed in other industries as well. The recent corporate rebranding in Bangladesh influences the researcher to undertake this study.

Rationale for this research
Previous research related to branding revealed that the consumers of developing countries, also known as Bottom of the Pyramid (BOP) customers, are not concerned about branding and corporate identity (Dubey and George, 2012). However, companies (MNC’s and Local) operating at BOP level are focusing on branding and re-branding activities to create a unique corporate identity (Machado et. al, 2012). The vast literature on brand management has largely ignored corporate rebranding, and few researchers have acknowledged the importance of corporate rebranding and its entailed complexity and risk (Tevi and Otubanjo, 2013).

In the available literature on corporate rebranding, researchers have mainly focused on developed countries and world-renowned companies (Bravo, Montaner and Pina, 2009). However, few studies are available in relation to developing countries (Machado, et. al., 2012), and as to my knowledge no study has been conducted in the context of Bangladesh. Furthermore, the reasons to rebrand can come from changing external conditions, weaker competitive positions, changing ownership structures, and/or changes in corporate strategy (Hankinson and Lomax, 2006; Muzellec and Lambkin, 2006). All these factors are related to organizational perspective. One of the possible reasons for recent rebranding in the telecoms industry in Bangladesh.
Bangladesh can be attributed to changes of ownership structure. This raises an important research question as to whether costly rebranding activities, only for changes of ownership structure, are helping companies to improve corporate performance in a BOP context or not. This empirical investigation will help to develop a new theory regarding driving forces for rebranding and subsequent corporate performance in the context of a developing country. It has yet to be identified which factors influence the company to be rebranded, though they are operating at BOP level and what are the driving forces for success and failure of rebranding activities in a BOP context. Therefore, the researcher is interested to explore the organizational perspective of rebranding for the telecoms industry in Bangladesh which will contribute to the literature by developing a comprehensive framework for rebranding at BOP context.

Research Objectives and Questions

Objectives

- To present a conceptual and empirical analysis of corporate rebranding in the telecoms industry in Bangladesh.
- To explore the impact of corporate rebranding upon company performance in telecommunications companies.
- To find out the critical factors for success or failure of rebranding in a Bottom of Pyramid context.

Research Questions

i) Are the main reasons for corporate rebranding in telecom industry in Bangladesh different from developed countries?

ii) Is there any long-term impact of corporate rebranding upon corporate performance for the organizations operating in the telecom industry in a country of BOP consumers?

iii) What were the critical factors behind the success and failure of corporate rebranding in BOP level?

Methodology

Glaser (1992), defines methodology as the theory of methods, and gives an insight to the audience to gain a better understanding of past research and to give a basic idea on how to proceed in the future (Gammelgaard, 2004). In the 20th century, qualitative research has not received widespread use and acceptance. However, today the use of qualitative research has increased as a result of inefficiencies in quantitative research. The aim of qualitative or interpretive studies is to reveal subjectivity, complexities, nuances, uniqueness and details that are usually ignored in quantitative studies (Klein and Myers, 1999; Mason, 2002). At the same time, qualitative results frequently express verbally the interpretation of something into text which could create an understanding of relationships or complex interactions.

Research Strategy: Case Study

This research adopts a case study strategy for the study. Eisenhardt (1989) stresses that, “the case study is a research strategy which focuses on understanding the dynamics present within a single setting”. It has been proven from past research that case studies can be used in both qualitative and quantitative research (Yin, 2009; Yin, 1994; Eisenhardt, 1989; Ellram, 1998). Case studies are often recommended for exploratory and theory building research (Eisenhardt, 1989; Handfield and Melnyk, 1998; Yin, 2009). Yin (2009), explains that a “case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomena in-depth and within its real life context, especially when the boundaries between the phenomena and the context are not clearly evident”. Therefore, the use of case study strategy in understanding the rebranding and corporate performance relationship in the Bangladeshi telecom industry context is justified.

Regarding the number of cases in a case study, there is also an overlapping argument whether to use single or multiple cases. This actually relates with what generalisations can be drawn from case studies. Both Eisenhardt (1989) and Yin (1994) suggest that one or many cases can be included in a case study.
Yin (1994) and Irani et al. (2008), for example, claim that there is nothing wrong in using one case in case study research because “one can often generalise on the basis of a single case” (Flyvbjerg, 2006). Other researchers, such as Ellram (1996), claim that a single case is used to “test a well formulated theory, an extreme or “unique case”, or a case which represents a previously inaccessible phenomenon”. However, in this research, the researcher believes it to be beneficial to have multiple cases in order to gain rich data about the rebranding and corporate performance relationship for theory building and replication purposes (Eisenhardt, 1989; Miles and Huberman, 1994 and Yin, 2009).

It is significant to note that in order to perform qualitative case study research it should be guided by case study protocol as suggested by past researchers (Eisenhardt, 1989; Rowley, 2002; Yin, 1994). This protocol needs to include an overview of the project, field procedures and case study questions (Rowley, 2002). The next section will discuss this in detail.

Case Study Protocol
Case study protocol is a set of guidelines for performing research which aims to summarise the constructs of the conceptual model (Eisenhardt, 1989). It has been identified as a key approach to increase the reliability of case study research and is intended to guide the researcher in carrying out data collection. Ellram (1996), in a similar argument, explains that description of the data collection in a thorough protocol will increase the reliability of the research project. For the purpose of this research, a well-established methodological guideline is adopted, as suggested by Eisenhardt (1989), Flynn et al. (1994), Meredith (1993), Voss (2003), and Yin (1994) in order to increase validity of the research findings. According to Eisenhardt (1989), case study protocol is divided into three phases. The researcher will follow these three steps in conducting this research. The first phase is known as getting started where, at this phase, it includes the process of selecting the case and crafting an instrument protocol. In phase two, known as entering the field, data collection, analysis of the data and shaping the propositions is completed. In phase three, which Eisenhardt (1989) named as ‘reaching closure’ phase, it represents the enfolding of the literature. In other words, at this stage, the researcher makes a comparison with conflicting literature and comparisons with similar literature. Also, at these phases, theoretical saturation will be reached when the researcher discovers that every respondent says the same thing and, at this stage, closure of the case study research is reached.

Data Analysis
Transcribing the Qualitative Data
In this research, before the data is analysed, the researcher firstly transcribed the data from the interview from the recording (Saunders et al., 2009). The interview is audio recorded and subsequently transcribed which reproduces a verbatim written (word processed) account. As claimed by Saunders et al. (2009), the transcribing process is about not only being interested in what participants said, but also the way they said it. In this research, the task of transcribing the data from recorded to written text took much time because not only the words but also the tone of what is said is transcribed; in addition the participant’s non-verbal communications are recalled. It needs to ensure that it can be linked to the contextual information that locates the interview.

Qualitative Data Analysis
It is recognised that all qualitative data analysis including case study should follow a general analytic strategy, which defines priorities for what to analyse and why (Yin, 2009). It is similar to what has been proposed by Miles and Huberman (1994) and Silverman (2005). It should be noted that a helpful starting point is to play with the data. Yin (2009) and Miles and Huberman (1994) set guidance in order to comprehensively describe and summarise the data from the fieldwork. They are, for example, to put the information in different groups; make a category and place the evidence within
categories; create data displays such as tabulate the frequency of different factors and see the relationship among factors. In this research, data analysis will begin with the case analysis and follow with cross-case analysis. Each of the findings will be explained properly. There are approximately 15 methods of analysing qualitative data and this research adopts qualitative content analysis or thematic analysis. It has been chosen as it could determine the effect of the findings through the development of the research proposition as a result from having reached saturation for every code.

**Qualitative Content Analysis**

Qualitative content analysis, also known as thematic analysis, is one of the popular methods in analysing qualitative data. It is an interpretation method for qualitative interviews (Kolbarcher, 2006; Zhang and Wildemuth, 2006) which involves activities like summarising raw data into categories or themes based on valid understanding and interpretation. This process uses inductive reasoning, by which themes and categories emerge from the data through the researcher’s careful analysis and continuous comparison. Also, importantly, this process should not exclude deductive reasoning, where a deductive thematic analytic approach is also useful in this process (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Patton, 2002). According to Hsieh and Shannon (2005), there are three approaches to qualitative content analysis, namely, conventional qualitative content analysis, directed content analysis and summative content analysis. However, in this research eight steps of qualitative content analysis (Zhang and Wildemuth, 2006) will be followed.

**Strategies and Techniques Use in the Qualitative Data Analysis**

This research will use two general strategies as proposed by Yin (2009): developing case description; and relying on theoretical proposition. Data analysis will be started with flowcharts or graphics to examine the data; a case-by-case analysis, also known as within case analysis. The cross-case analysis will also be performed where the researcher looks at the similarities and differences featured among the case. In highlighting the research findings in this thesis, the researcher also uses a case-ordered descriptive matrix in order to provide descriptive data from all the cases (Miles and Huberman, 1994). It should be explained, here, that the researcher will also use a case-ordered effect matrix to discuss the findings in each case and overall conclusion as suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994). Furthermore, as a result, the conclusion of each theme will be made for every case discussion.

**Tools in Analysing Qualitative Data**

Qualitative content analysis could be done manually and with the existence of computer software programs. As suggested by Bazeley (2002), the use of computer software in analysing qualitative data can increase the rigour. In the last decade, many researchers have mainly used manual thematic analysis in order to analyse qualitative data. However, at present with the development of information technology (IT), the use of computer software can be seen as a strategic tool that helps researchers to conduct analysis systematically. In this research, the researcher will use the NVivo 9 software in order to deal with the complexity of data as it functions as a strategic project management tool where all the interview data can be stored in one place, together with other sources, such as documents, observation notes and photographs taken during observation. At the same time, an analysis notes folder can be added and this, of course, will make the analysis process more organised, systematic and comfortable for the researcher when undertaking analysis, thus enabling the coding process to be performed more systematically, with data from coding easily derived through matrix coding tasks.
Conceptual Framework

As the case study method would be followed for this research, a conceptual framework has been developed and presented in the figure below (Figure 1). The developed conceptual model is a result of the discussions thus far, and will be validated during the empirical fieldwork. The figure shows that there are three main factors being explored in this research, namely, internal, external and outcome factors, with regard to rebranding at BOP level. Also, each of these factors consists of several sub-factors. The main outcome expected is a significant positive effect of rebranding on company profitability. Figure 1 also highlights “other factors”, as the researcher believes that other issues may come to light during the empirical work in consequence of the respondents wanting to share ideas during the interview sessions. This is because, as mentioned earlier, the research is based on BOP customers that might influence the relationship as claimed by previous researchers. Also, specifically, at the end of the interview, respondents will be asked whether there are any other matters they might want to share, and from this prompting, other factors may emerge.

Expected Outcomes

This research has been undertaken as a result of the inability of previous studies to provide a clearer understanding of the issue of rebranding and its success at BOP level. As discussed earlier, the internal and external factors have an important influence on the rebranding programme. However, it is expected that the factors which influence the companies to undergo rebranding could be different for developing countries, especially those with a BOP population. Therefore, this research will further explore the rebranding driver in order to enhance the current theory relating to rebranding practices. Additionally, the researcher expects that rebranding at BOP level will have a positive impact on company performance in the long run though the impact in the short run may be negative. As the research will be carried out specifically for the Bangladesh telecom industry, which is a developing country with BOP population, it is expected that the critical factors for success or failure would not be similar in regards to a developed country. Finally, other factors might emerge from the research which will help to explain the rebranding activities in the BOP market.
References


The Role of NFC (Near Field Communication) in Building Brand Equity

Kaniz Batul, TC Melewar and Charles Dennis

Abstract

Today the rapid development and adoption of information technologies is significantly changing the way business is done. The growing interest in electronic commerce to perform business transactions has brought vital improvements, especially in regards to contactless technologies. However, there exists a gap in the research field in technology and its effect/impact on brand management. Thus, the purpose of this paper is to explore the concept of brand equity from the customer’s perspective in the light of innovation and technology, and to consider NFC enabled contactless technology as a technology ‘brand’.

The proposed study underlines Keller’s CBBE (Customer Based Brand Equity) model and Aaker’s Model of Brand Equity as a theoretical base to study the concept of Brand Equity, and TAM to study NFC technology and link them to look into the customer experience effect/impact of the technology on Brand Equity.

The objective of this study is to motivate/encourage both users and providers of contactless technology (NFC) to be in place and thus create awareness and aid in promoting the technology to make life easier for everyone. In addition, the objective extends to promote and install the technology in some of the developing countries where it could be more meaningful and essential. However, the ultimate objective of the research is to come up with a Conceptual Model which will not only identify the sources of brand equity in regards to new innovation/technology but also show a link between technology and its effect on brand equity.

A mixed method will be used to undertake the research, using research instruments like survey questionnaires for the quantitative part and personal administered semi-structured interview questions for the qualitative part. A sample of 400 respondents will be recruited for the quantitative part which would include young university students, passengers in the London Underground and retail shoppers. For the qualitative part, a further 15 respondents will be recruited and will mainly include managers of financial institutions, retail managers and London Underground staff members who are not only in a management role but also are users of Contactless technology. Thus the qualitative study would comprise of management staff members who have a better understanding of NFC and the brand equity effect on their respective organization and how NFC is/could effect their company brand equity.

The research will be carried out in London, which is one of the most developed cities of the world where NFC is already implemented, and in Dhaka (Bangladesh) which is a major developing country where there is no contactless technology till date; thus portraying a picture of two extreme scenarios. NFC contactless cards are gradually gaining popularity in the UK, therefore a good place to start the research in order to analyse the market. However, in Bangladesh carrying cash is the most dangerous threat to life due to day to day robbery, hijack, and murder; this technology could therefore be a life saver if implemented accordingly. This study could be a great contribution to branding and marketing as no research has been carried out on NFC/Contactless technology in the field of marketing and branding so far.

Alternatively, the concept of brand equity is very important to management as it offers competitive advantage to an organization by reducing their marketing costs. The brand equity concept, in the light of contactless payment, could be of a great interest to financial institutions, retailers, fast food chains, the transport industry and anywhere
where payment facility is in existence. Past researchers have focused on exploring the concept rather than its sources and development. Thus, this research aims to investigate the sources of equity by adopting contactless technology, whilst at the same time portraying a deep insight into consumer behaviour towards this technology as a brand.