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Emotional Branding in Tourism

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Abstract
KEYWORDS: brand experience, loyalty, consumer behaviour in tourism, destination image.

This study deals with detailed assessment of consumer behaviour on decision making of tourists holiday destination. Research combines the concepts of destination loyalty and psychology of consumers in tourism, emphasizing influence of emotions on service evaluation. Our finds and conclusions point out to strong correlation between consumer's personality and their choice of tourism destination. Results obtained from the studies of such kind have the potentials to enhance the effects and efficiency of management in tourism, if focus on perceptions and motivations is considered in wider scope and on holistic way, enabling better understanding of consumers perspectives and behaviour in tourism generally.

Introduction

In modern branding, presence of any brand on the market is not as much important as its participation in the consciousness of (potential) consumer that provokes the question: How much is important any specific brand to the consumer? In terms of innovation, in this research paper we attached special attention to creation of experiences as a new kind of marketing approach targeted to create loyalty of consumers. Although modelling of demands in tourism is hard for definition, due to the fact that concept of tourism involves wide spectre of activities in destination, nevertheless question 'why people travel?' should be replaced with a question 'What factors influence consumers to choose one destination over another'?

The objective of this research paper is to find what reasons impact to tourists in process of choosing tourism destination. Since, there were no possibilities for provision the sample as large as necessary to enable definition of specific rules**;** we should concentrate to presentation of general correlation and connections of tourist's attitudes that prevail in process of decision making. As services are never in directly correlation with material benefits, but with emotions with regard to its consumption, therefore, lower level of conscious engagement would result in higher emotional engagement. If emotional correlation between brand name and consumer is established, the goal – loyalty (that in economic view, always stands for profit) - is achieved.

The emotional branding of tourism destinations: a literature review

The definition of a destination brand coined J. Ritchie and R. Ritchie (1998) as 'a name, symbol, logo, word, mark or other graphic that both identifies and differentiate destination; furthermore, it conveys the promise of a memorable travel experience that is uniquely associated with the destination; it also serves to consolidate and reinforce the recollection of pleasurable memories of the destination experience'. Cai (2002) further defines destination branding as selecting a consistent mix of brand elements in order to identify and distinguish a destination through positive image building. All of the definitions of a destination brand outlined above show that branding of the destinations enable the tourists to identify a destination and differentiate it from competitive offerings.

Destination branding involves the unique benefits that the tourists will experience while visiting the tourism destination rather than destination itself. The brand perceived by tourists would influence their behaviour including awareness, satisfaction, use, recommendation, trust and finally their loyalty. The new branding concept that emerged in the marketing world is emotional branding. The concept that applies to the process of emotional branding commit to four pillars: familiarity, sensory experiences, imagination and vision (Gobe, 2008). Clearly, the emotional connection between consumers and destination are the basis for future buying decisions. Feelings of personal safety and confidence which are projected on a specific destination have become synonymous with quality, and the destination alone become identity of the consumers lifestyle.

Emotional branding provides solutions not specifically related to the characteristics of the product/service but for consumers and their lifestyles. In tourism, the perceived quality is represented in experience contents those satisfy the needs for individualism and unique experience. What is significant about the use of sensory stimuli in marketing is bypassing the rational elements of products/services and address directly to emotions, because how stated (Bakic, 2009) people don't buy products, but the expected benefits.

Consumer behaviour of tourists towards destinations

Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) had pointed out that the quest for authentic experience is the main motivation for any consumption, including travel. Killion (1992) has defined the tourist experience continuing the work of Clawson as a model that consists of the following phases: planning, travel, residence, return and memories. Further investigations continued Johnson and Thomas introducing themes: the role of typologies of tourists, symbolic consumption, market segmentation, destination image and satisfaction. Uysal (1994) research in his works, consumer expectations, the behavior of individual tourists and those who use holiday packages and issues of cultural diversity. The dominant paradigm is in explaining and predicting consumer behavior based on information process.

To investigate how people receive, maintain and use information researches use techniques such as surveys, experiments and observations (Consumer Processing Model). As Miljevic (2006) stated effective use of information implies a clear perception of reality, since according to Newcomb's model of communication (as cited in Fiske, 1990, p.31) consumers tend to those sources of information that are consistent with their existing viewpoints. In this sense, they confirm the theory of selective perception and the view that the most likely effect of communication, including mass media, are going to reinforce existing opinions, attitudes and behavioral tendencies. When choosing a tourism destination there is a set of different destination alternatives considered during the decision-making process: evoked set, excluding, alternative, inaccessible, dreaming and known set of destinations (Decropp, 2006).

For research is the most complex and interesting affective decision-making process because it is holistic in nature (the decision is made on the basis of expected emotions and visualization of possible experiences, often based on recommendations). The recommendation is one way of sense-targeting the consumer by visualizing the destination through their personalities (the identification with a destination).

Although consumers generally are more esteeming the quality of tangible products, we should never neglect the product brand and lifestyle that is associated with (Gobe, 2008). Thus, two decades ago Sirgy (1982) concluded that consumers evaluate a product in relation to their personality, whereas the product image shares certain degree of similarity with the image of the individual. Malhotra (1988) presented the results where consumers are more guided by an ideal which they have of themselves than the actual situation, to which were later linked Hong and Zinkhan (1995) pointing out that it was the ideal of self-preference indicator of adopting a certain brand. Also, Daniel Miller (as cited in Erdei, 2008, p.47) has explained the essence of his concept of objectification on the following simple way: firstly people produce and classify objects, and then those the same, culturally classified and marked objects (such as those associated with the life style), produce and classify people who use or refuse them. Shimp and Saeed (as cited in Morgan et al, 2004, p.41) introduced the term Country equity referring to the emotional value that emerges as a result of consumer's associations for the brand destinations.

In addition to the many authors who have studied the phenomenon of loyalty, Oppermann (2000) notes that as many times as tourists visit a certain destination, it was more likely to come back again. Thus, the Denison and Knox (1992) concluded, in order to save time, the loyalty of tourists is rapidly increasing. This trend reflects the intention of revisit destination, i.e. the same which has proved its quality in the previous visit.

Methodology

The topic of this research is perception of tourist toward chosen tourism destination, the impact of communication marketing media and external stimuli that affect the process of selecting holiday destination. The significance of this research is reflecting in definition of stimuli that influence on tourists on different ways, depending on whether they first travel to Greece or many times before. Some testing were performed that approved the theory of satisfaction which says that satisfaction occurs in case when tourist expectations are prevailed by tourist experience, as well as experience of the highest level of satisfaction leads to revisit and recommendation to the others (Cronin and Taylor, 1992). Our study involved total 740 participants in Serbia (Belgrade, Novi Sad, Nis) which were under survey in period July /August 2009., in the course of their trip to Greece.

The questionnaire has had four parts: The first one, comprised volume of questions related to demographic characteristics of respondents (place where completed the payment of arrangement, age, and average income). The second volume of questions comprises such that reflect the image of destinations, or define the tourist's experience of Greece brand. The third volume comprised open questions that more involved the respondents into research and investigating their intentions and expectations regarding future choice of tourism destination. The last, fourth part is related to the organization of trips and length of stay.

Assuming Aaker, Kumar and Day (2008) that attitudes announce behaviour and it is easier to ask questions about attitudes than to observe and interpret the actual behaviour, data collection is used for measuring consumer attitudes, and scale (shown in Figure 1). The fact is that people do not make decisions on reality (with regard to tourism services cannot be seen before buying them) but on a personal perception of reality, hypotheses were tested:

H1 If the destination brand is a key factor of choice for the tourist's first visit, then experience in the destination is a key factor for destination loyalty.
H2 The highest level of satisfaction is not necessary for tourists to revisit tourism destination.

Empirical results

Contrary to the opinion presented by Hyde (2000) for tourists to first consider alternative routes, then the itinerary, and then the attractiveness of the destination and activities, our study gave the following results. The experience of Greece as the country's natural, historic beauty and friendly atmosphere clearly reflects the opinion of tourists that want to get in it feel 'at home' This issue is related to the scaling of the five given answers that are listed brand destinations (Figure 1). First pointed out the importance of these two factors are Ritchie and Zins (1978) who presented his research in the impact of social behavior of the local population on the attractiveness of tourism destinations. When tourists experienced a hostile atmosphere of the local population, in the same way they experienced and the destination. Further we can conclude that the natural beauty, although shown as the main driver for the trip, actually make the following element that fits into the picture type and brand personality to Greece and performances by Serbian tourists have of themselves (of its own brand and lifestyle) coincide to a large extent.The first is that in their research linked the personality of the consumer with a choice of routes is Plog (as cited in Richie et al, 1972, p.203). Contrary to claims by Cohen and Schmoll, who stated that experience and experience of destinations represent a minor factor in rebuilding the decision to return (Crouch, Perdue, Timmermans & Uysal, 2004), on the basis of these results, we see that the experience of destination, quality and value (prices) have a significant impact on the satisfaction of tourists.

Experience the quality of services was crucial for satisfaction, but not for the intention to come again, while the value of the destination experience had an impact on the intention to come again, and on the recommendation. In order to determine the points of interest like these two groups of consumers, it is analyzed the reasons especially tourists who for the first time to travel to Greece and loyal visitors. Dominant influence on final decision for the first visit to Greece belongs to recommendations, with a 32% share. Then there is the affordability of prices and recommendations of employees in a travel agency. If we summarize the recommendation of friends or relatives with the recommendation of staff within the agency shows that 45% of the formation of a final decision to organize the first visit to Greece, made the recommendations. The quality of accommodation and services is in the fourth and fifth place (Figure 2).

When analyzing the structure of reasons to travel to Greece loyal customers, we get the following results. The primary influence on determining the decision had cost advantage with a 28% share. The quality of accommodation and services is on the second and third with a total of 32%, while the fourth memories (past experience). The recommendation is on the fifth and sixth place with 11% and other causes (TV shows and commercials) have approximately the same impact in both cases (Figure 3). Although according to Aaker positive experience always creates loyal customers (Aaker, Kumar and Day, 2008) it was sufficient just to have their expectations in terms of accommodation and services quality met at a satisfactory level, i.e., to get exactly what they paid for value for money. The reason for visiting Greece prominent advantage of prices and therefore is a common factor in relevant reasons in the process of choosing travel destinations. If quoted Burkart (1984), who claims that the users manage packages benefits arising lower prices and are indifferent to the destination, it could be concluded that destination would not be the primary factor in the decision making process. Price, however, cited as the primary cause only after selecting the destination.

Conclusions and implications

Marketing is increasingly developing communications that reinforce key aspects of shopping: the experience and the experience of an individual to purchase a stunning adventure or emphasize the importance and focus on value for money.

A good marketing strategy begins with the emotions indicating that consumers have emotional benefits if they purchase product. Another important assumption is that the marketing strategies fit into the habits of consumers and provide the type of information that fit their lifestyle. When respondents are more related to satisfaction, what they got but the way they provided services and therefore, the level of satisfaction is not the right measure for determining loyalty. The most important result which confirmed the hypothesis is that the experience of destination attractiveness has a stronger impact on creating customer loyalty than satisfaction. And also the experience as a factor in creating customer satisfaction had the strongest impact. Therefore, the destination brand in terms of attractiveness, in terms of quality and respect the environment as a friendly atmosphere was a key factor in the election for the first visit, while the experience of destinations was a key factor for re-visiting. Destination organizations must therefore work to promote and build the brand through events organized by creating a special tourist experiences that remain in our memories, as well as training programs for employees and the local population since they represent a significant factor in the attractiveness of tourist destinations and affect its reputation. Loyal visitors are emotionally tied to the destination and looking for familiar surroundings for rest, while new visitors for the first visit is looking for new experiences. i.e. attractiveness, tourist experiences that remain in our memories. The research led to the conclusion that it was a combination of emotional connection to a destination and experience of its brand was decisive factor in the decision making process.

Limitations and future research suggestion

It should be noted that the study considered the visit destinations closer to where the recommendations, not price, was often crucial to the decision. The theory of satisfaction that occur when a tourist experience is beyond expectations, where the highest degree of satisfaction leads to re-visit and the recommendations, according to our research, is not fully proven. The results have both theoretical and practical application of topics such as expanding the attractiveness of tourism destinations, consumer behavior and their perception of the brand as a tourism destination and efficiency of methods of providing information. It is advisable to conduct research in a popular tourism destination in view of its members and as members of other nations in order to create the basic idea on which will be based national brand and enable the implementation of external benchmarking destination. Considering all these facts, a clear need for market research and discover the factors that influence the formation of consumers' perceptions and experiences with the specific tourism destinations, it will result in that direction and move on these factors and stimulants and their decisions based on the selection tourism destination and tourism product purchase.

Tables and figures

Figure 1 - Perception of Serbian tourists on Greece as a tourism destination

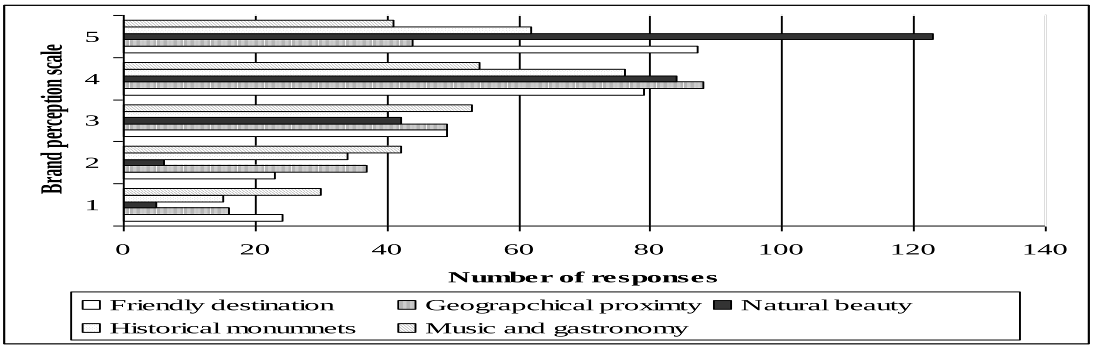


Figure 2 - Reasons of tourists for the first visit to Greece

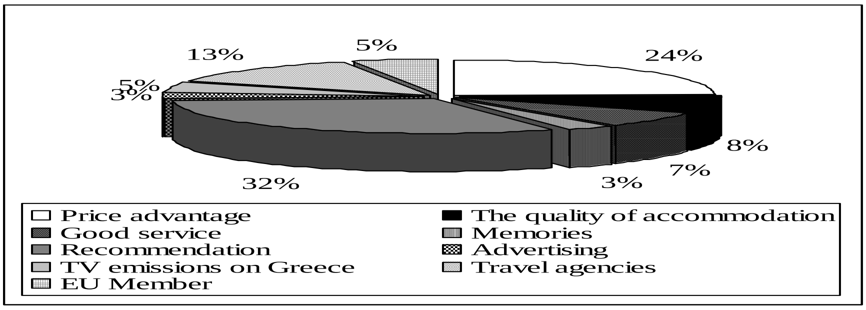
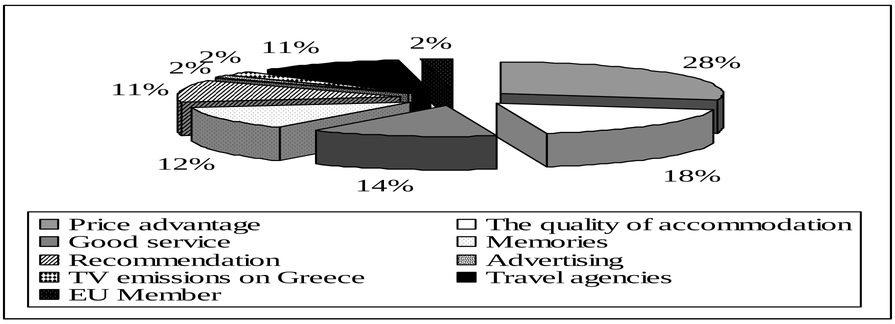


Figure 3- Reasons of loyal tourists to visit Greece



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Cognitive and Affective Evaluation in Forming Unique Destination Image Among Tourists Visiting Malacca

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Abstract

Since Melaka is positioned as Historical City inaugurated by UNESCO in 2008, the study suggests unique image as a new component of image associations. A number of overseas tourists were selected as samples . Results showed that unique image was significantly constructed and affected by cognitive and affective evaluations. Cognitive evaluation was significantly affected by the types of information source, while affective evaluation was affected significantly by social psychological motivations. The research proves that Melaka has fulfilled the requirements to differentiate the city as a unique tourist destination. The positioning of Melaka as truly Malaysia and World heritage should be translated into the rational benefit of encountering unspoiled historical side and multi-racial living cultures. Positive unique image creation leads to intention to revisit and recommend others experiencing the world heritage and history of Melaka.

Keywords *; Cognitive , Affective , Unique Image, Historical City , Revisit Intention.*

Malaysia's Global Halal Hub – "a huge opportunity to fail!"

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This is a purely qualitative-based research employing in-depth interviews, field observations and focus group discussions on the subject of *halal*. *Halal* is an Arabic term which means "permissible." In food, *halal* is defined as "food not made of, or containing parts of animal origin which Islamic law forbids." *Halal* covers the aspects of slaughtering, storage, display, preparation, hygiene and sanitation. In the Muslim-majority Malaysia, this concept is an absolute key to consumption. Marketers who intend to penetrate Malaysia's mass market must know the *halal*-status of their products.

Malaysia has incorporated Halal agenda in the past four Strategic Plans. In the current Ninth Malaysia Plan (covering the year 2006-2010), the Government has indicated that Malaysia will be developed as a center for the certification of *Halal* products. In addition, the Malaysia's *Halal* certification initiative handled by its Department of Islamic Development (or locally known as JAKIM) - a division under the purview of the Prime Minister's Department, has been tasked to promote this certification process worldwide.

During the tenure of the previous Prime Minister (Datuk Seri Abdullah Hj. Ahmad Badawi) the *halal* hub project appeared to complement well with the Prime Minister's effort to promote the concept of civilized Islam, also known as "Islam Hadhari." Malaysia which claims to be a model of a progressive and moderate Islamic nation was also the previous Chairman of the 57-nation Organization of Islamic Conference (OIC). This effort is being seen as a strategy to capitalize on Malaysia's high standing among the OIC countries.

In order to increase the awareness of Malaysia's *halal* initiatives among the international communities, the Ministry of International Trade and Industry has set-up branch offices abroad to facilitate the promotion of Malaysia's *halal* hub infrastructure. Kuala Lumpur also has successfully held *halal*-related conferences and exhibitions. One of them is the Malaysian International *Halal* Showcase which is regarded as the biggest *halal*-related exhibition worldwide. Malaysia's launch of the *Halal* Standards (M.S. 1500:2004) is another initiative to show to the world its commitment to make Malaysia the benchmark for *halal* certification. This standard was also adopted by the World Health Organization's *Codex Alimentarius*.

Despite the heavy investments to promote *halal* hub globally, Malaysia appeared to face many internal and external challenges which, if not address urgently, will represent a "huge opportunity to fail" in this effort.

Among the issues that need to be addressed include: the inconsistency of definition of *halal* on the aspect of slaughtering of animal; the difference in views involving consumption by different school of thoughts (madzhabs); the introduction of *halal* logo by individual firms; the promotion of the Islamic Manufacturing Practices (IMP) based on the concept of *Halalan Toyyiban* (*Halal* and Wholesome) which may confuse the public; the rampant display of Quranic scriptures and/or Arabic characters at restaurants and food-serving outlets (to indirectly signal that the premises offer *halal* foods); the use of Arabic-sounded or Islamic brand names such as the case of a toothpaste brand; the unavailability of *Halal* Act; the continuous changes in the role of JAKIM and Halal Development Council (HDC); and the lack of collaboration among the world's *halal*-certification authorities which could undermine the "market value" of *halal* among the consumers, especially the Muslims.

It appears that the *Halal* awareness in Malaysia continues to rise, not so much from the promotional efforts held by the authorities but more due to the media highlights over controversies on the misused of *halal* certification and logo. These cases involved the local as well as international food-processing companies, local and global fast-food franchise operators as well as local poultry and abbatoirs. One of the biggest blunders involved the IKEA furniture outlet's restaurant.

These cases demonstrate the challenges faced by the authority with regards to the enforcement. The lack of enforcement by the personnel of the Department of Islamic Development could be attributed to the inexistence of a law specific to the issues of *halal*. Currently, JAKIM has had to depend on the assistance from the Ministry of Domestic Trade & Consumer Affairs in monitoring this sort of cases. This is due to the fact that *halal* currently falls under the Ministry's Trade Description Act 1972 as a result, only the Ministry officials could act on the culprits. The lack of enforcement has apparently caused the public to question the validity on some of the products claiming to be *halal*.

Furthermore, there were reports that within the government bodies themselves, there seem to be lack of cooperation. The Department of Islamic Development sometimes fails to get assistance from the Ministry of Domestic Trade & Consumer Affairs which is seen to be "more authoritative." However the latter Ministry also has its own problems – those that not necessarily relate to *halal* products (e.g. fighting pirated VCD distribution, price fixing, false in-store promotions, trade smuggling activities, etc.) In general, JAKIM's personnel lacked "enforcement" characters. They are trained more as "religious advisors." Only with strict enforcement that *halal* logo will be seen more credible.

The speed of issuing *halal* logo is another challenge facing JAKIM. Currently JAKIM does not have a full-pledge research and development (or technical) unit which is able to process each *halal* application promptly. JAKIM or its state-subsidiary (note that each Malaysian state has its own Department of Religious Affairs) would need to get assistance from a third party to commission product testing and lab analysis as well as to perform an on-site inspection. The so-called third parties are usually food technologists, chemists or experts from the local universities.

Initially, the *halal* certification was only restricted to the products that were produced and packed in Malaysia. Products manufactured outside the country need to obtained certification from the Islamic bodies approved by JAKIM in order to be able to be recognized as *halal*. This guideline was apparently change once the Government (under the Prime Minister's Abdullah Badawi) in 2007 decided to transfer the halal certification task to the Halal Industry Development Corporation (HDC), a company incorporated under the Ministry of Finance to lead the development of the country's halal standards. HDC has been entrusted to direct and to coordinate the development of the industry and to facilitate the growth and participation of local companies in this arena. This new development would allow HDC to issue international certification for halal products in addition to national attestation. The first multinational company to benefit from this change in guidelines was Colgate Palmolive. The company, which is the market leader in toothpaste category, has been importing its toothpaste brands mainly from Thailand and China.
However, HDC's certification was later transferred back to JAKIM following the change in the country's leadership to the current Prime Minister, Datuk Seri Mohd Najib Tun Abdul Razak. This flip-flopping decision has somewhat undermine Malaysia's policy in this subject. Many manufacturers have become concerned over JAKIM's ability to handle the certification faster than before.

Halal can create a lot of opportunities for the government, the manufacturers, the marketers and the public in general. These opportunities however can only be realized if each party manages to identify the challenges facing them and find the most feasible ways to address those challenges. To the Muslim consumers, products which carry *halal* logo have more "meanings" and are more important than those carrying ISO, GMP, HACCP or similar certifications. *Halal* is "wholesome." Products that go through an authorized *halal* certification process thus carrying an authentic *halal* logo not only meet consumers' needs but also give them "peace of mind".

Birds of a Feather Consume Sports Together: The Role of Emotion, Family, and National Identity in Sports Fan Communities

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Research has shown that individual and communities of consumers can exhibit emotional and passionate ties to brands (Fournier 1998; Muniz and O'Guinn 2001). In this research we investigate these relationships in the realm with respect to sports team and player brands (Gladden and Funk 2002; Holt 1995). As such, fans perceive that they have relationships with either player (individual) brands, the team brand, or both. Our research questions are: How do people develop and sustain relationships with sports teams and/or players? How is one's identity connected to a team or player's identity or performance?

Method

To develop and illustrate our theory of the sports brand communities, we employed an exploratory research design, and collected primary data in the form of depth interviews and drew heavily from extant literature. We conducted 51 depth interviews of sports fans representing multiple countries-of-origin over a two-month period. The coauthors and 25 student collaborators (from two different private universities in two different geographic regions of the United States) identified in multiple ways: some were personal contacts of the interviewers, others were spectators at sporting events, and a few were identified through the Internet.

Informants were from a variety of race/ethnic groups, countries, and ages. Race/ethnic groups include Taiwanese, Mexican, Argentinean, Peruvian Brazilian, African-American, Hispanic, and Chinese. Respondents' countries-of-origin include Spain, Nigeria, Bolivia, Philippines, United Kingdom, Korea, Taiwan, China, Brazil, Argentina, Peru, Japan, and the United States. Those of non-American nationality either did not reside in the U.S. at the time of their interview or had only resided in the U.S. for a short period of time while attending college prior to their interview. The informants ranged in age from 12-58. Interpretations of emergent themes were derived directly from interview transcripts, interviewer notes, and the extant literature. The themes were independently developed by the co-authors, and while the labels differed, the interpretations overlapped. This consistency in the themes provides confidence in the "story" the data tell. The themes which emerged from our data were: Emotional Connection, Family Connection, and National Identity. Below, we present you with select quotes from our data within each of these emergent themes to give you an idea of the direction in which we plan to take our research. We will interweave the data with original texts from extant literature to make for a rich, interpretive description of the phenomena.

Emotional Connection (Crisp, et al. 2007; Kerr, et al. 2005 ; Wann, et al. 1994).

. . . you have to be very careful, because you are going to wear a jersey and . . . the guys . . . from the other team . . . are going to be like "you are from the other team so we are going to hit you" just because you're wearing the jersey.*36 year old, Brazilian Male*

[When I know that my team has won] I try to call the other teams' guy . . . and say so our teams played today and have you seen the score or anything? You know, try to make fun of the other guys . . . it is a moment thing, soccer for us. Like we watch the game then we talk about it, then it is over. Then we are waiting for the next game. But this making fun thing is pretty common in Brazil, it's pretty common, it's pretty fun. *36 year old, Brazilian Male*

Family Connection (Dimmock and Grove 2006; Boyle and Magnusson 2007; Muniz and O'Guinn 2001)

Well my father likes its and when you are young . . . You will watch what your father watches and you will sit down with him and you will watch TV with him. *30 year old, Asian Peruvian Male*

. . . [I] came out of the womb with a Bolivian national jersey . . . [my] father is a big fan…[it's] part of my heritage. *35 year old, Bolivian Male*

National Identity (Kim and Chalip 2004; Trienekens 2002; Batra, et al. 2000).

. . . every two years when the Bolivian national team plays, I schedule my activities around the Latin American games in hopes that they will win the Americas cup. *35 year old, Bolivian Male*

. . . it's too hard to get a Bolivian jersey in the states, however, I drape the Bolivian flag over my shoulders for good mojo.*35 year old, Bolivian Male*

So back to the blood thing. See the thing is, we invented the sport for starters and with all due respect to Pele and Maradona, we have created some of the most amazing footballers the world has and will ever see (Bobby Moore, Charlton, Beckham, Gazza, Keegan,... the list is long). *28 year old, White British Male.*

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Session 1.2

How is Social Media, like Facebook, Twitter etc., used to create a Brand Identity?

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The Internet-Based Democratisation of Corporate Brand Management – An Exploration of Managerial Perspectives

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Corporate Social Responsibility and Branding with Web Forum Research in the Retail Food and Drinks Sector

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Multiple Dimensions of Brand Identification: Exploring New Links among Consumer and Brands

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HOW IS SOCIAL MEDIA, LIKE FACEBOOK, TWITTER ETC., USED TO CREATE A BRAND IDENTITY?

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Unlike traditional media, social media has person to person connections and it has been highly valued nowadays. This gives the social media the advantage of a highly personalized level of service. Social Media allow firms to engage in timely and direct consumer contact at relatively low cost and higher levels of efficiency than can be achieved with more traditional communication tools. First social networking, Myspace was launched in 2003 and has 114 million visitors by 2007 Tong, Van der Heide, Langwell, & Walter, 2008)Nowadays Facebook is the most well-known social networking website in the world. Facebook has over 530 million active users and 20 million active users in Turkey (Facebook, 2010) .Social media can help spread information about an event and brands. Social media can help to built better customer relationship to firms than the traditional media channels. İt can allow loyal customers to talk their needs, preferences about a company's product line. The purpose of paper was to seek the use of social media as a tool for creating brand identity. We searched also if the companies' social media efforts were working? Were social media tactics beneficial to building a brand identity? Also which media tactics were being used, and which social media Technologies were implemented. In this paper, the interview method with the managers is used to analyze to social media's effect on brand identity on three different sector which is a university, a business and a non-profit organization in Turkey:
University: Selcuk University
Business: Selva Food Inc.
Non-profit organization: Homeless Animal's Protection Association

1. Introduction

Social media enables to create an interactive platform by means of individual and group sharing, contents, and discussions which are produced by the user using the mobile or internet based technologies. The sites which have large number of members such as Facebook, Twitter, Hi5 are considered as the most important media sites. Facebook has started been to be used as a private network established by the students of Harvard University (Kietzmann et all, 2011: 1).
The first use of social media was the site called "open diary" which was established by Bruce and Susan Abelson 20 years ago. After this period, MySpace (2003) and Facebook (2004) has helped to form the "Social Media" term (Kaplan ve Haenlein, 2009: 59) .
According to Keller (2003: 598), the brand personality is the humanity characteristics which are attributed to brand. Each of the brand is of a personality and characteristics. The common characteristics of successful brands are to have a strong personality. The experiences the consumer has experienced with the brand and the realized communication efforts assist the companies in the formation of brand's personality (Borça, 2002: 142).

The personality of the brands has five characteristics;

- Sincerity
- Excitement
- Sophistication
- Competence
- Ruggedness

These characteristics of the brand sometimes take place one by one; sometimes together in the personality of the brand (Aaker, 1997: 143-146).

1.1. Objective of the Study

The study is consisted of two parts. In the first part; an interview has been carried out by communicating with three administrators. In the study, the achievement of the use of social media as the brand personality formation of the universities, non-profit making organizations and profit making organizations is researched. In the second part, the social media uses, standpoints of the members of the organizations in question in the social media network and how the organizations perceive the brand personalities have been researched; and the standpoints of the companies and consumers are compared. "Homeless Animal's Protection Association" as the Non-profit-making organization with almost 5000 members in Facebook, "Selva Food Inc." as the Profit-making company with 2300 members in Facebook which is one of the most important pasta producers of Turkey, and the "Selçuk University, Young Entrepreneurs" society as the university with 1000 members in the Facebook have taken place in the study.

2. Interviews made with the administrators

2.1. Interview made with Selva Food Inc.

The following data has been obtained at the end of the interview made on social media with Ahmet Nurullah Güler, Vice Director of Marketing Department of Selva Food Inc.

What is your brand identity? Is the Social Media a useful method to create a Brand Identity?

I consider the social media as a café where numerous people share their ideas and likings among themselves. It is important to know what the consumers think on an issue or what sort of demands and requirements they have in terms of organizations. In this context, the social media means help in getting these data with the organizations. Thanks to the communication network linked directly, Selva takes all sorts of demands and needs of the consumers into consideration and gets information about how the consumers perceive the newly offered services.

2.2. Interviews made with Homeless Animal's Protection Association

The following date is obtained at the end of the interview made with Murat Ayata, the administrator of Homeless Animal's Protection Association.

What is the brand personality that the Homeless Animal's Protection Association is trying to establish? According to you, is the social media a good way in creating a brand personality?

I have no idea exactly concerning the brand personality we are trying to create. Our objective is to provide all the animal lovers to gather under a single roof so as to protect the homeless animals and meet their necessities. Hence, all the animal lovers follow up all the information related to the homeless animals through social media means and get information about how to help them. Furthermore, the animal lovers accept the homeless animals in their own houses and get the necessary medical information and assistance by making contact with the veterinaries available in the site.

2.3. Interviews made with Selçuk University

The following data is obtained at the end of the interview on the social media made with Ass. Prof. Dr. Mustafa AY.

What is your relation with the social media means that Selçuk University uses?

I am the communication administrator of Selçuk University, Entrepreneur Society. We have almost 1.000 members consisted of our students who have graduated and still attending students. We have been furnishing our graduated students with the information of organizations such as main activities of our university, the entrepreneurship conferences we have been organizing each year, graduation ceremonies, graduate meetings by means of social media. The traditional communication medias that we used to use were increasing the cost items on the favor of our university. We have had saving in the cost items decreasing brochure, telephone, personnel expenses by using the Social Media. All sorts of announcements, course notes of the academicians are published in our site for our students who are still attending our university.

3.Opinions of Facebook members

3.1 Opinions of Facebook members of Selva brand

200 subjects who are the members of Selva company Facebook page have stated that they agree with the ruling, Accorcing to Table-1, "The group I belong to reflects my character" in the one sample T-test which is applied to their answers (P=0,017). The subjects have stated an opinion such that they certainly agree with the ruling, "The group I belong to is a part of my image" (p=0,001). A significant conclusion cannot not be obtained concerning with the ruling, "I am supplying a major social benefit to this group as member".

According to Table-4 The participants surely agree that the subjects are of the "sincerity" and "Competence" image of the brand in terms of the image of the Selva brand. They also agree that they are of "Sophisticate" image. They do not agree that the brand is of a "Ruggedness" image and have no ideas about its being "exciting". According to Table-7, in the independent t-test carried out between the men and women in terms of image, it is determined that the men has found the brand more sincere that the women. In the specialty, women have statically found the image of the brand significant in comparison to men.

3.2 Opinions of Facebook members of Homeless Animal's Protection Association

200 subjects who are the members of Homeless Animal's Protection Association Facebook page have stated that they certainly agree with the ruling, "The group I belong to reflects my character" in the one sample T-test according to Table-2 which is applied to their answers (P=0,001). The subjects have stated an opinion such that they certainly agree with the ruling, "The group I belong to is a part of my image" (p=0,001). The subjects have stated that they do not agree with the ruling, "I am supplying a major social benefit to this group as member" (P=0,001). According to Table-5, The participants surely agree that the subjects are of the "sincerity" image of the brand in terms of the image of the Homeless Animal's Protection Association. They also agree that they are of "Sophisticate" image. They do not agree that the brand is of an "Exciting" and "Specialty" image. They do not agree that the brand is of a "Ruggedness" image, either. They do not agree they have "Ruggedness" image by no means. There is no significant difference between the genders in terms of reasons for the membership to the group.

3.3 Opinions of Facebook members of Selva brand

200 subjects who are the members of Selçuk University Facebook page have stated that they agree with the ruling, "The group I belong to reflects my character" in the one sample T-test according to Table-3 which is applied to their answers (P=0,001). The subjects have stated an opinion such that they certainly agree with the ruling, "The group I belong to is a part of my image" (p=0,001). The subjects have stated that they definitely agree with the ruling, "I am supplying a major social benefit to this group as member" (P=0,001).

According to Table-6, The participants surely agree that the subjects are of the "sincerity", sophisticate and "Competence" image of the brand in terms of the image of the University. They certainly agree that the brand is of a "Excitement" giving image. They do not agree that the brand is of a "Ruggedness" image. There is no significant difference between the genders in terms of reasons for the membership to the group. In the independent t-test carried out between the men and women in terms of image of the university, no significant difference is found.

4.CONCLUSION

The social media use purposes of the organization administrators are found to be different. The profit making company, Selva, uses the social media for establishing a brand image, reach their target group using a speedy and sincere language, and support the traditional promotion activities. The non-profit making organization, Homeless Animals Protection Association, uses the social media to reach their target group speedily and free of charge, and reduce the costs in an unprofessional way. The University, Selçuk University, uses the social media to reach their members in a speedy and inexpensive way. Furthermore, the efforts of the university to create a brand identity are also realize via social media.

5.TABLE

Table-1 Opinions of Facebook members of Selva Food Inc.

	t	P
The group I belong to reflects my character	2,4	0,017
The group I belong to is a part of my image	5,212	0,001
I am supplying a major social benefit to this group as member	-0,931	0,353

Table-2 Opinions of Facebook members of Homeless Animal's Protection Association

	t	P
The group I belong to reflects my character	15,707	0,001
The group I belong to is a part of my image	4,365	0,001
I am supplying a major social benefit to this group as member	-14,181	0,001

Table-3 Opinions of Facebook members of Selcuk University

	t	P
The group I belong to reflects my character	6,914	0,001
The group I belong to is a part of my image	8,771	0,001
I am supplying a major social benefit to this group as member	15,596	0,001

Table-4 Facebook Members of Selva Food Inc. Image Perception

Selva Food Inc. Image	t	P
Sincerity	6,315	0,001
Sophistication	3,388	0,001
Excitement	-1,191	0,235
Competence	2,015	0,045
Ruggedness	-15,584	0,001

Table-5 Facebook Members of Homeless Animal's Protection Association Image Perception

Homeless Animal's Protection Association Image	t	P
Sincerity	3,363	0,001
Sophistication	9,312	0,001
Excitement	-12,547	0,001
Competence	-8,982	0,001
Ruggedness	-76,26	0,001

Table-6 Facebook Members of Selcuk University Image Perception

Selcuk University Image	t	P
Sincerity	13,663	0,001
Sophistication	8,667	0,001
Excitement	12,293	0,001
Competence	33,402	0,001
Ruggedness	-12,207	0,001

Table-7 Independent "t" test results that Image Perception According to Gender Variety

Selva Food Inc. Image	t	P
Sincerity	3,964	0,001
Competence	-6,091	0,001

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The Internet-Based Democratisation of Corporate Brand Management – An Exploration of Managerial Perspectives

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The internet-based democratisation of brand management is a widely debated phenomenon in the academic world (Berthon et al. 2008; Kozinets et al. 2010; Schau et al. 2009) as well as in marketing practice (Edelman 2010; McConnell & Huba 2007; Mooney & Rollins 2008; Valos et al. 2010). However, an interdisciplinary review of academic literature has shown that one pivotal stakeholder group has hardly been given a voice within the discourses that are participating in the debates about the internet-based democratisation of brand management: the professional brand managers themselves (Asmussen et al. 2010). It would therefore be useful for future academic research to explore what the people who are potentially most affected in their everyday working lives, by the radical changes caused by this democratisation, think and feel about this phenomenon. The purpose of this research project is to make a contribution to this under-investigated area. The research aim is to explore the internet-based democratisation of corporate brand management from the perspective(s) of corporate brand managers. Corporate brand management has been chosen for the present research project, since this area is one of those most affected in the context of the democratisation of brand management (Greyser 2009; Laforet & Saunders 2005).

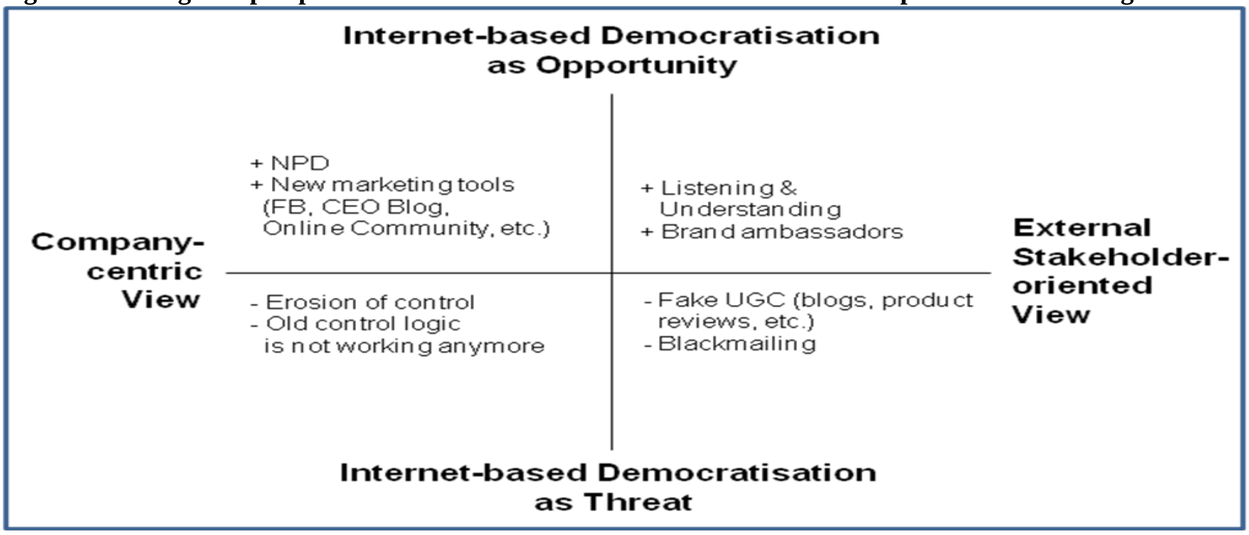
One of the biggest challenges to achieve the above stated research aim is the high level of complexity when it comes to brand management research (de Chernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley 1998; Heding et al. 2009; Louro & Cunha 2001) or corporate brand management research (Balmer 2001; Schultz et al. 2005). Brodie and de Chernatony (2009) indicate that organisational theory in particular provides useful guidance under these circumstances for brand management researchers – since organisational theory is 'concerned with the complexity of organizations and management processes' (p. 99). Based on this rationale – a *sense making* approach was chosen for the present context. The concept of sense making has been developed mainly in the discipline of organisational behaviour – particularly by Karl Weick (see further Weick 1995 & 2001) to investigate cognitive processes in complex organisational and managerial scenarios. The concept itself can mean different things to different people (Klein et al. 2006a) but is quintessentially about 'the making of sense' (Weick 1995, p. 4). It is about giving meaning to experience. This includes processes such as structuring known as well as unknown stimuli by placing them into a mental frame of reference or creating new ones (Klein et al. 2006b; Starbuck & Milliken 1988; Waterman 1990; Woodside 2001). Such mental frameworks can be used as a generalised point of view, which directs people's interpretations. Based on this sense making approach, the aim of the present research project has therefore been translated into the following research question: How do corporate brand managers make sense of the internet-based democratisation of corporate brand management?

To answer this exploratory question, in terms of methodology, a social constructivist grounded theory-led approach (Charmaz 2006) has been applied. In-depth interviews with 13 UK-based corporate brand managers have been conducted. The interview participants have been recruited from a broad choice of industries; and large as well as small and medium sized organisations.

The research results indicate that corporate brand managers' mental frameworks regarding the internet-based democratisation of brand management are mainly determined by two parameters. Firstly, their attitude towards the democratisation phenomenon, which can range from positive, i.e. seeing the democratisation as an opportunity, to negative, i.e. seeing the democratisation as a threat (Figure 1). The second parameter appears to be the managers' general perspective on brand management, which can range from very company-centric to strongly external stakeholder-oriented (Figure 1). Corporate brand managers with a company-centric perspective and a positive attitude towards the brand democratisation, find the technical opportunities of social media empowering for their organisation. In terms of new product development they appreciate the possibilities of involving customers more and more in the different stages of the product development process. For them it is a relatively controlled form of outsourcing or *crowdsourcing* (Howe 2006). But equally, the availability of additional 'marketing tools' such as a Facebook site, (the CEO's) blog, or a company-controlled online community is appealing to some of them. The company-centric-oriented managers with a negative attitude towards the democratisation phenomenon, feel that they are losing more and more control over the brand management process. Some of them are experiencing a cognitive dissonance since the 'old control logic' is not working anymore. Corporate brand managers with a positive attitude towards the internet-based democratisation phenomenon and an external stakeholder orientation, focus less on the technical opportunities of social media but rather on the positive outcomes of external stakeholders' activities on the internet. They feel that customers who, for example, write a positive online review about an organisation's products or services become ambassadors of the brand. These ambassadors essentially *promote* the organisation to others and therefore 'do the marketer's job' to a certain extent. The generation of electronic word-of-mouth can be interpreted as a relatively uncontrolled form of *crowdsourcing* or brand meaning co-creation. Furthermore, these corporate brand managers also feel that they benefit from being able to listen to and learn more about their customers on the internet through monitoring user generated content (UGC) or even direct interaction with their customers and other stakeholders. Finally, corporate brand managers who have an external stakeholder-oriented perspective on brand management and feel rather pessimistic about the internet-based democratisation phenomenon, are worried about negative and fake user generated content, for example, negative online product reviews written by competitors. Or, in extreme cases, customers apparently demand to be offered special discounts and threaten otherwise to write a negative review about the organisation online.

In terms of limitations, this research is just a first work-in-progress report about the exploration of managerial perspectives on the internet-based democratisation of corporate brand management. Further investigation is needed. Regarding originality, this research represents one of the first applications of second generation grounded theory method in marketing management research. Furthermore, the findings are based on interviews with senior corporate brand managers, a group who have hardly been interviewed in the past when it comes to phenomena like the internet-based democratisation of brand management. And the erosion of control felt by some of the corporate brand managers leads to the conclusion that, at least in some cases, there is a demand for a new brand management paradigm.

Figure 1: Managerial perspectives on the internet-based democratisation of corporate brand management



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Corporate Social Responsibility and Branding with Web Forum Research in the Retail Food and Drinks Sector

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1. Introduction

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) is an increasingly important concept for companies wishing to be perceived as "good" organisations. The use of CSR by organisations is also attracting interest amongst marketing academics and practitioners at a time when environmental and ethical issues are progressively gaining a wider public profile. It is also recognised that environmental activities are becoming increasingly important to consumers, as incorporating CSR messages with company product and corporate brand communications adds to public perception that such companies operate with integrity. A search of the literature has identified an extensive discussion of the benefits organisations derive by behaving in a socially responsible way. Factors including, improved financial performance (Johnson, 2003) building connections with consumers (Porter and Kramer, 2002) and internal benefits such as employee commitment and reduced employee turnover (Miao, 2003). In contrast consumer cynicism and lack of trust have also been identified as a current major problem. Therefore the purpose of this article is to examine the areas of corporate social responsibility and branding from research conducted with a web forum of users in the Midlands area of the UK. Insights into consumer perceptions regarding organisations and their efforts to behave in a socially responsible way are gained throughout the investigation.

2. Conceptual Development

2.1. Corporate Social Responsibility

Donaldson (1982) argues that corporate social responsibility is a contract between the firm and society. This contract holds certain rights in exchange for certain responsibilities. Aaker (2008) found that chief executives believe that corporate social responsibility pays off for an organisation and that more than 90% of chief executives think that social responsible management creates shareholder value. Environmental marketing which is also known as green marketing involves the actions which are undertaken by an organisation aimed at improving or preserving the environment (West, 2006). In a study by Peattie and Ring, (1993) 78% of chief executive officers believe that green issues are important to their organisations' activities; they also found that 82% of chief executives indicated that green issues would be an important consideration for businesses in the future. Middlemiss, (2003) argues that corporate social responsibility is an important feature in building and protecting the corporate image and reputation demanded by a company's customer base. The Co-operative brand has been known since 1964 for its passion and drive towards trading ethically and helping less economically developed countries. For example, the link between Fair Trade products and its brand image has resulted in the Co-operative taking conscious steps towards adopting an ethical corporate image to which consumers can relate.

2.2. Branding

It can be argued that brands are no longer just about adding value to a product or a service. They can represent an individual's lifestyle, beliefs and values, thus enabling brands to form a culture to which individuals can relate. Incorporating green values into a brand image and behaving in a socially responsible way can act as a point of differentiation in crowded markets, whilst being perceived as "a good company" by consumers. Gotsi and Wilson, (2001) argued that a sustained favourable reputation will create a corporate competitive advantage within the market place. It is argued that brands are considered to be a major tool for marketers when creating differentiation. In addition to this they state that the combination of brand name and brand significance has become a core competitive asset in ever growing markets, (Kotler and Gertner, 2002). For some organisations behaving in a socially responsible way has always been important to them as strategically implemented CSR advertisements can be visually persuasive to build confidence, e.g. Shell's advertisements in *The Economist* are usually visual, such as showing a fox in a green countryside environment against the background of an oil refinery.

2.3. Communication and CSR

Many organisations, like the Co-operative and Marks and Spencer, have considered corporate social responsibility as a focal point in their business strategies and have left many 'footprints' from their brand trail activities in the minds of consumers. These footprints which all have different impacts on the consumer have developed over time. Whilst for many critics corporate social responsibility is mainly used for public relations rather than a genuine attempt to improve the environment. For some organisations, they argue it is a genuine attempt to preserve the environment. Morsing and Schultz (2006) argue that messages regarding corporate social responsibility are likely to evoke positive reactions from stakeholders. However Brown and Dacin (1997) argue that communications relating to corporate social responsible activities have also been proven to attract critical attention, for example Shell, who received negative publicity for the misreporting of oil reserves in 2004. A review of its archived material established the 'brand footprints' Marks and Spencer left when initially formed to the present day. Although this information is available for consumers in secondary archived material, it is argued that organisations such as Marks and Spencer should take the appropriate measures to include these brand footprints in any communications to the relevant stakeholder. Failure to inform consumers and relevant stakeholders of messages relating corporate social responsible activities would result in consumers believing that organisations are not serious about the environment and are only participating in such activities for financial gain. Shrum et al (1995) found that consumers tend to be distrustful of environmental claims made by organisations.

Fierman, (1991) found that 47% of consumers dismiss environmental claims as gimmicks. This is supported by a survey conducted by Mintel (2007) who found that 63% of respondents asked are cynical about the efforts of companies to prove their green credentials, agreeing that 'companies are just using these issues to try to make themselves look good'.

3. Methodology

3.1. Research Design and Data Collection

The design of the research was defined through a six stage process. The first stage research objectives were formed. The review of the secondary archived material determined that both the Co-operative and Marks and Spencer have an invested interest in environmental management and their corporate social responsibilities. This interlinked with consumer cynicism established the main objective of the study which was to explore consumer perceptions regarding organisations and their efforts to behave in a socially responsible way. This was supplemented by stage two. A small exploratory sample utilising an online forum of public comments in response to questions placed on the website in order to gain consumer insights and perspectives. Stage three outlines the estimations of budget and project time of completion. The online forum was appropriate as it reached a wider audience for no cost. Stages four and five consist of research design and data collection, general questions were posted on the forum to yield insights, questions such as,' do favour brands or organisations that incorporate environmental issues within the business?' Further postings were made on the forum to ensure consumers did not diverge from the question initially posted, and also to yield further insights. Finally stage six allows decisions and directions to be made in further research on the basis of the research outcomes.

3.2. Analysis

Netnography as a methodology for consumer research has been utilised and explored since the late 1990s. It is used as an interpretive method specifically designed to investigate consumer behaviour of culture and communities present on the internet (Beckmann and Langer, 2005). Kozinets (1998) suggests that online communication between consumers has been studied by using Netnography in order to understand consumer attitudes, perception, imagery and participation. Therefore information was collated and all findings were then analysed using thematic coding.

4. Results

Throughout the discussion several significant findings were identified. The initial post on the forum was to gain general insights on consumer views regarding organisations and its green practices. Respondent one stated;

"I'm a fairly unconscious shopper in my personal life....if it's the cheapest price ill have it."

Respondent one further stated,

"I think they are possibly of even more importance to the big companies who face much more stringent criticism from the media about their every action."

Throughout the discussion it became apparent that respondents would happily help the environment. However other factors such as cost and convenience play a crucial role in preventing purchase rather than intent. Respondent two states;

"To me, price is king"

Respondent five states,

"Despite what multinationals might claim in "Corporate Social Responsibility" guff. In the free market, price and profit are always going to be the primary concern."

Respondent seven states,

". I wouldn't care if a company was trying additional environmental practices - it's where the prices are lowest."

The next post on the forum was to distinguish whether consumers felt that organisations were favoured because of its environmental practices.

Respondent three stated,

"They are certainly favoured by local authorities and other such large clients"

Respondent one stated;

"I'd like to say that they would be favoured....but ultimately I don't think that true. I think income and the consumer's active level of environmental conscience are directly linked"

Respondent four states:

"Ticking green boxes seems to work for some consumers so I guess that type of marketing will work to a degree"

Respondent six stated,

"Recently my local supermarket became a Co-op; however, I know if it became Wal-mart tomorrow, despite resistance, I would still use it out of convenience rather than any ethical/green hoo-hah."

Respondent seven states,

"Realistically, I don't think the big retailers really care about environment issues - they just want the public to think they do."

The next post on the forum was to distinguish whether consumers felt that there was a lack of trust between the organisation and the consumer.

Respondent two states,

"They are about profit, nothing more."

Respondent seven states,

"Personally I think there is not much trust - why should there be? The only thing I trust is that "I trust they will make profit."

5. Limitations

Through managing and maintaining the forum several limitations became apparent. The first limitation is that the study has been undertaken online with one forum, Stafford forum. Therefore it is fully acknowledged that the use of one forum with a small sample is not a fair representation of consumer insights generally; and thus no generalisations have been made. The use of a web forum meant that respondents tended to diverge away from the questions posted; therefore further posts were posted in order to bring respondents back to the main discussion points. Future research should be directed towards a wider sample of respondents through web forums to enable greater and more in-depth insights. A continuation of this research should also be extended to target specific retail organisations. Therefore future research should aim to enhance the exploration between the relationships of the organisations and the end consumer. Replication of the study with a wider sample within the retail food and drinks sector might increase the reliability of the results.

6. Summary

In this research it was sought to explore consumer insights regarding corporate social responsibility and environmental marketing. A review of secondary literature established that organisations such as Marks and Spencer have left a brand trail from its history to present day in terms of their activities. It is argued that although this information is readily available for consumers, it is not immediately apparent to them. Consumers will have to seek this information out, if they want to know more about organisations. The findings from the online forum identified many indicators which prevent consumers from taking action. These are factors such as price, convenience and also trust. Some respondents who participated in the forum believed that organisation are about making profit, while other respondents state that they would be happy to shop with a more environmentally aware agenda. However budgets are preventing them from taking action.

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Multiple Dimensions of Brand Identification: Exploring New Links among Consumer and Brands

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Introduction

The **brand identification** concept addresses the consumer-brand relationship gap found in previous brand-consumer theory. It relates to how a brand "fits" the consumer identity and could help him feel included, respected, and recognized by groups. In other words, this construct answers the question "how much does this brand fit me?" (Kuenzel & Halliday, 2008; Tildesley & Coote, 2009; Francisco-Maffezzolli; Prado & Montaña, 2010).

According to Social Identity Theory - SIT (Tajfel, 1984; Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Reed II, 2002) and Self-Congruity Theory - SCT (Sirgy, 1982; 1986) brand identification can be understood as a multidimensional construct, defined by four dimensions. They are: (1) Cognitive dimension, related to the knowledge level of the brand (Heere & James, 2007); (2) Affective dimension, the emotional element that occurs through feelings and self connection with a brand (Heere & James, 2007); (3) Evaluative dimension, addresses public and private evaluations (Ashmore, Deaux & MacLaughlin-Volpe, 2004, Heere & James, 2007); and, (4) Behavioral dimension, deals with involvement and action through the brand (Ashmore, Deaux & MacLaughlin-Volpe, 2004, Heere & James, 2007).

Francisco-Maffezzolli et al. (2010) stress that these dimensions were not tested with empirical research and still need more theory development to be understood. According to this, the purpose of this research was to analyze each brand identification dimensions in order to provide an empirical test and development to the brand and identity field.

The cognitive dimension is related to the knowledge level that someone has about a brand and that is obtained through direct or indirect experiences. Heere and James (2007) add to this definition the meaning of the content and the significance of the experience. In other words, the knowledge about a brand is related to what someone knows about a brand (content) and how this information affects the respondent (significance). In a complementary perspective, Underwood, Bond and Baer (2001) argue that this knowledge is also related to the history, values, beliefs of a brand and experience.

Affective literature supports the notion that brands are built by two main elements: rational and emotional. Further, both of these aspects have relevance during the buying process. Therefore, brands have a double appeal, one for the head and one for the heart (Zambardino & Goodfellow, 2007). Affective dimension is the emotional element of identification that occurs though sentiments and self connection with a brand.

The evaluative dimension is defined by the positive or negative attitude that someone develops during self-categorization (Ashmore, Deaux & MacLaughlin-Volpe, 2004). These attitudes can be influenced by two types of judgments: public and private. The first one is related to the manner in which others view a person. The later represents the manner which he/she views himself/herself. In an empirical study, Heere and James (2007) showed the relevance of these two evaluations according to the Social Identity Theory.

The behavioural dimension is related to the involvement level of an individual's actions towards a brand. These actions are usually related to reinforcing social or personal identities (Ashmore et al., 2004; Bearden & Etzel, 1982). This concept is also related to the interest of an individual to keep his/her identity from being part of the same group. For instance, the behavioural involvement in Heere & James (2007) research could be seen as the frequency of matches that someone can go in a month/year of team sponsored by a brand, or even by the quantity of products bought with a particular brand displayed on it (example: uniforms, posters, etc). Therefore, this dimension also considers the positive aspects of being a consumer/user of a particular brand and the how others recognize a person for consuming a particular brand.

Methodology

The methodological approach was conducted through three main steps: (1) a qualitative approach with 19 consumers to better understand the brand identification phenomena, (2) a survey online, with 194 cases in order to check scales validity and reliability and (3) a survey with 780 consumers collected by personal approach, to test the brand identification dimensions according to a second order factor analysis. After this, all the four dimensions were analysed with linear regression to check how they could impact brand preference. This last empirical research used four brands commercialized in the Brazilian automobile industry. The brands were: Fiat, Honda, Renault and Volkswagen.

Main Results

Major findings reveal the multiple dimension characteristic of brand identification. The second order factor analysis goodness of fit was acceptable: $X^2 = 328{,}84$, df = 86, p-value<0,001, RMSEA = 0,060, NFI = 0,970, NNFI = 0,973, CFI = 0,978, IFI = 0,978, RMR = 0,095, GFI = 0,890, AGFI = 0,846.

The cognitive dimension was proven by statistical results (β = 0,64, T=7,31, p<0,001, α = 0,72) and suggests how important is brand knowledge considering values, tradition and social actions. The more consumers know about a brand, the more they can be identified with this brand. Added to this, Social Identity Theory and Self-Congruity Theory agree that it is impossible to define our identity when we cannot distinct symbols to reinforce who we are. Brands can be useful to stress some characteristics, beliefs and values. This is why companies should provide clear information about their actions and promote them among consumers.

The affective dimension showed good results also (β = 0,98, T = 9,10, p<0,001, α = 0,73) and reinforce the affective issue among brands. The more I like and feel myself close to a brand, the more I should prefer this brand. The SCT provide a good comprehension about how people can define their identity though symbols that are (or should be) consistent and congruent. Consumer-brand relations can show affinity when their image are close from each other (Chaplin & John, 2005).

The evaluative dimension reflects a relevant part of brand identification (β = 0,75, T = 8,59, p<0,001 α = 0,80). Further, as we need social groups to live, the SIT suggests that social approval is important to our life.

According to the investigated sampling, behavioral dimension showed significant results, but a lower impact compared to other dimensions (β = 0,39, T = 7,41, p<0,001 α = 0,77). This situation can be understood maybe though the empirical context. As all four brands have little incentive to promote events or social networks, this is an underused dimension of brand identification in the Brazilian automobile industry.

These dimensions were also analyzed though a linear regression, considering brand preference as the dependent variable. The findings reinforce the importance of all four dimensions (R^2 = 45%, cognitive dimension β = 0,157, t= 4,923, p<0,001, affective dimension β = 0,370, t = 10,562, p<0,001, evaluative dimension β = 0,227, t = 6,837 e p<0,001, behavioral dimension β = 0,102, t = 3,398, p<0,001). The regression ANOVA test was significant (F = 160,723, p<0,001).

The empirical findings reinforce the identity issue as an important key to better understand possible links among consumer and brand, as suggested by Macinnis, Park & Priester, (2009). The closer consumer identity and brand identity are, the larger brand preference is. This implies that consumers are able to notice unique values to a brand according to its identity and this identification process. To take advantage of this, companies should first have a rigorous identity project. After this, in order to offer information to the market, they should emphasize their values, tradition, positioning and promote brand experience. These actions can increase the cognitive dimension evaluation. The emotional dimension can be increased with marketing actions that stress image, affinity and empathy. The evaluative dimension can be an useful insight to propose information about why we should pick brand “x” and not brand “y” and answer some questions as: how this brand could reinforce my self esteem and could be helpful for me to be respected and noticed into my social groups? The last dimension provokes insights about how companies can promote events to make consumers more involved with a brand. Some ideas permeate social media and social events.

Finally, future research could look for brand identification intensities though the four dimensions, check the scales in different contexts and compare the same brand in different cultures.

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Session 1.3

Corporate Identity, Corporate Social Responsibility & the Interfusion of Business Ethics: An Empirical Investigation in UK Multinational Organisations

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Corporate Brand Identity Management – Proposal of a New Framework

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**Antecedents And Consequences Of Brand Trust In The Baby Care Toiletries Brands:
The Moderating Role of Mother's Big Five Personality Variables. A Conceptual Framework**

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Types of Value and Cost in Consumer Relationships with Green Brands

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Corporate Identity, Corporate Social Responsibility & the Interfusion of Business Ethics: An Empirical Investigation in UK Multinational Organisations

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Abstract:
This paper explores the meaning of the concept of corporate identity (CI) and its relationship with corporate social responsibility (CSR) and business ethics, from the viewpoint of organisational managers in UK multinational companies, within different industrial sectors, using semi-structured interviews. The findings reveal that CI and CSR are fundamentally connected. CSR is associated with and manifested through one or more elements of corporate identity mix such as corporate mission, corporate culture, values, history, founder of the organisation, communications. Importantly, CSR is considered to be a facet of corporate behaviour. A prerequisite for CSR is business ethics, which is considered to be essential element. Hence, the paper seeks to identify and theorise the linkages that exist between the distinct disciplines of CI and CSR, fusing these theoretical discourses into a cohesive framework. Also, the study highlights the various perspectives in which the meanings of the concepts of CI, CSR and business ethics have been conceived. Thus, this paper affords a new important perspective on the area, which it is argued, represents a distinct and important, strand of inquiry (Balmer *et al*., 2007; Gray and Balmer, 2001).

Keywords: corporate identity (CI), visual identity, corporate communications, marketing communications, organisational culture, values, corporate behaviour, corporate social responsibility (CSR), business ethics.

Conceptualisation
Traditionally, corporate identity (CI) was narrowly conceived in terms of graphic design in image creation (Balmer and Wilkinson, 1991; van Riel and Balmer, 1997). However, the concept of CI has gradually broadened to comprehend a more complete picture of the way organisations present themselves to their different stakeholders (Atakan and Eker, 2007). This includes a mix of attributes and characteristics that reflect the 'reality' and 'uniqueness' of the organisation (Balmer and Gray, 1999), such as symbols, written and oral communication, and behaviour (van Reil, 1995); business strategy, values and philosophy, organisational culture, and structure (Gray and Balmer, 1998); corporate values, mission, activities, markets covered (Balmer and Greyser, 2002); and communications and visual identity, behaviour, corporate culture and market conditions (Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Melewar and Akel, 2005; Melewar and Jenkins, 2002).

However, it is not enough for organisations to focus only on profitability (Carroll, 1999). Rather than being isolated, companies belong to internal and external networks of different stakeholders (i.e. shareholders, investors, suppliers, customers, government). Thus, they face social obligations to take actions that protect and improve the welfare of the society as a whole (Atakan and Eker, 2007). The main mechanism in the 21st century to be a good corporate citizen is through CSR (Atakan and Eker, 2007). Thus, social, environmental and/or ethical goals should be preeminent or, at least be on equal footing with the profit motive (David et al., 2005).

Ethics are closely linked to moral frameworks which provide the structure for an ability to choose between right and wrong, good and bad and acceptable and unacceptable courses of action (Joyner et al., 2002). More specifically with regard to business, deGeorge (1999) defines business ethics as a field of "special" ethics, dealing specifically with ethical dilemmas arising in the context of doing business. In this context, business ethics constitutes acceptable behaviour in organisational, commercial and business contexts (Cacioppe et al., 2008). It is concerned with an evaluation of business practices in the light of certain concepts of human value. It also looks at corporate profits, not for their own sake but with respect to the achievement of some human good (Bendixen et al., 2007).

The concepts of CSR and business ethics are frequently used interchangeably, although each has a distinct meaning (Fischer, 2004). Rather than being mutually exclusive, ethics and CSR are believed to be interrelated and somewhat interdependent (Bendixen et al., 2007).

CSR, according to the World Business Council for Sustainable Development, is "the continuing commitment by business to behave ethically and contribute to economic development while improving the quality of life of the workforce and their families as well as of the local community and society at large'' (as cited in Chand, 2006, p. 240). Thus ethical responsibility is considered one facet/component of the wider range of corporate social responsibilities (Boatright, 2000; Joyner et al., 2002; Fischer, 2004), which also encompass economic, legal and philanthropic responsibilities (Carroll, 1991; 1999).

Recently, the three areas of CI, CSR and business ethics have been receiving increasing attention. Balmer and Soenen (1997) argue that organisations should create CI with unique features that reflect a sense of individuality in order to be distinguished in the competitive environment. In establishing distinctive CI, CSR policies should be introduced to create shared organisational values (Atakan and Eker, 2007) since these initiatives are likely to evoke strong and positive reactions among employees, customers and other external stakeholders (Morsing and Schultz, 2006). Underpinning

CSR are the ideals and ethics of corporations. Thus, it is argued that ethics, as a doctrine or philosophy, acts as a bridge to the concepts of CI and CSR. Hence, understanding the ethical dimension associated with CI allows researchers an insight into how corporations seek to behave responsibly (Fukukawa et al., 2007). In terms of theoretical development, there is 'real merit' in examining ethics and CSR through the lens of the constructs of CI since the ethical dimension associated with CI represents a facet which reflects the reality of the corporation: who the organisation is and what it stands for.

Therefore, this research aims to:

- Explore the meaning of the concept of CI.
- Gain insights into the nature of CSR and business ethics.
- Explore the relationship between CI and CSR; how CSR is articulated in CI,and; the way business ethics interfuses with CI and CSR.

Method

The study deployed a qualitative approach, using semi-structured depth interviews with 24 individuals from fourteen multinational companies in the UK, as well as with three public relations (PR) agency executives who worked closely with these firms in related areas.

Interviews were aimed at senior managers responsible for the CI mix (van Riel and Balmer, 1997), as well as CSR management. These included three interviewees holding a marketing position, nine from communications, nine in the domain of CSR, one from general management, and three directors of public relations (PR) agencies.

The companies involved in the study came 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 was chosen purposively and an interview schedule designed and followed to guide the interviews and gain insights about research objectives. This study utilized Nvivo8, a computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS), in analysing the data.

Major Findings

The findings revealed both partial views of the meaning of CI, i.e. corporate logo and other forms of symbolism used by the organisation; corporate image; and corporate reputation and/or corporate values, as well as a more comprehensive and broader view of the concept of signposting 'what the organisation is/what it stands for', thus, reflecting a multidisciplinary perspective encompassing internal and external orientation of a wide array of elements which represented the identity of the organisation.

The findings provided evidence that CI and CSR were fundamentally connected. CSR initiatives were apparently integrated into what organisations do (i.e. buying, selling, hiring, firing etc) and manifested through one or more elements of corporate identity mix including corporate behaviour, corporate culture, values, history, founder of the organisation, mission statement, and communications.

Business ethics was recognised as a prerequisite and essential element of CSR, which also encompassed economic, legal, environmental and social responsibilities.

Most interviewees from the various industries revealed that CSR was central to their organisational values, where sustainability as well as ethical values (i.e. honesty and trust) were pillars of organisational values and embedded in cultures. In addition, CSR initiatives were aligned to the overall mission/aim of corporations, and embraced through corporate communications which reflected the inherent values of organisations encompassing sustainability and social responsibility that underpinned the delivered messages.

Importantly, CSR activities were considered a facet of corporate behaviour which together with managers' and employees' behaviour; their interactions with each other and with the public, were important elements in shaping CI and representing the personality of the brand/corporation that underpinned and supported the portrayal of the organisation.

Implications

The key implication of this study is that it potentially charts new directionality in both theory and practice and extends the current discourse on CSR and CI studies. For practitioners, this could enable organisations to engage more actively in CSR and ethics programmes to ensure that not only do they comply with regulations but also that their CI is one which is favourable to its stakeholders and commercial environment (Cornelius et al., 2007). Based on these nascent qualitative findings, a major positivist study will be undertaken in Spring 2011, to test a series of hypotheses relating to CI, CSR, and business ethics.

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Corporate Brand Identity Management – Proposal of a New Framework

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Summary of Research

The term "corporate brand" has been widely used in literature since the eighties. According to Balmer (1998) this concept tends to be used as an alternative to the concept of corporate identity. The author argues that the use of branding principles to discuss corporate identity has tended to align the area more closely with marketing. However, the literature on brand management (Aaker, 1991; Kapferer, 1991 and de Chernatony and McDonald, 1992), gives little attention to the corporate brand" (p. 985).

Based on the concepts of corporate brand, brand identity and B2B relationship, the authors are interested in eliminating this gap in literature by designing a framework of corporate brand identity management. The aim of this investigation is to investigate the impact of B2B relationships in corporate brand identity management.

The methodology used is quantitative analysis of surveys and scale development.

The originality of this paper is to investigate the influence of the relationship between brands in corporate brand identity. This investigation is very important to help the decisions of the corporate brand managers and academics.

According to literature, namely on corporate brands (Balmer 2002b, Hatch and Schultz, 2001, 2003) and on brand identity (Kapferer, 1991, 2008, Aaker, 1996, de Chernatony, 1999) the authors developed a corporate brand identity management framework considering relationships between brands a context variable with definite impact on identity management as stated by Hakansson and Snehota (1989, 1995). These authors consider that organisations´ identity management is pursued under a relational perspective with impact on identity management.

Most researchers on identity and corporate brand emphasise the importance of external influences (Kennedy, 1977; King, 1991; de Chernatony, 1999; Balmer and Gray, 2000; Balmer, 2002a). Those influences concern legislation, concurrence, political issues... and stakeholders' perceptions and reputations (due to the holistic approach demanded by corporate brands). In this context the authors claim the importance of another influence: B2B relationships. This decision is inspired in sociological studies (Mannheim, 1950; and Tajfel and Turner, 1979) regarding individual identity. These authors claim that individuals form their personality by interacting in the social field. The authors argue that corporate brand identity also develops itself under a relational approach.

The relationships selected to pursue this investigation are the ones that are developed by Portuguese universities and investigation centres that cooperate by developing investigation. Those centres are administrative and financially autonomous.

The model will be described and the expected interactions explained in the following pages.
This is a work in progress. The inquiry is being pursued at the moment and authors are very confident that, very soon, they will have results to discuss.

Conceptualisation Method

The process of identification of the brand by their public is easier when the brand name coincide with the company´s name. This was one of the reasons for the recent development of corporate brands. Corporate brands demand a different conceptualisation and identity management than line brands.

Balmer (2002b) argues that the emergent theory on corporate brands is opposed to traditional approaches to brands, for it is multidisciplinary; it is not based only on marketing.

Consumers use brands to create their own individual identities (Simões and Dibb, 2005). Balmer (2002b) argues that there are other groups: staff, suppliers, shareholders, and others that relate themselves with brands in a not very different way.

Several authors have been studying corporate brands in an identity context:

(Table 1 here)

Balmer (2002b) refers the differences between the conceptualisations of:

- identity and identity management
- corporate brand and corporate brand management

But there are other authors who also refer the conditionings of a good corporate brand management. Therefore, corporate brand management depends on the:
- congruence between the brand identity facets and the organisational values (Kapferer, 2008),
- congruence between brand identity and brand reputation (de Chernatony, 1999),
- alignment between the elements that are part of the corporate brand management mix (Balmer, 2002b),
- alignment between strategic vision, organisational culture and image (Hatch e Schultz, 2001, 2003).

The authors´ propose is to add a new line to this field of studies by arguing that corporate brand management depends on the relationships´ influence on corporate brand identity.
One of the objectives of the authors is to know how brands/organisations create/maintain certain relationships with other brands/organisations. What are the brand identity facets which are more influenced by those relationships? What are the consequences in prospective and present consumers?

Identity is a sender concept (Kapferer, 1991), but identity is built and managed in a relationship context (Hakansson and Snehota, 1989, 1995). Thus it is the organisation´s/brand´s task to define and to manage identity. Kapferer (2008) argues that the corporate identity values are passed to the brand through the cultural facet. The author defines culture as an internal component of the brand identity, so less exposed to interaction. But he also refers to the external part of the identity facets which are, by definition, more related with corporate brands and its management. Therefore there are brand identity facets that are more exposed to interaction thus, it is convenient to separate identity and its management.

Kapferer (1991, 2008) describes the brand as a vision that drives to the creation of products and services under one name. Brand identity is formed by that vision, by key beliefs and by the brand´s core values (Kapferer, 2008). Brand identity is, like individual identity, complex and it is decided internally and used to relate to exterior. According to Kapferer (2008), identity is formed by internal facets (culture, personality, self-image) and external facets (physical, reflected consumer and relation – between the consumer and the brand). Although the internal aspects are very relevant for they are the core of the brand identity, corporate brands are focused in the external – stakeholders and its reputations (Balmer and Gray, 2002b). In line with this, the authors decided to investigate the effect of relationships between brands in the external and manageable facets of brand identity.

To answer the investigation question "how do relationships between brands influence corporate brand identity management?" the authors define the following framework:

(Figure 1 here)

This framework is inspired in corporate brand and brand identity literature.

Balmer (2002a) defines corporate brands´ characteristics as: cultural, intricate, tangible, ethereal and requiring total commitment of the organisation. The author considers the identity construct related but different from the corporate brand´s construct. Corporate brands require a holistic approach to brand management in which every member of the organisation behave themselves according to the desired identity (Harris and de Chernatony, 2001).

As Balmer (2002a) states, identity is focused on controllable internal aspects (strategy, structure, communication, culture) and although the internal aspects concern corporate brands, they are much more focused on the exterior (image and reputation). There must be an effective management of these aspects in order to eliminate any gaps between the brand desired by brand managers and stakeholders' perceptions.
The proposed framework is compound by a context variable (relationships) and brand identity (external perspective). The authors argue that corporate brand identity is manageable by the interaction between its external facets and B2B relationships. So corporate brand identity is managed in a relationship perspective where stakeholders` images and reputations are influenced by the relationships that brands have between them. Corporate brands attract more consumers if they believe the relationship between both brands will have some benefit to them as consumers. This "good feeling" about a relationship between brands will affect consumers, prospective consumers and the rest of the stakeholders contributing for the increasing of corporate brand reputation.

Those relationships are inspired in sociological studies regarding individual identity based on Mannheim (1950) and Tajfel and Turner (1979) according to whom individuals form their personality but they also receive feedback from the society where they interact. Tajfel and Turner (1979) were the progenitors of the well known social identity similarity theory according to which an individual can be defined as being part of one group (or not) underlying the collective behaviours of clients or other groups. This theory has been very relevant to marketing investigators in terms of collective identity and identification.

To study the influence of B2B relationships in the brand identity manageable facets the authors use the brand identity prism (Kapferer, 1991/2008), but only the external facets as defined before: physical (tangible characteristics and quality), relation (tangible and intangible areas, concerns the relation between the brand and the consumer), reflected consumer (reflects the consumer as he/she would like to be seen by others by using a certain brand), for these facets are strictly related with corporate brands.

The external facet of the identity prism called relation refers to the relationship between the brand and the consumer. There are other authors that also study this relation: Aaker 1996; Aaker e Fournier, 1995; Fournier e Yao, 1997; Fournier, 1998; Fournier e Mick, 1999; Muniz e O´Guinn, 2001, just to name a few. The external variable that the authors argue to influence corporate brand identity concerns, as stated before, the relationships between brands and their influence in corporate brand identity management. The authors believe that these relationships are relevant to manage corporate brand identity and have not yet been studied in this context.

Major Findings

As stated before, the survey process is taking part now. The surveyed stakeholders are:
- present and prospective students of universities;
- companies that employ graduates from universities.

The investigation hypotheses are as follows:

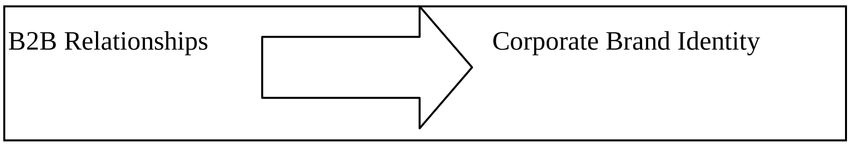
H1: B2B relationships influence the physical evidence facet of corporate brand identity;
It is expected a positive relation between the relationship and physical evidence. There are many examples in the field confirming this (Nestlé and Frulact);
H2: B2B relationships influence the reflected consumer facet of corporate brand identity;
It is expected a positive influence between the relationship (between brands) and the way the consumer wishes to be seen as a result of using a brand (reflected consumer);
H3: B2B relationships influence the relation between the consumer and the brand.
It is expected a positive influence of relationships (between brands) and the one between consumers and corporate brands.

Authors are very interested in obtaining results to discussion and to refine the model if necessary.

Tables and Figures
Table 1

Autor(s)	Year	Corporate brand mix conceptualisation	Corporate brand management mix conceptualisation
Kapferer	1991, 2008	Brand identity prism – six facets: physical, personality, culture, relationship, reflection and self-image	Congruence between the six facets of the brand identity and the values of the organisation expressed in the cultural facet
de Chernatony	1999	Personality, culture, relationships, vision, positioning and presentation of the brand	Congruence between brand identity and brand reputation
Balmer	2002b	Strategy, culture, communication, structure and corporate brand covenant	Inter relationships between Strategy, culture, communication, structure and corporate brand covenant stakeholders, reputations and environment
Hatch e Schultz	2001, 2003	Strategic vision, organisational culture and vision	Inter-relationships between variables

Figure 1



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Antecedents And Consequences Of Brand Trust In The Baby Care Toiletries Brands: The Moderating Role Of Mother's Big Five Personality Variables. A Conceptual Framework

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Purpose of the Paper

Brand Trust which is an extension of general trust theory, has gained the attention and popularity among the marketing academia. The validity of the Brand Trust concept has been explored further in many of the contemporary researches, who have tried to develop the notion further. The current study through extensive literature review and primary qualitative research has proposed a model examining antecedents and consequences of brand trust in baby care toiletries product category. Additionally, the comprehensive causal model of brand trust also proposes the moderating effect of mother's big five personality trait on brand trust and its antecedents in the baby care toiletries brand category in the Indian context. Study has conceptualized two dimensions of brand trust namely cognitive and affective brand trust influenced by Lewis & Weigert (1985) social trust theory. Cognitive brand trust is defined as the knowledge driven trust based on 'good reasons' of which brand to be chosen, under which respect & under what circumstances. Whereas, affective brand trust is the trust based on the emotional bond between brand and customers.

Unlike earlier works on brand trust, this paper has proposed distinct and separate antecedents for developing cognitive and affective brand trust in the context of baby care toiletries brands. Brand competency, brand credibility, brand reputation, value for money and expert opinion are proposed as antecedents for developing cognitive brand trust, whereas, brand intimacy, social influencers, mass media influencers are proposed as antecedents for affective brand trust. Causal relationship between the two dimensions of brand trust is also studied. The study is related to the Indian context where the social information factors such as family, friends, neighbors and professional expert opinion such as medical physicians play crucial role in developing brand trust among the parents of new born. Hence, their role is also studied in developing framework for brand trust.

Effort is also made to propose the moderating role of big five personality traits of mothers in influencing the relationship between brand trust and its antecedent variables. Mothers with different personality trait are proposed to develop cognitive and affective brand trust for baby care toiletries brand in different manners. Brand commitment and word of mouth are proposed as consequences of both cognitive and affective brand trust. The present paper which is an offshoot of the ongoing research by the authors is being considered for empirical validation in the emerging market context.

In the past, much research has been undertaken for the purchase of different products of grown up kids but not for infant or babies, where the purchase decision is totally in the hands of parents and the infant has no influence on it. Few or little work (Broadbridge and Morgan, 2000; Yee and Chin, 2007; Ballester and Aleman, 2000) has been done with respect to the purchase decision of baby care products. Since, trust is the most essential factor while choosing a baby toiletries product brand, hence, it has become important to study the various variables that an individual considers before developing trust for it.

The purpose of the paper can be defined as:

- To propose the important factors for generating cognitive and affective brand trust in baby care toiletries brands.
- To propose the consequences of cognitive and affective brand Trust in case of baby care toiletries brands.
- To propose how the choice criteria differ for mothers with different personality traits.

Literature Review

Baby care product category is a category where the buyer and the user are different (Prendergast and Wong, 2003) and involves high level of perceived risk. It is a product category where parents are initially unable to judge brand performance as consumption is undertaken by babies or toddlers (Broadbridge and Morgan, 2000). Baby care toiletries brands requires great deal of trust building since parents would hardly purchase any brands for their infants without knowing and trusting it. Baby care product category involves great inherent risk (Ballester and Aleman, 2000) and hence parents would want to purchase the reliable and the most trust worthy brand.

Parents for this product category require greater assurance about quality than the price (Broadbridge and Morgan, 2000). Researches have indicated that mothers do not mind paying high to get quality products (Yee and Chin, 2007) and even willing to sacrifice their own purchases (Broadbridge and Morgan, 2000) to buy the trusted brand for their baby. Factors such as brand image, advertisements, friend's advice, and brand benefits are empirically tested to form parent's perception towards baby product brands (Yee and Chin, 2007). Satisfaction from brand usage experience also constitutes brand trust in this category (Ballester and Aleman, 2000). Place of purchase is also an important determinant in the purchase of baby care products. Medical physician's advice is found as an important factor in determining baby food brands (Yee and Chin, 2007). Previous research (Broadbridge and Morgan, 2000) reports that the product reliability and performance are essential elements while selecting a baby care toiletries brand. Brand distinct positioning (Chernatony, 1989) and reputation (Afzal et al., 2010) serves as a strong binding force for the consumers and preventing them to switch to other brands. Brand switching is usually not seen if parents are satisfied with the baby product (Yee and Chin, 2007). Various factors are thus said to build brand trust in case of baby care products. Outcomes of the brand trust in case of baby care products results into long term commitment with the brand and word of mouth behaviour by satisfied mothers to other new mothers.

Studies have also indicated that the big five personality characteristics of mothers affect their relationship with the baby (Clark et al, 2000; Verhoeven et al, 2007; Kochanska et al, 2004). This study has classified the mothers on the basis of Big Five personality traits of Neuroticism, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Openness, and Extraversion. Mulyanegara et al (2009) in his paper has indicated the relationship between these big five personality traits and brand preference of the customers. These big five personality traits indicates that how mothers falling into different traits would develop brand trust for baby care toiletries brands based on importance paid to different antecedent variables. Hence based on above literatures, a conceptual framework of brand trust is proposed.

Methodology

A theoretical framework on the basis of extensive literature review and qualitative study is proposed to find the antecedents and consequences variables of brand trust in the context of baby care toiletries brand. Apart from the literature support, primary research was conducted to develop propositions. In depth interview of a marketing team member of Johnson & Johnson, Mumbai was done to get the understanding of the consumer behavior in this market. Also, later, to test the various propositions developed on the basis of literatures; in depth interview of twenty mothers of babies age between 0-3 years was conducted. Thus, to develop theoretical framework for the study, both literature support and primary research is conducted.

Major Results

The paper identified five antecedents of cognitive brand trust and three antecedents for affective brand trust in the context of baby care toiletries brands. Also proposed are two consequences (commitment and word of mouth) of brand trust for the present study on the basis of literature review and interview of mothers. Big five personality variables of Neuroticism, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Openness, and Extraversion are found to moderate the relationship between brand trust and its antecedents.

Implications

The baby care market is in the nascent stage of development in India, but soon it will emerge as one of the world's fastest growing markets. Moreover, large population base is in 0-4 years and parents increasing preference to spend more on baby products will drive the market to new horizons in near future. Thus, the research is helpful for marketers to formulate strategy accordingly. This paper provides the baby toiletries brand companies the specific knowledge of the process by which cognitive and affective brand trust is developed for their brands among mothers. The results suggest marketing strategy implications for companies that what essential elements they must keep in mind while promoting their brand and winning trust of mothers. Since India, has the highest number of infants and baby care market is expanding faster, thus the findings of the study can be beneficial for the companies in tackling competition. Companies would also understand how to position their brand among different types of mothers and win their trust. The present study might also attract more researches in the less researched context of baby care product brands.

Keywords: Brand Trust, Personality, Commitment, WOM, Brand Intimacy

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Types of Value and Cost in Consumer Relationships with Green Brands

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Purpose
Growing concerns for the natural environment at seemingly all levels of society have led to a considerable increase in the number of products marketed as environmentally friendly (Jansson, Marell, & Nordlund 2010; Webb, Mohr, & Harris, 2008). The supportive consumer behaviour towards green brands is nowadays a market reality that results in an important growth of the sales of such brands (Bonini & Oppenheim, 2008; Chen, 2010; Roper, 2007). The academic research tough lacks insight on the factors that contribute to the repetitive purchase behaviour toward green brands. Findings on the drivers of the consumer-brand relationship have received limited empirical evidence in this specific context; thus, consumer relationships with green brands is a very special category of consumer-brand relationships that remains yet unexplored.

Earlier studies have focused on describing the underlying values, attitudes and intentions towards environmentally friendly products (Follows & Jobber, 2000; Minton & Rose, 1997; Montoro Rios, Martinez, Moreno, & Soriano, 2006) applying mostly the Theory of Reasoned Action (Azjen & Fishbein, 1980), the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Azjen, 1985) or different "loose" versions of values-beliefs-attitudes-behaviour models. Findings suggest that although individuals do perceive environmental issues as serious and support environmental protection, their environmental attitudes do not consistently translate into environmental behaviours (Bamberg, 2003; Nordlund & Garvill, 2002). Even the most environmentally conscious consumers do not choose brands merely on the basis of their environmental aspects; rather, the choice is always a multi-attribute choice where the consumer has to trade off between various product attributes (Rokka & Uusitalo, 2008).

In the present paper we postulate that environmental consumer behaviour should be embodied in a more realistic choice situation, in which consumers have to balance their preferences over different product benefits. The paper applies the Customer Value (CV) approach in an attempt to identify all possible factors that facilitate or hinder the adoption of green brands by the consumers. After all, recent research into the relationship marketing area regards CV as a prerequisite for relationship development (e.g. Moliner, Sanchez, Rodriguez, & Callarisa, 2007; Oh, 2003; Parasuraman & Grewal, 2000).

Our conceptual framework, as presented in Figure 1, integrates Zeithaml's (1988) view that value and sacrifice perceptions drive purchase decisions. In an attempt to include all possible types of value that contribute to the adoption of green brands, our framework incorporates insights from Holbrook's (2006) conceptualization of types of value, which is considered the most extensive in describing types of value in comparison to other conceptualizations (e.g. Sheth, Newman, & Gross, 1991; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001). The overall sequence of effects in our model is that types of value and sacrifice influence perceptions of CV of the green brand, which in turn affects relationship quality and consumer loyalty toward the green brand.

The types of value, as proposed by Holbrook (2006), fall into the broad categories of economic, social, hedonic and altruistic value. *Economic* or *functional value* describes the perceived utility acquired from an alternative's capacity for functional, utilitarian or physical performance (Sheth et al., 1991), which is also similar to product quality, having a positive effect on CV (Baker, Parasuraman, Grewal, & Voss, 2002; Bolton & Drew, 1991; Dodds, Monroe, & Grewal, 1991; Grewal, Monroe, & Krishnan, 1998). *Social value*, defined as the perceived utility acquired from an alternative's association with one or more specific social groups (Sheth et al., 1991; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001), has been demonstrated to contribute to brand commitment and loyalty (Ponder & Barnes, 2004). *Hedonic value* arises from consumers' own pleasure in consumption experiences appreciated for their own sake as ends in themselves (Mathwick, Malhotra, & Rigdon, 2001; Sheth et al., 1991; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001), having received little support in the general context of consumer-brand relationships. Finally, *altruistic value* is experienced when engaging in ethically desirable practices in which "virtue is its own reward" (Holbrook, 2006). All the above presented types of value have a direct effect on the CV component (Blackwell, Szeinbach, Barnes, Garner, & Bush, 1999).

On the other hand, the literature on perceived value lacks a similarly inclusive, well-recognized typology of costs, as with the case of types of value. Thus, in an attempt to be exhaustive in all types of relationship costs that have been identified by branding literature, we propose the following 6 categories of costs that negatively affect the perceived CV of green brands and thus, the relationship development.

Previous studies examining the impact of *price* consistently suggest a negative linkage to CV (e.g. De Pelsmacker, Driesen, & Rayp, 2005; Dodds et al., 1991; Grewal et al., 1998; Petrick, 2002), although environmentally concerned consumers express a tendency to accept higher prices (e.g. Creyer & Ross, 1997; D'Souza, Taghian, & Khosla, 2007).

Non-monetary factors, such as *effort* required to purchase the product (Cronin, Brady, Brand, Hightower, & Shemwell, 1997; Petrick, 2002), are also involved in the decision to adopt a brand. Limited availability of the brand to distribution channels is an obstacle to consumer purchase behaviour towards green brands (Baker et al., 2002; Yoo, Donthu, & Lee, 2000). *Time costs* (waiting time, travel time, searching time) also negatively affect CV (Bender, 1964; Huber, Herrmann, & Morgan, 2001; Zeithaml, 1988). Moreover, *psychological costs* (such as frustration, anxiety, annoyance) and *evaluation costs* (associated with the effort to collect information and evaluate alternative brands) have also been identified by literature (Burnham, Frels, & Mahajan, 2003). Finally, *performance risks* or *uncertainty costs* (perceptions of risk surrounding the brand performance) are negatively related to CV (Bettman, 1973; Jones, Mothersbaugh, & Beatty, 2002; Sweeney, Soutar, & Johnson, 1999).

Although these types of value and cost have received empirical support over various product categories, in the specific context of green brands previous research has not offered a systematic conceptualization of CV. Thus, the only types of value that have been identified are social value (Oliver & Lee, 2010) and altruistic value (Bhattacharya, Korschun, & Sen, 2009; Pickett-Baker & Ozaki, 2008). As far as the cost component is concerned, the limited availability of the green brand (Bhate & Lawler, 1997; Shaw & Clarke, 1999), the lack of information (Carrigan & Attalla, 2001; de Pelsmacker et al., 2005) and the potential sacrifice on product performance (Luchs, Naylor, Irwin, & Raghunathan, 2010) are the only empirically tested types of cost.

The extent to which the consumer perceives all these different types of value and cost is expected to be moderated by certain psychographic characteristics. First, personal environmental consciousness and its descendents, including beliefs, knowledge and behavioural intentions, guides the general predisposition to act in a pro-environmental way (De Groot & Steg, 2007; Mostafa, 2007; Schlegelmilch, Bohlen & Diamantopoulos, 1996). Furthermore, involvement appears to influence the importance that consumers ascribe to certain product attributes (Sriram & Forman, 1993). Therefore, environmental consciousness and involvement form a framework in which judgments of brand value and its respective trade-offs are completed.

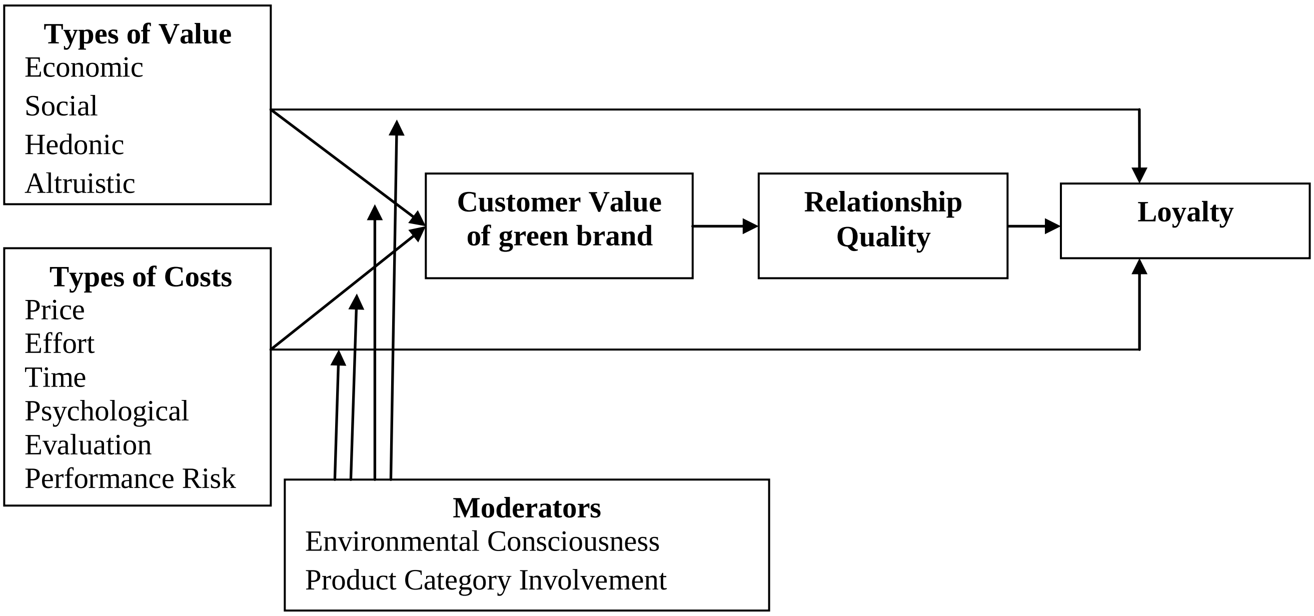
Methodology/ Approach
The study draws upon existing literature in the fields of CV and branding and applies basic findings in the specific context of consumer-green brands relationships. Figure 1 depicts the set of relationships to be empirically tested. The conceptual model warrants empirical validation. Furthermore, quantitative research will examine the relative effect of each type of value and cost on the strength of consumer-green brand relationship. As far as the operationalization of the model is concerned, the researchers will choose two product categories characterised with availability of green brands and of different levels of consumer involvement in order to test the relative effect of the proposed antecedents on mediators and outcomes. Constructs will be measured with well-established scales (e.g. PERVAL scale by Sweeney & Soutar, 2001).

Findings
Research is still at an early stage; since the researchers have developed the conceptual model, the empirical research is being designed.

Research limitations/ Implications
This research enables commencement of the empirical examination of the factors that practically contribute or constrain the consumer building of relationships with green brands.
Moreover, whether types of value and cost have a direct (Baker et al., 2002; Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1996) or indirect mediated by CV (Sweeney et al., 1999; Zeithaml, 1988) effect on consumer behaviour is an unresolved as yet research question attached to several managerial implications; for example, consumers may reject green brands due to the increased effort required to access them or due to their higher prices without considering the types of value that the brand is offering. Thus, future research aiming at testing the effects of types of value and sacrifice on consumer behaviour both directly and directly should be conducted.

Originality/ Value
This conceptual paper is the first to apply an integrated model of CV in the green marketing context. Although previous studies have supported several drivers and barriers regarding the willingness to buy green brands (e.g. price, lack of information), no previous work, either conceptual or empirical, has systematically developed an analytical model of the drivers of CV under a relationship marketing perspective. This research attempts to broaden our understanding of the antecedents that determine the relationship quality between a consumer and a brand, fulfilling an identified gap in the literature of green consumer behaviour (Follows & Jobber, 2000; Thøgersen, 1999). Empirical findings will provide marketing practitioners with knowledge on the utility and sacrifice parameters most important to target green consumers segments.

Figure 1: Conceptual Model



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Session 1.4

Brand Extensions and Culture:
The Impacts of Uncertainty Avoidance and Power Distance on Extension Attitudes

Matthew Allen Hawkins, ESADE, Spain
Jit Jatinder Singh, ESADE, Spain

Virtual Internal Brand Communities: Exploring the Types, Motivations and Outcomes

Fathima Zahara Saleem, ESADE, Spain
Oriol Iglesias, ESADE, Spain

B2B Brand Equity: Understanding the Effects of Switching Costs, Quality of Alternatives, and Customer-Employee Rapport

Galina Biedenbach, Umeå University, Sweden

Revisiting the Conceptualisation of the Employer Brand Phenomenon:
The Brand Equity Approach

Selin Cetinkaya Kudret, King's College London, UK

Social Construction of Meaning: On the Notion of Africa as a Continental Brand

Penelope Muzanenhamo, Warwick Business School, UK
Temi Abimbola, Warwick Business School, UK

Brand Extensions and Culture: The Impacts of Uncertainty Avoidance and Power Distance on Extension Attitudes

Matthew Allen Hawkins, ESADE, Spain
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Introduction

A global brand is the pinnacle of a marketing strategy and the dream of brand managers. The global brand dream is based on the idea of developing a brand in which "positioning, advertising strategy, personality, look, and feel are in most respects the same from one country to another" (Aaker & Joachimsthaler 1999: 137).

Unfortunately, merely obtaining a global brand does not satisfy investors and managers' desire for maximising profits and revenues. One strategy firms employ to increase profits is to introduce a brand extension: offering a new product under an existing brand name. The underlying philosophy behind brand extensions is "that a favourable prior attitude toward current branded products transfers to a new product" (Boush & Loken 1991: 16). Today, global brand managers need reliable guidance on how to address these key variables in the global marketplace (Laroche 2007).

Brand Extensions

Research on brand extensions has predominately focused on what are known as 'perceived fit' variables. At the most basic level perceived fit represents the logic of the parent brand to extend into the new product category and the similarity of the extension to current offerings in the mind of the consumer. Additionally, it is important to recognize the brand image and parent brand portfolio breadth impact extension evaluations. Now research is needed to focus on global brands to fully understand how these key extension variables vary across cultures. For example, Buil and colleagues (2009: 1316) found that the "culture of the country has a significant influence on extension evaluation."

The most immediate research need has to do with the lack of studies focusing on the impact of culture on brand extensions. While previous studies have explored the impact culture has on parent brand image (Foscht, Maloles, Swoboda, Morschett, & Sinha 2008; Guzmán & Paswan 2009; Hsieh & Lindridge 2005) and on the perceived fit of a brand extension (Bottomley & Holden 2001; Monga & John 2007) none have done so within the same study. Further, the authors are not aware of any study that has identified and analyzed why specific cultural dimensions impact extension evaluations.

In effect, prior research has left marketers and researchers with an important unanswered question: What impact do specific cultural dimensions have on extension attitudes?

The next sections discuss the relationships parent brand image, parent brand product portfolio breadth, and perceived fit have on extension attitudes (see figure 1). Then, the expected impact culture has on these relationships are discussed. Lastly, the methodology and conclusion sections are presented.

Parent Portfolio Breadth

Product portfolio breadth is important to consumers because a large product breadth indicates that the brand can produce what they want (Aaker 1996). Research has shown that brands with wide product lines have a higher likelihood of successfully introducing an atypical extension than brands with narrow product lines (Boush & Loken 1991; Keller & Aaker 1992).

Interestingly, brand extension research has found that brands with a narrow product portfolio that introduce typical extensions receive higher favourability ratings, on average, than brands with wide product portfolios (Bapat & Panwar 2009; Boush & Loken 1991; Keller & Aaker 1992; Milberg, Park & McCarthy 1997). Coupled with previous research that found "low similarity extensions led to significantly lower brand attitudes" (Milberg et al., 1997: 133), product portfolio breadth clearly has an impact on extension attitudes.

Brand Image

This study follows Keller's (1993: 3) definition of brand image: the "perception about a brand as reflected by the brand associations held in consumer memory." The scale used measures global brand image, which is preferred since it "works across different product categories" (Martínez, Polo & de Chernatony 2008: 108). The heuristic function of brand image is extremely important and needs to be included in the model because "brand image has a direct positive influence on brand extension attitude" (Martínez, Montaner & Pina 2009: 308).

Perceived Fit

The perceived fit of the brand extension represents the logic and similarity of the extension in the mind of the consumer. Research has found that higher perceived fit ratings lead to more favourable extension attitudes (Boush & Loken 1991; Buil et al., 2009; Dacin & Smith 1994;Martínez et al., 2009; Martínez et al., 2008). Further, evidence supports the idea that negative extension attitudes "stem from consumers' perceptions of poor fit and their scepticism about a firm's ability to produce a good product when it is so technically dissimilar to current products" (Milberg et al., 1997: 126).

This study seeks to replicate the prior findings presented above and conduct new tests to determine how culture impacts the strength of these relationships. Accordingly, the cultural framework used in this study is now presented.

Cultural Considerations

Culture is "the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category from another" (Hofstede 2001: 9). A person's culture is developed through socialisation (de Mooij 2004) by institutions such as the family, education system, and political system (Hofstede 2001). Thus, culture can cause people who receive the same message to interpret the message differently.

Bottomley and Holden's (2001) review of eight international empirical studies found that culture appears to have an effect on consumer evaluations of brand extensions. Their findings were supported by Henseler et al. (2010), who conducted a multiple regression analysis that showed culture impacts the strength of the relationships between variables. However, both studies did not develop specific propositions to test nor offer detailed rationales for the changes in relationship strength; which this study seeks to address.

Impact of Culture

This study operationalizes culture through Hofstede's cultural framework. Hofestede is one of the most popular and commonly used tools to measure culture (Henseler et al. 2010). This study focuses on two of the five cultural dimensions proposed by Hofstede. The following sections review the two cultural dimensions used in this study.

Power Distance

Power distance addresses how cultures view or accept inequality between groups (de Mooij 2004; Hofstede 2001). Cultures with a larger power distance are more accepting of hierarchy and giving/taking orders while low power distance cultures place less standing with authority and are more independent (de Mooij 2004). It should be noted that the scale used to measure power distance does not "examine the actual degree of power that a person has but the extent to which the person, regardless of his or her actual power, expects and accepts power disparity" (Zhang, Winterich & Mittal 2010, p.945)

Global brands can be seen as a symbol of success and power. This is perhaps one of the reasons why Chinese consumers prefer larger companies over smaller companies (Cayla & Arnould 2008). Powerful global brands introducing extensions could be seen as producing inequality in the marketplace. Then, consumers from low power distance cultures could adjust extension attitudes through the introduction of new information into their decision making process. In this manner, low power distance cultures will process more outside information than high power distance cultures. The resulting cognitive crowding could account for why prior research found that narrow portfolio brands receive higher favourability ratings for typical extensions than wide product portfolio brands.

Accordingly, this relationship should be more evident for wide product portfolio brands because the display of power will be greater and result in consumers directing more cognitive resources at understanding the inequality aspect of the global brand rather than looking for links with the parent brand. This leads to the following propositions:

Proposition 1: Respondents from high power distance cultures will rate the favourability of extensions higher than low power distance cultures.

Proposition 2: When rating extensions from parent brands with wide product portfolios, respondents from high power distance cultures will rate the favourability of extensions higher than low power distance cultures.

Uncertainty Avoidance

Cultures that have a high uncertainty avoidance ranking prefer order, dislike ambiguity, and have trouble tolerating differences (Hofstede, et al. 2002). Cultures that have a low uncertainty avoidance ranking are characterised by their acceptance of competition; openness to ideas, change, and innovation; and, comfortableness in unstructured situations (Hofstede 2001; de Mooij 2004).

While the extension might not be truly innovative, extensions, by definition, are innovations for the parent brand. Research by Klink and Smith (2001) found that consumers who are more innovative and willing to purchase products before their friends generally provide positive attitude ratings for extensions. Further, individuals high in uncertainty avoidance tend to prefer more information prior to making decisions (Reardon, et al. 2006). Therefore, the following proposition is proposed:

Proposition 3: Respondents from low uncertainty avoidance cultures will rate the favourability of extensions higher than respondents from high uncertainty avoidance cultures.

Methodology

Real brands are used in this study because consumer knowledge about brand image and product portfolio is crucial; however, brand familiarity is controlled for. The brands tested in this study were selected through two pre-tests. Pre-test one consisted of students (n=33) listing global brands with narrow and wide product portfolios and potential brand extensions. In pre-test two, another group of students (n=161) were given two surveys, one for a narrow and one for a wide portfolio brand. The students rated their familiarity with and the perceived quality level of the parent brand and perceived fit of four possible extensions per brand. Based on those results, Coca-Cola and Nestlé were selected to be the tested brands. Similar brand selection procedures have been used in prior studies (e.g. Martínez et al., 2008).

The survey is currently being administered in multiple countries using internet-based and traditional pen and paper formats.

Conclusion

This study expands on prior extension research by testing proven relationships between variables across multiple cultures. It is expected that that respondents from low uncertainty cultures will hold more favourable extension attitudes than respondents from high uncertainty cultures. Additionally, this research will discover if high power distance cultures will rate the extension favourability higher than low power distance cultures.

Lastly, most marketing managers understand that they need to adapt portions of their marketing mix in order to develop the desired image in the minds of consumers, who are located in multiple and diverse cultures (Czinkota & Ronkainen 2001; Ghemawat 2001; Ho & Merrilees 2007; Hsieh & Lindridge 2005; Kapferer 2005; Kotler 1986). This study provides guidance to marketers to develop effective brand extension introduction strategies for global brands and contributes to academic research by testing the impact specific cultural dimensions have on the relationships among key extension variables.

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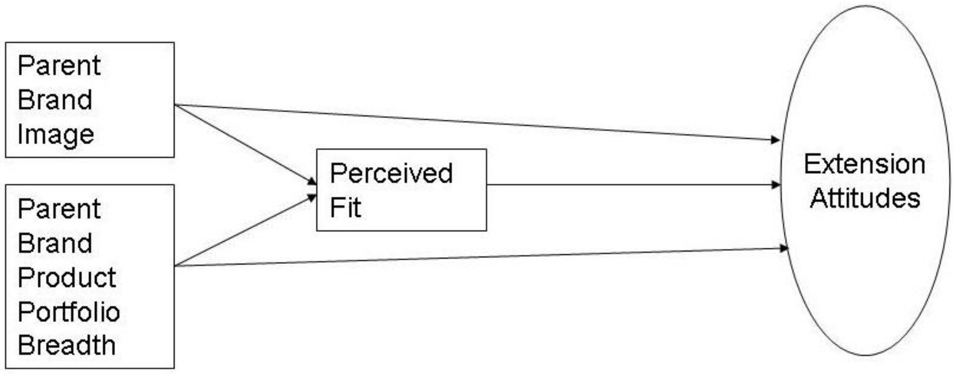
Figure 1: Extension Attitudes Conceptual Map



Source: Authors.

Virtual Internal Brand Communities: Exploring the Types, Motivations and Outcomes

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Introduction

The prevalence of interactive technology and exponential growth of social media has changed the face of branding both externally and internally (Stuth & Mancuso, 2010). The use of virtual internal brand communities (VIBC) is gaining momentum in organizations in order to increase employee support, especially among multinational corporations, such as Emirates Airlines, Ernst & Young, IBM, and educational institutions. However, the literature lacks a clear understanding of VIBC (Devasagayam, Buff, Aurand, & Judson, 2010).

As such, this paper develops theory on VIBC, which is relevant because of the growing importance of VIBC in practice. Additionally building theory demarcates this field and gives focus to future theoretical advancements. In this respect, the aim of this paper is two-fold: firstly, to create a typology of VIBC; and secondly, to study the motivations for and barriers to joining a specific VIBC.

The following section highlights the key literature, showing the progression from internal branding to VIBCs.

From Internal Branding to VIBC

With a sharpened focus on corporate and service brands the role of employees and consequently the role of internal branding has increased in importance. At the heart of internal branding lies the challenge of aligning employee behaviour with corporate brand values. This alignment is crucial since corporate brands interact with several stakeholders (Ind, 1997), who form their perceptions of the brand based on their overall interaction with employees (Klaus & Maklan, 2007). Therefore, misalignment between external brand communication and brand promise delivery poses a serious threat to corporate brand credibility (e.g. Anismova & Mavondo, 2010).

Internal branding facilitates brand citizenship behavior (Burmann & Zeplin, 2005) and increases brand performance (Punjaisiri, Evanschitzky, & Wilson, 2009). Internal branding is also crucial in maintaining consistency between external communication and brand promise delivery, reducing the variability of service offering, and aligning staff behavior with brand values (Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2005). Desired outcomes of internal branding are achieved through the dissemination of brand ideologies, internal brand communication (e.g. Thomson, de Chernatony, Arganbright, & Khan, 2000), brand centered HR (e.g. Punjaisiri et al., 2009), and brand leadership (e.g. Morhart, Herzog, & Tomczak, 2009).

An emerging area in this field explores internal brand communities (IBC) (Devasagaym et al., 2010), which fosters employee identification with the brand. Since IBC research is relatively new, the starting point for theory building is taken from existing literature on communities, especially consumer based communities. Specifically, authors have studied consumption communities (e.g. McAlexander, Schouten, & Koenig, 2002), marketplace communities (e.g. Jae, Choi, Qualls, & Han, 2008), brand communities (e.g. Algesheimer, Dholakia, & Herrmann 2005), and online communities (e.g. Schau & Muniz, 2002). Since internal brand communities are unique because it concerns employees, consumer based communities simply serve as a guide to start theory building.

At a broad level in the consumer communities literature, there are user-initiated and company-initiated brand communities. User-initiated brand communities (Schau & Muniz, 2002) are those created by fans or enthusiasts, whereas company-initiated ones are created or sponsored by a certain brand (Algesheimer et al., 2005). Secondly, there are virtual and physical brand communities. The former includes social interaction not bound by geography and exists in cyberspace, whereas the latter includes social interaction regarding a particular brand during the physical congregation of members (e.g. Muniz & O'Guinn, 2002). The emotional attachment to both types of consumer brand communities is suggested to be similar (Jae et al., 2008). Lastly, sociologists distinguish between two types of virtual communities, namely small group based virtual communities and network based virtual communities. The former entails close-knit online groups with strong relationships, whereas the latter includes loosely knit geographically dispersed groups that interact for specific reasons (Dholakia, Bagozzi, & Pearo 2004). As we can see, several typologies have been created for consumer brand communities' literature; however, typologies haven't been developed for internal brand communities.

Drawing from virtual consumer communities research by Dholakia et al., (2004), a model identifying the motives for consumers participating in virtual communities is presented. The authors identify the different motives for partaking in network and small group based virtual community types. Social bonding, relationship maintenance, problem solving, persuasion, and informational purposes are additional user needs fulfilled by different technologies (Flanagin & Metzger, 2001). At a more basic level the technology acceptance model 3 (TAM) explains how employees decide to adopt and use information technology in the workplace (Venkatesh & Bala, 2008). However, participation in virtual communities is not limited to individual determinants, but also community influences (Bagozzi & Dholakia, 2002); social processes such as internalisation, compliance and identification are also shown to have an effect on user participation in online communities (Zhou, 2011).

When comparing the attitudinal outcomes of internal branding to attitudinal outcomes of consumer brand communities, similar results are documented in the literature. Both internal branding and brand communities facilitate desired attitudinal outcomes, among employees and consumers respectively. Internal branding facilitates employee identification, brand loyalty (Punjaisiri et al., 2009), brand internalization, compliance (Morhart et al., 2009), and brand commitment (Aurand, Gorchels, & Bishop, 2005). Likewise brand communities enhance consumer identification (Schau & Muniz, 2002), commitment to the brand community (Kim et al., 2008), engagement and normative pressure (Algesheimer et al., 2005), and loyalty to the brand (Jang et al., 2008). The overlap indicates that the concept of brand communities can be applied internally to organizations and can lead to desired attitudinal outcomes, similar to that of internal branding.

As such the research questions are as follows:

- What types of VIBC are present in organizations that utilize VIBC?
- What are employee motivations and barriers to join a particular type of VIBC identified in the typology?

Methodology

As the body of literature related to IBC and VIBC is scarce (Devasagaym, et al., 2010), this study is exploratory in nature. Therefore, this research uses case study research design that generates theory through triangulation (Eisenhardt, 1989).

This paper involves the study of four large multinational firms with a diverse workforce that spans several continents. The selected brands have in place virtual communities that vary from being company initiated to employee initiated. The brands have virtual platforms created by the organization that all employees have access to. Moreover, there are employee/user-initiated groups on Facebook, Twitter, and employee blogs that facilitate social interaction among community members. Because of the brands global presence and international workforce of geographically dispersed employees, the use of VIBC is prominent. This is in line with Eisenhardt’s (1989) approach to case studies of studying extreme cases to highlight the dynamics of the relationships between constructs in order to develop theory.

As this research is not primarily theory driven, the authors will conduct in-depth interviews with managers and employees responsible for initiating the IBCs, as a preliminary investigation. This will provide a starting point, as has been done in other ethnographic works (Muniz & O’Guinn, 2002). Additionally, consultants who have partaken in such efforts will be included in interviews as well. Consultants are often used as a source of information in internal branding studies since large brands often implement internal branding using external consultants (e.g. de Chernatony, Drury, & Segal-Horn, 2003).

Consumer brand community research has often focused on the use of ethnography to discover and understand the dynamics of brand communities (Muniz & O;Guinn, 2002; McAlexander et al., 2002). Therefore, netography (Kozinets, 2002) will be undertaken to build a typology, and explore motivation and barriers to join. Netography is a form of ethnography where the researchers join the virtual communities in order to obtain real time data and understand relationships. Past quantitative studies have suggested the use of netography in studying virtual communities to obtain a broader understanding of the field (Jae et al., 2008). The use of netography would lend greater understanding of the dynamics of the relationships between VIBC, and the emergent motivations and barriers to join.

Expected Findings

Emergent types of VIBC would be identified, ranging from organizational platforms to communities surrounding a particular profession within a brand. Additionally, motivations of employees to join and participate in each type of VIBC are expected to vary depending on the need the VIBC satisfies (Dholakia et al., 2004).

Implications

The primary research implication of this study would be to provide a foundation for future research on internal brand communities. Potential future avenues include studying attitudinal and behavioural outcomes of particular types of VIBC. Managerial implications include allowing managers to strategically decide which types of VIBC they should pursue based on the motivations of employees to join. Moreover, since VIBC is on the rise, but still not the norm, this study would emphasize the role of technology in fostering desired attitudinal and behavioural changes that allow the brand promise to be delivered consistently with brand values.

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B2B Brand Equity: Understanding the Effects of Switching Costs, Quality of Alternatives, and Customer-Employee Rapport

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Purpose

The main purpose of the study is to investigate the effects of switching costs, quality of alternatives and customer-employee rapport on the development of B2B brand equity. The process of brand equity development is captured in this study through the hierarchical effects between four dimensions of brand equity. Besides evaluating the impact of switching costs and quality of alternatives on B2B brand equity, the study investigates the impact of more affective and experiential factor, which is customer-employee rapport. In addition to evaluating the impact of these factors on brand awareness, brand associations, and perceived quality, the study compares the specific effects that switching costs, quality of alternatives, and customer-employee rapport have on brand loyalty, which is the final dimension in the process of brand equity development.

Design/Methodology/Approach

The brand equity concept is conceptualized in the study as "the differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of the brand" (Keller, 1993). Following the classical model (Aaker, 1991), brand equity is formed by four dimensions, which are brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality, brand loyalty. The relevance of these four dimensions is shown in previous studies on B2B brand equity (Bendixen, Bukasa, & Abratt, 2004; Hutton, 1997; Michell, King, & Reast, 2001; van Riel, de Mortanges, & Streukens, 2005). However, most of these studies utilize only some dimensions of brand equity in their conceptual models. Only three previous studies provide some empirical evidence about four dimensions of B2B brand equity and the hierarchical effects between these dimensions (Biedenbach & Marell, 2010; Gordon, Calantone, & di Benedetto, 1993; Kim & Hyun, 2010). The study advances knowledge on B2B brand equity by providing additional empirical evidence about the hierarchy of effects, which captures the process of brand equity development from brand awareness to brand associations, and then to perceived quality and brand loyalty. Furthermore, the study makes a theoretical contribution by examining the impact of such important factors as switching costs, quality of alternatives, and customer-employee rapport on this process.

The traditional view upon the organizational buying behavior emphasizes the relevance of more rational and cognitive factors, for example functionality and performance, for the choice of goods and services in the B2B setting (Anderson, Narus, & Narayandas, 2009). While consideration of switching costs and quality of alternatives is more in line with this traditional view, the consideration of customer-employee rapport highlights the importance that affective factors have in the organizational buying behavior. Since most of the studies on B2B brand equity focused on analyzing brand equity of goods, more affective factors, which are extremely relevant for the choice and consequently for brand equity of B2B services, are rather unexplored in previous research. The study aims to address this gap in research by considering the impact of customer-employee rapport on the dimensions of brand equity. Customer-employee rapport is conceptualized in this study as "a customer's perception of having an enjoyable interaction with a service provider employee, characterized by a personal connection between the two interactants" (Gremler & Gwinner, 2000, p. 92). Considering the positive effect of customer-employee rapport on customer perception of interaction with company employee, this factors is expected to have positive effect on brand equity. Similarly high switching costs, which are the costs of switching to alternative service provider (Lam, Shankar, Erramilli & Murthy, 2004), are hypothesized to have positive effect on brand equity. High quality of alternatives, which is the evaluation of quality of the best alternative brand (Breivik & Thorbjørnsen, 2008), is expected to have negative effect on brand equity.

The data was collected as a part of the follow-up study investigating the development of B2B brand equity, its antecedents and consequences in the professional services industry. The CEOs and CFOs of companies buying auditing and business consultancy services from one of the Big Four auditing companies were chosen as the respondents. The response rate was equal to 21% (n=632). The comparison of the respondents with the non-respondents on their turnover and number of employees (Armstrong and Overton, 1977; Collier and Bienstock, 2007) did not identify the non-response bias. The measures of the constructs were adapted from previous research on brand equity (Aaker, 1991, 1996; Aaker, 1997; Biedenbach & Marell 2010; Koçak, Abimbola, & Özer, 2007; Pappu, Quester, & Cooksey 2005; Washburn & Plank 2002; Yoo & Donthu 2001), switching costs (Lam, Shankar, Erramilli & Murthy, 2004), quality of alternatives (Breivik & Thorbjørnsen, 2008), and customer-employee rapport (Gremler & Gwinner 2000; Hennig-Thurau, Groth, Paul, & Gremler, 2006). Structural equation modeling was used to examine the hypothesized effects.

Findings

The results of the study show significant hierarchical effects between brand association, perceived quality, and brand loyalty. The lack of effect between brand awareness and brand association can be explained by specifics of the selected sample. Due to direct experience with the company employees, the respondents might tend to develop brand associations based on their perception of this experience instead of brand awareness. The findings indicate that high switching costs have positive effects on perceived quality and brand loyalty, while high quality of alternatives has negative effects on brand associations, perceived quality, and brand loyalty. Customer employee rapport was found to have positive effects on brand associations, perceived quality, and brand loyalty. Furthermore, customer-employee rapport had the stronger effect on brand loyalty compared to the effects of switching costs and quality of alternatives, which shows importance of this affective factor for the development of B2B brand equity.

Research Implications/Limitations
The study highlights the relevance of affective factors and their impact on B2B brand equity. Taking into consideration these findings, future studies can replicate this study in other B2B settings. Furthermore, future studies can examine the impact of other affective factors besides customer-employee rapport on B2B brand equity.

Practical Implications
The study provides marketing managers with a clear overview of how B2B brand equity is developed across different dimensions. The study contributes to their understanding of the factors, which have significant impact on the process of brand equity development. The findings highlight how brand equity can be increased by focusing on more affective and emotional interaction between a customer and a company employee.

Originality/Value
The study contributes to branding research by demonstrating that besides the cognitive factors, as for example switching costs and quality of alternatives, the affective factors such as customer-employee rapport have important impact on B2B brand equity. The study makes a theoretical contribution by considering the factors, which were not examined in prior research on B2B brand equity. In addition, the study provides empirical evidence about the hierarchy of effects between four dimensions of brand equity.

Keywords: Brand equity, customer-employee rapport, switching costs, quality of alternatives, organizational decision making

Paper Type: Research paper

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Revisiting the Conceptualisation of the Employer Brand Phenomenon: The Brand Equity Approach

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Introduction

It dates back less than two decades that human resources and marketing practitioners discovered *the name of the employer acting as a brand*, which was already embedded in the organisation, once the organisation began hiring people for accomplishment of its organisational objectives. The extant literature is in its infancy yet in conceptually and empirically investigating the employer brand (EB) concept.

Despite of the fact, there a number of robust theories in marketing; organisational behaviour (OB) and human resources (HR) literatures endorsing the background for conceptually and empirically investigating this interdisciplinary phenomenon. Resource-based view (Barney, 1991) sheds light to the rationale behind branding the employment experience in the sense that if positioned as an intangible asset, EB serves to provide the organisation with the competitive advantage over its rivals (Aaker, 1989; Barney, 1991; Porter, 1990) competing to attract, engage and retain the qualified human capital possessing transferrable skills, which is the subject of the fierce global competition in the workforce market (Chambers, Foulon, Handfield-Jones, Hankin, & Michaels III, 1998). Brand equity tenets and branding literature facilitates investigation of the EB phenomenon like a product/service/experience to be branded to external and internal stakeholders (Aaker, 1991, 1996; Keller, 1993, 2001). Social identity theory taps to the organisational identity, which is an integral part of the EB, and captures organisational identity's importance in explaining employee's identification with the employing organisation (Alvesson, 1990; Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994; Edwards, 2005). Recruitment literature investigates the concept of employer attractiveness along with the instrumental and symbolic organisational personality attributes as antecedents of attractiveness; and scrutinises the employer brand image that fall into the range of the EB phenomenon as well (Cable & Turban, 2003; Ewing, Pitt, de Bussy, & Berthon, 2002; Knox & Freeman, 2006; Lievens, 2007; Lievens & Highhouse, 2003; Lievens, Hoye, & Schreurs, 2005; Lievens, Van Hoye, & Anseel, 2007). Psychological contract theory unveils the mutual tacit deal between the employee and employer, which is a derivative of perceived subjective states and contemporary contextual dynamics and by doing so, contributes to EB literature (Guest, 1998a, 1998b; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1989; Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998).

Apparently the aforementioned extant literature taps different dimensions of the EB from their own perspectives. The purpose of this work is introducing a holistic and novel approach to conceptualisation of the phenomenon, further research shall enable empirical exhibition of employer brand's organisational and financial outcomes.

Critical Review of the Extant Literature

Conceptualisations and definitions of EB construct in the extant literature were reviewed from following perspectives:

- To what extent they reflect the rationale behind the phenomenon, which addresses the shifting dynamics of the global human capital market (*the depth of the concept*);
- To what extent they reflect the exchange relationship entailing mutual stakes between employer, employees and prospective employees (*the pragmatic aspect*); and
- To what extent they tap the dimensions of this interdisciplinary phenomenon (*the breadth of the concept*).

It is evident that there is a prominent emphasis on the benefits for the employee side in the extant EB literature, with a few explanations recognising contribution of organisational associations *(the breadth)* and the reciprocal nature of the phenomenon entailing mutual stakes *(pragmatic aspect).*

Considering the aforementioned perspectives underpinning the critical review, one can address the following gaps in conceptualisation and definition of the EB phenomenon:

Gaps in Reflecting the Rationale behind the Phenomenon: Shifting Dynamics of the Human Capital Market

Towards the beginning of the 21st century, the rapid advance of technology; relatively free flow of capital, people and information around the world; and the exacerbating increase in the number of ageing people financed by the current work force, gave rise to a stand-still in the supply of the qualified human capital, who keeps pace with the rapidly changing business roles by developing transferrable competencies, while the demand for this special type of work force is rising (Chambers, et al., 1998). As the world is turning to be a huge single market of every kind of demand and supply, including that for the human capital, the state of opportunities lead employees to seek for diverse employment experiences, which is only possible for them by adapting their competencies from one role and market to another. Those, who can meet this challenge, would be better off by taking the control of their own career development instead of seeking for life-long employment at a single organisation. This shift is marked by the literature with the old vs. new psychological contract (Cavanaugh & Raymond, 1999). The main thrust of the war for human capital and the subsequent shift in the psychological contract is the intangible assets' power on organisational performance. Intangibles of the organisation; like the human capital serving to organisational objectives, or high brand equities, provide the organisation with competitive advantage over its rivals (Aaker, 1989; Barney, 1991; Porter, 1990).

Though partially ignored by the emerging EB literature, war for the strategic human capital; shift in the psychological contract; and the resource-based view provide integral backgrounds for the rationale of the EB phenomenon.

Gaps in terms of Reciprocity

The employment brand is literally *constructed* as a multi-party bid by the employer, current employees and the prospective employees. In a sense, if managed carefully, the employer gives signals via its EB to current and prospective employees about the objectives and expectations of that organisation, which may function as an encouragement or discouragement for people to *engage* themselves with that organisation. Both employer and employees have embedded interests in this exchange.

Gaps in Holistically Embracing Essential Dimensions

Extant literature already taps instrumental features for current/prospective employees; organisational associations and to some extent, employer's gets. However, the EB construct should entail other dimensions as well, which can be discovered through handling the employment experience like any product/service/customer experience that is branded. This will take the discussion to the brand equity approach.

Filling in the Gaps

De-constructing the Employer Brand Construct: Adaptation of Brand Equity Framework

Addressing dimensions of the EB construct through customer-based brand equity framework would serve to extend the EB literature. In this study, we benefit from the brand equity perspective from marketing literature as a tool to conceptualise and define the EB concept.

Brand equity indicates the incremental value endowed by the brand name which adds both to the customer and the firm (Aaker, 1991; Farquhar, 1989; Keller, 1993). Aaker treats the brand equity as an intangible asset and claims that various organisational efforts contribute to engender the differential value of the brand name (i.e. the brand equity) (Aaker, 1989, 1991, 1996). Brand equity approach is congruent with the critical analysis of EB phenomenon as it reflects the reciprocity of the relationship between the firm and its customers, like the employer-employee relationship. Moreover the brand equity, as an intangible asset, is a derivative of organisational efforts adding value to the organisation. Employer's name can well be treated just like a brand (Ambler & Barrow, 1996; Ewing, et al., 2002); the employer brand. Employer brand adds value to the employment experience and the job (like products) beyond their functional attributes; adds value to the employee (as the customers of the jobs and the employment experience at the organisation) and also to the firm (in the form of employee outcomes and differentiation).

Customer-based brand equity framework can be a viable tool for *deconstructing* the EB construct. Though Aaker and Keller's terminologies slightly differ from each other, their conceptual substances overlap and indicate the multidimensionality of the brand equity concept. Indeed, research shows that the brand equity is a multidimensional construct supporting Aaker and Keller's conceptual frameworks (Atilgan, Aksoy, & Akinci, 2005; Cobb-Walgren, Ruble, & Donthu, 1995; Pappu, Quester, & Cooksey, 2005; Washburn & Plank, 2002; Yoo & Donthu, 2001; Yoo, Donthu, & Lee, 2000).

Employer Brand Equity Model

Dimensions of the brand equity, evidenced by research, are the brand loyalty; brand awareness; perceived quality; and brand associations. These dimensions are brand equity assets or bases of brand equity, because they pave the way towards brand value generation. In the same vein, the differential value endowed by the employer's name can be elicited by addressing the correspondent dimensions for employer brand equity.

Brand loyalty entails conceptualisations both from attitudinal and behavioural points of view in marketing terms: it indicates the attachment that a customer has to a brand; or the repurchase and recommendation behaviours (Aaker, 1991). However in employer brand equity model, we adopt the attitudinal point of view and reserve the behavioural aspects to be organisational outcomes of the brand equity. Parallel to marketing endeavours using *customer satisfaction* and *price premium* indicators to gauge *loyalty* as an attitude; for employer brand equity dimensions, we propose *perceived fulfilment of psychological contract obligations* and *extra gives of the employee* (e.g. willingness to accept lower wages as compared with identical jobs in the market; or intention to stay despite of the below-market-average wages for identical jobs) (Cable & Turban, 2003). *Brand awareness* is the preliminary trace of the brand name in customers' brains which manifest itself as recall and recognition. On the grounds of research findings (Cable & Turban, 2003), we propose that *familiarity with the organisation* acts as brand awareness in employer brand equity model.

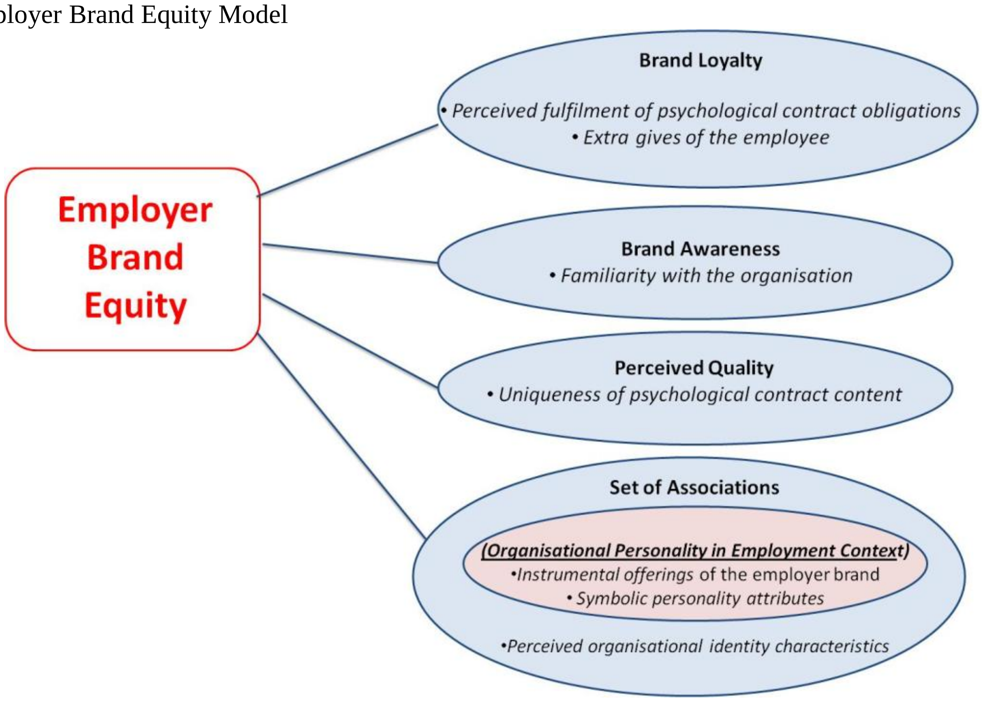
Perceived quality indicates the 'customer's perception of the overall quality or superiority of a product/service with respect to its intended purpose, relative to alternatives' (Aaker, 1991, p. 85). In HRM terms, perceived quality in an employment experience shall correspond to the *uniqueness of psychological contract content*. Though *perceived fulfilment of psychological contract obligations* (corresponding to customer satisfaction dimension) and *uniqueness of psychological contract content* (corresponding to perceived quality dimension) may be idiosyncratic in nature, these can be captured with an etic approach enabling aggregate level interpretations (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998). In brand equity terminology, *set of associations* dimension unites *the perceived value of the brand* as a product; *the brand personality* that treats the brand like person; and *the organisational associations* that indicate the organisation beneath the consumer brand. For employment experience, *instrumental offerings* of the employer brand (Ambler & Barrow, 1996; Berthon, Ewing, & Hah, 2005; Ewing, et al., 2002; Lievens & Highhouse, 2003); its *symbolic personality attributes* (Aaker, 1997; Lievens, 2007; Slaughter, Zickar, Highhouse, & Mohr, 2004); and *perceived organisational identity characteristics* (Lievens, et al., 2007; Turban, Forret, & Hendrickson, 1998) engender the set of associations in the employer brand equity (Figure 1).

Conclusion and Amalgamating the Pieces: Definition of Employer Brand Equity

The employer brand equity can be defined as the *incremental value of employer's name added to the human capital that eventually have an effect on organisational outcomes, which in turn are expected to differentiate the organisation in the market towards competitive advantage.*

Employee behaviours like organisational identification; organisational commitment; organisational attraction (Edwards, 2010); retention of high performers; engagement; and differentiation in the market place can be named as some of the outcomes of the employer brand equity. Further research shall focus on operationalisation of the construct to manifest aforementioned organisational repercussions.

Figure 1. Employer Brand Equity Model



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Social Construction of Meaning:
On the Notion of Africa as a Continental Brand

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Abstract
This exploratory study seeks to advance the notion of a continental brand. Construing brands as clusters of meanings, we draw on the paradigm of social construction to inquire into the constitutional processes through which ideas and conceptual categories associated with a continent are established as its accepted universal interpretations. Through netnography, we investigate the virtual discourses of two online communities that relate to the continent of Africa. Our selection of Africa as the object of inquiry is partly motivated by the growing interest in place branding, and in part, fuelled by some academic inquisitiveness concerning the ontology of brands in the era of co-creation. The research findings reveal that despite immense diversity, Africa is ascribed with collective meanings as a continent, which derive from experiences with the continent and/or its associated semiotic entities. We also highlight the attitudes communities appear to develop towards the continent, based on their meaning perception. Our study is deemed relevant in its endeavour to stress the concept 'continental brand', and accounting for the conceivable development of such brand in the era of virtually embedded brand meaning co-creation.

Key words: Continental brand, brand meaning, social construction, online communities, virtual discourse.

Session 2.1

Global Brand Relationship: the Bridging Role of Brand Liking between Brand Equity and Customer Relationship with a Brand that does not Exist in the Market

Ibrahim Abosag, Manchester Business School, U.K.
Oleksii Bekh, Manchester Business School, U.K.

The Impact of Relationship Marketing on Reinforcing Corporate Brand, Identity and Reputation: Analysis of Five Sport Cases

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S M Riad Shams, CQUniversity, Sydney Australia

Brand Equity Trends in Top Global Brands

Kamran Siddiuqi, IBA, KARACHI

Building Global Football Brand Equity: Lessons from the Ghanaian Market

Robert Ebo Hinson, University of Ghana Business School, Ghana

Global Brand Relationship: the Bridging Role of Brand Liking between Brand Equity and Customer Relationship with a Brand that does not Exist in the Market

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Oleksii Bekh, Manchester Business School, U.K.

Abstract: The relationship between a consumer and a global brand, that has not yet entered a certain market, has not been fully examined. The study combines the insights from relationship marketing literature (e.g. Sheth and Parvatiyar, 1995; Bowden, 2009) and insights from brand equity literature (e.g. Keller, 1993; Kohli and LaBahn, 1997) within the cultural context of customer-brand relationship (CBR) of Ukraine. A conceptual model on the role of customer-brand liking was developed. The study surveys 298 Ukrainian consumers in 2009/2010 that have no direct interaction with Hard Rock Café (HRC), but who have, nevertheless, access to information about the brand through different media channels and word of mouth. Customer brand liking was found to play an essential role in linking brand equity (brand personality, perceived value and perceived quality) with future customer-brand relationship and purchase intention. Important recommendations and implication for global brands are discussed.

Key Words: Liking**,** Brand Equity, Relationship Marketing, Ukraine, Hard Rock Café.

In the second half of the 20th century we have evidenced the rise of multinational companies and their products, which have become somewhat icons, or simply – 'Global Brands'. The global value of brands increases each year. A brand can be identified as a promise of the organization towards the consumer (Gerzema, 2009). Recent studies have shown that overall estimates of how consumers perceive brand around the world have steadily fallen throughout the years. Most studies on consumer perceptions have focused on measuring consumer attitudes towards a brand that is available to them (e.g. Phau and Lau, 2000; Van Rekom *et al.*, 2006; Foscht *et al.*, 2008). However, there is no study that measures consumer perceptions of a global brand, which is not yet available in the marketplace.

Brand Personality*:* If a meaningful and consistent brand personality can be established and it fits the target audience on the market, this action can result in increased preference and likeability of the brand (Sirgy, 1982), and higher emotional ties and stronger relationship with the brand (Biel, 1993). Brand personality increases customer liking of the relationship with the brand through the perceived value and quality (Ye and Raaij, 2004).

Customer Perceived Quality*:* If a brand is viewed as 'global' consumers may associate the brand with higher quality because such quality is very much likely to be of global acceptance (Keller, 1993; Steenkamp, Batra and Alden, 2003). Perceived quality has been found to have a positive impact on perceived value (Snoj et al., 2004).

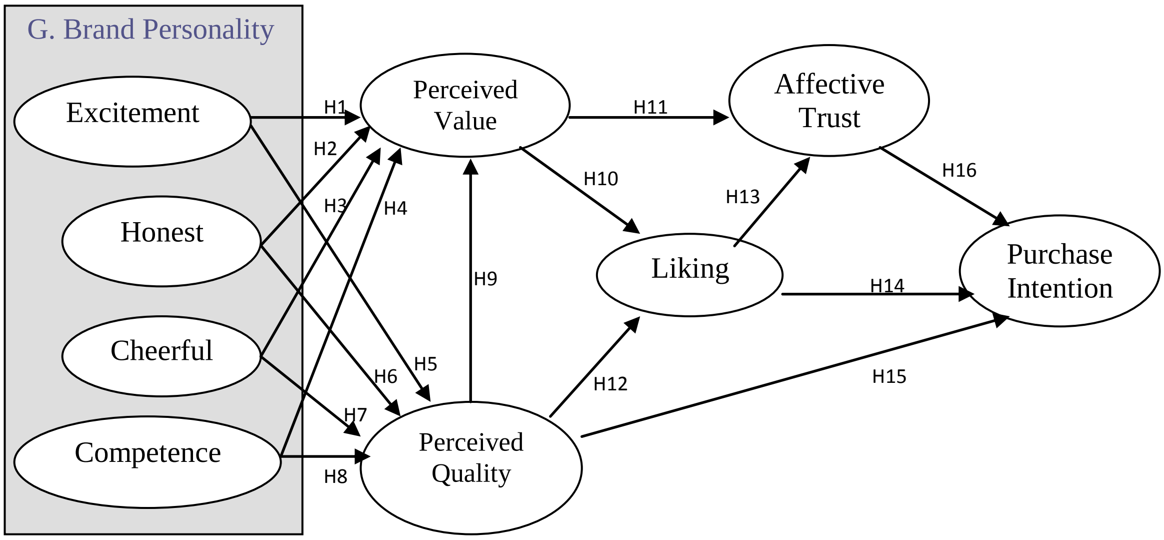
Customer Perceived Value*:* The perception of value of the consumer is related to the consumer only and cannot be defined by an organization (Ulaga and Eggert, 2006); perceived value presents trade-offs between the benefits and sacrifices that the consumers perceive (Snoj et al., 2004). Since brand value is based on customer perception, one can argue that customers have good perception of global brands even if they have not experience them.

Liking: Brand liking is a global measurement used to evaluate how positive and strong are the perceived brand assets from the consumer's point of view (Ye and Van Raaij, 2004; Jayanti and Whipple, 2008). The notion of brand liking is thought to be central in several brand equity models, and is mostly used, in this respect, to empirically capture the consumer-based brand strength. Although there is an underlying assumption that the consumer ought to have a positive attitude towards a brand to develop a long-term relationship with it, there is no direct link that connects brand liking and consumer relational behaviour. We argue that liking of a brand helps customers trust the relationship with the company.

Affective Trust*:* High levels of trust seek to create a more emotional and affective connection between the consumer and the brand (Hess and Story, 2006). Trust is, additionally, a moderating factor of risk perception throughout the consumption process, and, further, guides the intentions of the customer (Delgado-Ballesta and Aleman, 2000).

Purchase Intentions: Purchase intentions throughout most of the marketing literature are described as a dependent variable. Kim and Chung (1997) conclude that purchase intentions are foremost influenced by the perceptions of popularity and liking of the brand.

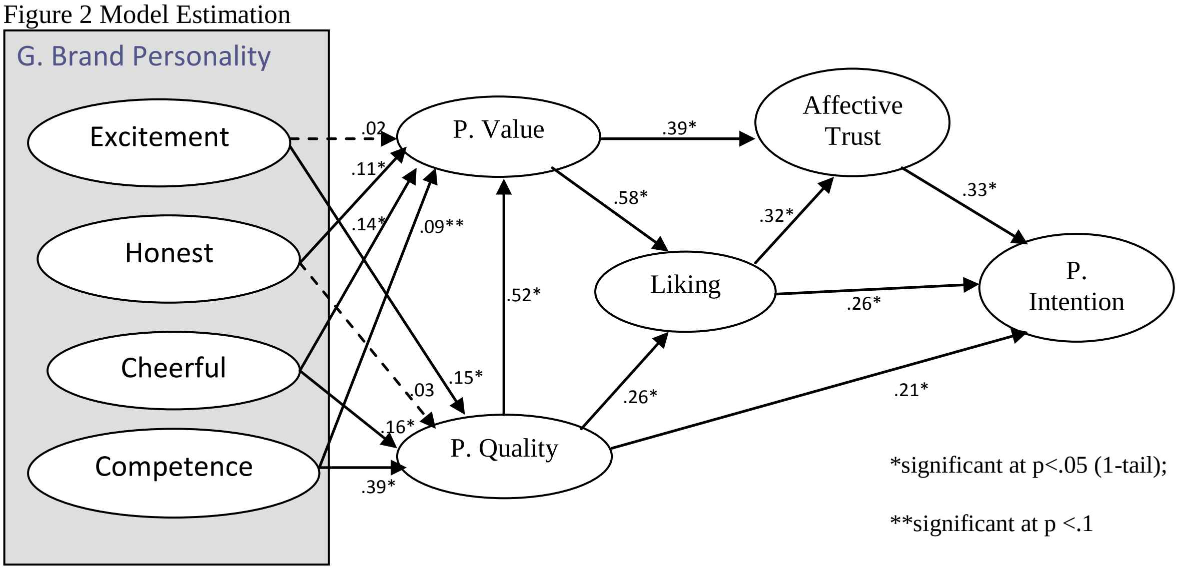
Figure 1 The Conceptual Model



Research Methodology: The study was conducted in 2009/2010 in Kyiv, the capital of Ukraine. Using a stratified sampling technique, the sample was made up of 62.39% professionals, 32.11% students, and 5.5% were unemployed. All respondents were Ukrainian, 65.1% – female and 34.9% – male. The data shows that 91.7% of the respondents are aware of Hard Rock Café (HRC), as a brand. Constructs in the model were measured using seven point Likert-scales adopted and modified from the literature except for liking. Prior to the data collection, the authors conducted 14 interviews asking participant to define their liking of their favorite brand that they consider having relationship with. A poll of items containing 22 items measuring liking were generated and the usual scale development process was implemented.

Following suggestions by Hu and Bentler (1999), the measurement model has largely met the criteria: χ^2 (df) = 640.8(217), p-value = .000, CFI= .97, IFI = .97, RMSEA = 0.07. The model was estimated using LISREL. The results show good support for the conceptual model except two hypotheses which failed.

Figure 2 Model Estimation



χ^2 (df) = 56.47(14), p-value = .002, GFI = .96, AGFI = .88, CFI = .98, RMSEA = 0.094.

Discussion and Conclusion: The general observations that can be produced from the collected data suggest that the majority of respondents (over 90%) are familiar with the brand at question, even though they have never had any previous personal experience with it and, more importantly, they have an opinion about the brand. Among other findings, this study supports some previous findings on the influence of different brand personality dimensions on the perceptions value and quality brand (Ramasehsan and Tsao, 2007). In turn, the perceptions value and quality brand increase liking and the desire to trust and purchase the brand (Sirgy, 1982). This can be described as the crucial connecting point between the dimensions of brand equity and relationship marketing. The value of the paper is that of deeply understanding the consumers' attitude and desired relationship towards the global brand. Liking is a major factor in transforming brand equity into a long-term relationship with global brand.

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The Impact of Relationship Marketing on Reinforcing Corporate Brand, Identity and Reputation: Analysis of Five Sport Cases

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Introduction

A multi-case study research has been conducted on five grown sport cases to realise how they have been utilising RM to reinforce their corporate brand, identity and reputation in the aim of gaining competitive advantage. The aim of the research was to identify the RM perspectives for reinforcing corporate brand, identity and reputation from the RM practices of the cases. Eleven RM indicators, which are actually various RM perspectives that an organisation can employ to enhance competitive advantage, are found in the research. The findings of the study ascertain the analysed RM indicators and the subsequent competitive advantages that an organisation could gain by utilising these RM indicators to reinforce corporate brand, identity and reputation. Therefore, these RM indicators are established for marketers to reinforce corporate brand, identity and reputation.

Research Methodology

Cricket Australia (CA), Arsenal Football Club, Indian Premier League (IPL), Hawthorn Football Club of Australian Rules Football, and England and Wales Cricket Board (ECB) have been chosen as suitable cases.

Data Collection

This research utilised documents and or contents review in depth along with its sub categories such as archival records, audio-visual materials as data collection method for the content analysis of the web sites and other publications of the selected cases.

Analysis

Data analysis was centred on identifying key RM perspectives that these grown cases have been utilising to enhance competitive advantage of their corporate brand, identity and reputation.

The analysis pattern of this study followed the case analysis style suggested by Creswell (1998), Dey (1995), Stake (2000, 2003), Stavros (2005) and Yin (2003, 2009). The relevant variables (RM perspectives, which are standardised here as RM indicators) identified from the cases have been analysed through insight, intuition and impression for comprehending whether the identified variables are pertinent to the area of inquiry (impact of identified RM indicators on reinforcing brand, identity and reputation) by direct interpretation and or naturalistic generalisation.
Eleven RM indicators are identified from the analysed RM practices (based on their market offerings) of the cases, as different RM perspectives that an organisation can employ to enhance competitive advantage of corporate brand, identity and reputation. Also, the academic significance (relevancy with enhancing competitive advantage) of these RM indicators is recognised based on the findings of various authors (Andersen, 2005; Buttle, 2009; Gummesson, 2002; Ian, 2005; Kurtz, 2009; Lars and Berggren, 2010; Little and Marandi, 2003; Looney and Seiler, 2003; Rajaobelina and Bergeron, 2009; Stavros, 2005). The RM indicators are:

- High stakeholder service, stakeholder commitment and stakeholder contact;
- Relationship and service values instead of bureaucratic legal values;
- Understanding customer and other stakeholder's contemporary and latent needs;
- Cherishing Barren Meadow (CBM);
- Flexibility on customer or other stakeholder's preferences;
- Proving advantage through customers or other stakeholders' experiences;
- Further segmentation of a segmented market or niche marketing;
- Relationship factor focused branding;
- Customisation;
- Orientation on benefits or knowledgeable customers;
- Customer Relationship Management (CRM) and Database Marketing.

Synthesis

Data synthesis was based on following two criteria:

- Whether the analysed product and service offerings of the cases are associated with one of the RM indicators;
- Summarising the impact of the associated RM indicator with a product or service offering on reinforcing competitive advantage of corporate brand, identity and reputation image of the respective sport case.

Findings (Impact of RM Indicator on Reinforcing Competitive Advantage of Corporate Brand, Identity and Reputation of the Analysed Cases)

Two from above-mentioned eleven RM indicators have been demonstrated in this abstract, whereas the demonstration of all eleven indicators is added in the full paper.

Proving Advantage through Customers or other Stakeholders' Experiences

The second season of IPL in 2009 was held in South Africa following several propositions from other cricket hosting countries. After losing the opportunity to host IPL in England, the ECB chairman Giles Clarke expressed his frustration along with the well wishing for the IPL as:

> Despite missing out on the potential financial benefits that hosting the tournament could have brought to the English game, I am pleased for the sport as a whole that the IPL had found a new home in South Africa (Clarke, 2009, np).

Again, after the successful completion of IPL-2009, the CEO of Cricket South Africa expressed his gratitude as:

> The IPL lifted spirits enormously. Our industry also got an extra bite of the cherry against the negative world economic trend. Certainly, at home it added even more value to Proteas cricket. It has also brought in unexpected and very welcome funds for the further development of South African cricket (Cricket South Africa, 2009, np).

Therefore, 'proving advantage through customers' or other stakeholders' experiences illustrates a distinct competitive advantage in the target markets for IPL. The reinforced corporate brand, identity and reputation that IPL has attained through such a RM indicator reflect significantly on their annual growth. As a result, IPL have promoted successfully a corporate brand, reputation and identity image in the market (customers, competitors and other associated stakeholders) as:

> Associating with the brand (here IPL) prolifically exceeds your (customers and other stakeholders) anticipation.

Relationship Factor Focused Branding

Arsenal has introduced 'N5' as a brand and offers various 'N5' merchandises (Online Store, 2009). Actually:

> N5 is a tiny postcode of London. In the north-western corner of N5 is Arsenal football ground. It is one of the country's most recognisable grounds, and not just by virtue of the side's success (London N5 Guidebook, 2008, np).

Arsenal players and fans have an associated life-long emotion, feeling and nostalgia with Arsenal, its stadium and the club's location, the N5. Jack Staniforth, a footballer, who represented England in the decade of 1960, has expressed his emotion about N5 and Arsenal when he was invited from Fulham, for a trial instead of Arsenal as:

> When I invited to trial with Fulham in 1957 pre-season, I would not realise me, which is just as well because my heart was in N5...Yes Arsenal is much more than a football club to me (Staniforth, 2009, np)

Significantly, Arsenal uses these emotions and feelings of Arsenal's players and fans to develop the N5 brand for a different range of merchandise to accelerate their sales revenues. As a consequence, 'Relationship Factor Focused Branding' is emerged as another RM indicator from the Arsenal's RM practice as Arsenal adapted and introduced the range of N5 brand, which is originated from the emotion and feeling of Arsenal's players and fans as a relationship factor. Consequently, Arsenal's practice of relationship indicator focused branding highlights that it helps to reinforce a unified brand reputation between a corporation and its target market. Through such a reinforced corporate brand, identity and reputation, a corporation could convey a brand message to their customers that they (customers) represent the brand.

Implication and Conclusion

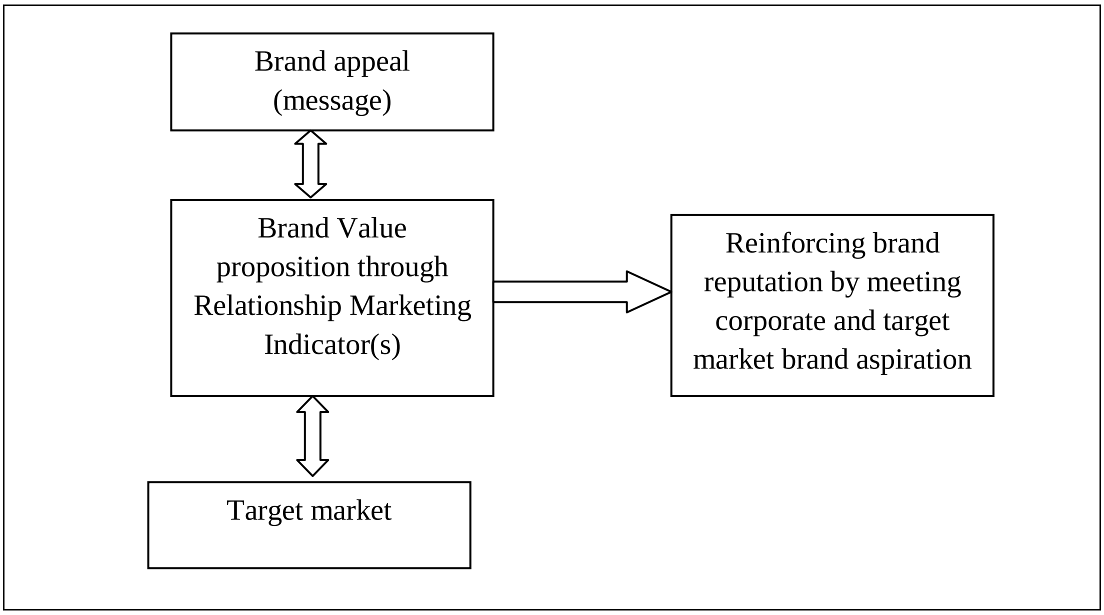
The RM practices of the sport cases reveal that reinforcing corporate brand, identity and reputation is an interrelated process between a corporation and their target market, especially while reinforcing branding outcome through RM practices. The analysis indicates that a reinforced branding effect is a consequence of meeting corporation and target market's aspiration concurrently through a branding message or appeal. For example, focusing on Hawthorn's current and prospective members (supporters, but not current members), the branding message of Hawthorn for the year 2010 is 'United 2010-one for all, all for one' (Hawthorn FC, 2010, np). Such a branding message concurrently meets Hawthorn and their prospective members' aspiration. Since, through such a branding message, Hawthorn could appeal to their prospective members to become Hawthorn's member, as well as prospective members (supporters), who abide the similar value like Hawthorn, could be more fanatical about their beloved club.

‘United 2010-one for all, all for one’, Hawthorn’s brand message would be proportionate with the RM indicators: ‘Relationship Marketing Focused Branding’. Since, the message integrates Hawthorn and their prospective members’ (supporters, but not current members) relational value concurrently. It has also been described earlier that how such a RM indicator centred brand message concurrently meets Hawthorn and their target market’s (Hawthorn supporters, who are not current members) aspiration from the brand: Hawthorn. Hawthorn’s brand aspiration through such a branding message would be increasing their membership sales.

Hawthorn’s target market’s brand aspiration would be associated with the target market’s brand anticipation and the capability of the corporate brand (here Hawthorn) to meet that anticipation. Figure-1 also signifies accordingly that how utilising RM indicators, corporate brand reputation could be reinforced by meeting corporate and target market brand aspiration concurrently. It is a target market focused interrelated process between a corporation and their target market, where either a corporate brand message can be formed based on an underlying understanding of target market’s brand aspiration, or a corporate brand message could form a new pattern of target market’s brand aspiration. But, in both cases, the aim will be same to reinforce corporate brand by meeting corporate brand aspiration and target market’s brand aspiration concurrently through a single brand appeal. For example, ‘United 2010-one for all, all for one’, the branding message could be formed by Hawthorn based on target market’s brand (Hawthorn) aspiration (supporters’ aspiration to be involved more with Hawthorn’s activities). Again, Hawthorn could promote the branding message to form a new pattern of target market’s brand aspiration (Hawthorn’s aim to involve supporters more in Hawthorn’s activities).

The findings of the research standardise the RM indicators and their impact on reinforcing corporate brand, identity and reputation in sport industry. A comparison across five grown cases highlights the RM focused branding approach that has provided varying degree of successes to attain and retain organisational growth through reinforced competitive advantage of corporate brand, identity and reputation. The RM model of Figure 1 can be applied to any industry as a dominating branding tool, as RM is applicable to any industry, however, the relationship portfolio will be according to the given situation (Gummesson 2002). Therefore, reinforcing the model is established significantly to enhance competitive advantage of corporate brand, identity and reputation.

Figure 1: Impact of Relationship Marketing on Reinforcing Corporate Brand, Identity and Reputation



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Brand Equity Trends in Top Global Brands

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Abstract

This research is exclusively conducted for the 7th Global Brand Conference of the Academy of Marketing. This paper aims to present the brand equity trends among top global brands in the 21st century. The research uses the data published by Interbrand (leading brand management consultancy and a division of Omnicom). During 2001-2010, a total of 148 brands from 18 countries appeared in the top 100 global brands list. Countries were then classified into three regions (i.e., America, Asia and Europe). Analyses were made on the basis of cumulative brand equity, average brand equity and growth patterns. These analyses were made for 14 different industrial sectors with respect to their area (country/region) of origin.

Some major trends presented in this paper are; (a) dominance of American brands; (b) growth of relatively in-expensive European brands; (c) few but relatively stronger Asian brands; (d) dominance of European brands in Apparel, Sporting goods and Luxury categories; (e) relegation of American brands in automotive sector leaving stiff competition among Asian and European brands.

Marketing professionals and academicians especially engaged in branding exercises always keen to establish associations of their brands with country of origin. This piece of research provides them empirical evidence to justify their branding associations.

Building Global Football Brand Equity: Lessons from the Ghanaian Market

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Abstract

This paper sought to analyse the perceived brand equity of professional football clubs on foreign markets as these clubs firmly want to expand and reach a global brand status. Fitting with an inductive approach, 12 semi-structured interviews are conducted in order to analyse the perceptions of Ghanaian fans of four English Premier League clubs. The results of this research highlight the fact that the strength of professional football brand equity on the Ghanaian market is jointly determined by the level of brand awareness, brand loyalty and perceived quality but, due to the increasing competition on international markets, professional football clubs need to clearly define their marketing strategies to improve upon how fans perceive them. The results provide useful information for professional clubs in general which want to become global. It also provides relevant ways to improve brand equity for the four clubs investigated. This paper is one of the first to analyse perceived brand equity of professional clubs in direct competition among potential Ghanaian customers.

Keywords - Brand equity, International business, Football, Globalization, Qualitative method, Ghana

Session 2.2

Uncovering ‘Meanings’ through Animal Figurative Marks in Corporate Logos

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Brand Mergers: Examining Consumer Responses to Name and Logo Design

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Leonor Vacas de Carvalho, Évora University, Portugal
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Semiotic Perspectives for Brand Management

Fernando Pinto Santos, ISCTE-IUL Lisbon University Institute, Portugal
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How Important is the Brand Name Element of an Established Product to Consumers?

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Uncovering 'Meanings' through Animal Figurative Marks in Corporate Logos

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Abstract

A number of financial institutions are hung on the use of pictorial metaphors of animal marks in corporate logos as tools for creating meanings even though such logos are no longer fashionable. This paper deconstructs a couple of these logos. Specifically, this study examines how corporate logos with animal marks create and institutionalize meanings in the minds of customers. A modified form of McCracken's meaning transfer model together with a three phase interpretive framework, comprising literary criticism, semiotic method and interpretive interviews, are drawn as the framework of study. Findings from the deconstruction of corporate logos with animal marks – belonging to First Bank Plc and Union Bank Plc, two of the largest banks in Nigeria, indicates that meanings that are adduced to these banks evolves through a collaborative system of *continuous* or *uninterrupted exposure* of animal marks and costumer *habitualized* beliefs.

Keywords: animal marks, corporate branding, corporate logo, corporate identity, habitualization, institutionalization, interpretive interviews, literary criticism, meanings, semiotic method, signs.

Introduction

The use of animal figurative marks in corporate logos has played a significant role in corporate communications over a long period of time. For hundreds of years, animal marks have been used to symbolize, communicate and express the personality of business organizations. A quick review of a variety of corporate logos especially those belonging to a number of large, reputable financial institutions suggests that there has been a shift from the use of animal marks (such as horses, bulls, bear, eagles, lions, tigers and similar ferocious faunas) towards more simplified versions of currently fashionable and expensive works of art. Figures 1-4 supports this argument.

Figures 1-4: Movement of Deutsche Bank logo (animal mark) in 1870 to today's work of art

Deutsche Bank

Source: http://www.db.com/en/media/Logo_History.pdf
Source: http://www.db.com/index_e.htm

18 24

ABN·AMRO

Source: http://worldsbestlogos.blogspot.com/2007_11_01_archive.html
Source: http://www.abnamro.com

In spite of this movement however, the use of logos with animal marks persists. A handful of business organizations that continue to use this type of logo, do so ideally to build an association with traditions and socio-cultural meanings through the corporate branding process. Because corporate logos with animal marks are deemed as obsolete, old-fashioned and outdated, some stakeholders within the business environment think less highly of them. Yet, they are highly effective at helping business organizations to deliver strategic messages about their personalities.

Just as there are very few business organizations that use corporate logos with animal marks in today's business environment, there are also very few academic literatures on this subject. The majority of studies in the broader field of corporate visual identity (see Table 1) which encompasses the study of logos are void of knowledge on the construction of animal marks.

Table 1: Corporate visual identity literature

A peep into business literature on corporate visual identity	Melewar et al, 2006; Melewar et al, 2001; Melewar et al, 2000; Melewar and Saunders, 1998; Melewar and Saunders, 1999a; Melewar and Saunders, 1999b; Melewar and Saunders, 2000; Melewar, 2001; Mollerup, 2004; Carls, 1989; Carter, 1975, 1976, 1982, 1983, 1985, 1986, 1997; Henderson and Cote, 1998; Napoles, 1998; Olins, 1978, 1979, 1989, 1990, 1991, 1995; Pilditch, 1970; Hynes, 2009; van den Bosch et al, 2004; van den Bosch et al, 2005; van den Bosch et al, 2006; van Riel and van den Ban, 2000; van Riel and van den Ban, 2001

Source: developed by author

Given the downward but persistent trend in the use of animal marks in today's business environment coupled with the scarce academic literature on this topic, this paper addresses this subject. Specifically, the study examines how corporate logos with animal marks create and institutionalize meanings. This objective is achieved by deconstructing old fashioned animal marks inscribed in corporate logos of business organizations, especially those in financial sector.

The paper opens with a review of literature with emphasis on a conceptual analysis on how business organizations create and institutionalize meanings through animal marks. The argument presented in this regard is anchored on McCracken (1986) modified theory of meaning transfer. The second part of this paper presents a three phase interpretive methodological framework grounded on literary criticism, semiotic method and interpretive interviews. The paper continues in the third part with the deconstruction of corporate logo of First Bank of Nigeria Plc and Union Bank of Nigeria Plc; using the instruments suggested under the methodological framework. Findings from the study are discussed in part four. Finally, the paper is concluded in part five.

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Brand Mergers: Examining Consumer Responses to Name and Logo Design

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Purpose

Name and logo are key components of corporate identity, since they are the most pervasive elements in corporate and brand communications, and play a crucial role in the communication of the organisational characteristics (Henderson & Cote, 1998; Van Riel & Van den Ban, 2001).

The reasons for changes in corporate brand name and logo are numerous, nevertheless mergers are one of the main events leading to the necessity for a new name and logo (Muzellec & Lambkin, 2006). Furthermore, the building of a strong and clear visual identity is critical for the successful implementation of a merger (Balmer & Dinnie, 1999; Melewar, 2001). However, relatively little academic attention has been paid to the different name and logo options available to the new corporate entity, and to our knowledge no empirical research has addressed the branding strategies from the perspective of individual consumers. This paper seeks to address this research gap, by developing a model of consumers' brand identity preferences, in the context of a merger. Specifically, it considers the degree to which name and logo characteristics influence consumer responses.

Theoretical Background

Branding is a central concept in marketing, and the particular importance of corporate branding has been highlighted by a number of writers (Keller & Richey, 2006; Merriles & Miller, 2008).

In the search of an holistic conceptualization, we assume a semiotics based conceptual model for branding, according to which the brand is founded on three fundamental pillars: the identity pillar, which includes the sign or signs that identify the brand and the brands associated to it; the object pillar, which includes the different offers of the brand together with the organization and the marketing activities which support them; the market pillar, which includes the brand's stakeholders and their different responses to the brand at a cognitive, affective and behavioural level (Lencastre & Côrte-Real, 2010).

Name and logo are generally considered the main brand identity signs, since they are critical communication cues (Henderson, Cote, Leong & Schmidt, 2003; Pittard, Ewing & Jevons, 2007; Van den Bosch & de Jong, 2005). Development of a strong logo is particularly relevant for services organizations, because of the intangible nature of their offerings (Berry, 2000; De Chenatony & Segal-Horn, 2003, Devlin & McKechnie, 2008). Several marketing scholars have underlined the need to link intangible service offers to tangible logos in order to convey appropriate meanings (Miller, Foust & Kilic, 2007).

The term "logo" can refer to a variety of graphic or typeface elements, ranging from word-driven, word marks or stylized letter marks, through to image-driven, pictorial marks (Henderson & Cote, 1998; Wheeler, 2003). In this study, the word logo refers to the graphic design that a company uses to identify itself.

Theorists agree that well-designed logos should be recognizable, evoke positive affect and allow the transmission of a set of shared associations (Henderson & Cote, 1998; Henderson et al, 2003; Janiszewski & Meyvis, 2001; Klink, 2001 and 2003; Kohli, Suri & Thakor, 2002).

Affective reactions to the logo are critical, because affect can transfer from the identity signs to the product or company with little or no processing (Henderson & Cote, 1998; Schecther, 1993). Furthermore, in low involvement settings, the affect attached to the logo is one of the few cues that differentiate the offering (Hoyer & Brown, 1990; Leong, 1993). As design evolves to become an essential component of corporate marketing, it is important to determine the extent to which design elements like figurativeness create a positive affect.

Figurative and its opposite endpoint, abstract, capture the extent to which a sign is related to the natural and sensitive world: the sign is abstract when there are no links to the sensitive world; in the opposite situation we say this sign is figurative (Greimas & Courtés, 1993). Logos depicting characters, places, animals, fruits or any other objects of the real world, that have familiar and widely held meanings, demand a lower learning effort and are better recognized (Henderson & Cote, 1998). Recognition for abstract and meaningless logos may be poor, and abstract designs are more difficult to interpret (Koen, 1969; Nelson, 1971; Seifert, 1992). Empirical research further shows that figurative identity signs can enhance brand memorization and contribute to the formation of brand associations (Henderson & Cote, 1998; Hynes, 2009).

Thus, from a design perspective, we decided to focus on this particular logo element, and to examine reactions to figurativeness in the specific context of a brand merger.

Design/Methodology/Approach

This study develops a typology of the alternative corporate identity structures that may be assumed in the context of a brand merger by drawing on literature review and secondary data, as well as an exploratory study analysing consumers' preferences regarding the alternative branding strategies. We administrated a survey questionnaire to measure consumer's attitude towards the corporate brands being studied and their preferences regarding the different corporate identity redeployment alternatives. We did this through creating fictional scenarios involving six real banking brands (Caixa, Millennium, BES, BPI, Barclays and Banco Popular).

Respondents (n=467) were postgraduate students from a major university, and were assigned randomly to 1 of the 15 versions of the brand merger. Each independent group of respondents (composed by at least 30 elements) evaluated one corporate brand pair.

Respondents first answered a series of questions regarding their cognitive answer towards the banking brands and their identities signs. Then they were asked to rank the logos under study from one through to seven, where one was the respondents "most pleasing" and seven the "least pleasing".

In the following part of the questionnaire we included a series of questions to evaluate the cognitive, affective and behavioural response towards the two brands under study. Finally, respondents were presented with the target stimulus depicting the corporate brands' merger scenario, and then answered questions concerning the corporate identity redeployment alternative that they prefer.

Findings

The analysis of consumers' preferences led us to a revision of the typology of corporate identity redeployment alternatives previously developed, since we have found new monolithic and combined redeployment alternatives. In respect to the monolithic alternatives, we have identified a new option that transforms the brand's logo in the stability element whenever there is a rupture with the past in terms of name. In regard to the redeployment alternatives that combine elements of both brands' identities, we have found a wide range of response typologies besides the three options previously typified. These new alternatives contribute again to underlining the importance of the logo as the stability element in a merger context, conferring the logo the endorsement role that is typically attributed to the name.

The two figurative logos, BPI's orange flower and Barclays's eagle, are the ones most often chosen, although they don't belong to leading banks. On the contrary, Caixa's abstract logo or Millennium's and BES's abstract monograms are considerably less chosen, even though they are the identity signs of the three biggest banks.

In regard to the choice of the logo, we may conclude that the distinction between abstract and figurative has a significant influence in consumer preferences in a merger situation, and can be even more important than brand's antiquity or brand's position in the market. Thus, the choice of the logo tends to reflect consumers' evaluation of its aesthetic qualities, and to confirm previous findings in the logo strategy literature.

In respect to the choice of the brand's name, we obtained very close results for the four biggest brands studied. Furthermore, the preference ranking for the brands' names reflects clearly the market share ranking. Therefore, we may conclude that the qualities of the different names do not have a determinant influence on consumers' preferences in a merger situation. Hence, the choice of the name tends to reflect consumers' evaluation of the brand's offer or of the brand's presence in the market.

Research Limitations/Implications

The findings regarding consumer logo preferences should be analysed more thoroughly in a confirmatory study that addresses the research gaps. First, in this study we used real brand logos which were familiar to our subjects. In future research we will use novel logos, so that we can assess the effects of initial design on responses and thereby minimize the effects of usage variables. Additionally, logos will be designed in black and white to minimize the presence of colour.

Previous research has demonstrated the universal preference for divine proportion [1] in figurative logo designs. Preference for more abstract logos tends to favour the 1:1 ratio (Pittard *et al*, 2007). Based on these results, it is recommended that future research includes abstract and figurative logos which conform to the preferred ratios.

[1] The "divine proportion hypothesis" states that a visual form is most aesthetically pleasing when the ratio of its larger to smaller dimensions is 1.618.

This research focused on a very specific product category, namely banking services, thus the generalisability of the findings may be questionable. However it should be noted, that the financial service context has been used with success to investigate branding issues. Nevertheless, future research should explore similar matters in other product markets, to prove that the findings of this study are pertinent in a broad range of contexts.

The fact that we have used a student sample may also limit the degree of generalisability of the study. However, using student respondents to test brand identity or aesthetic preference is consistent with prior research (Henderson *et al*, 2003;Pittard *et al*, 2007). Additional studies on consumer brand identity preferences will be designed to address these limitations.

Managerial Implications
This study should guide managers in the evaluation and choice of post-merger branding strategy. Brand managers should be aware that the brand logo may play a role as important as the name in a merger, ensuring consumers that there will be a connection with the brand's past. Moreover, this study confirms that logo design characteristics influence significantly consumer responses. For maximum positive affect and increased brand strength it is suggested that figurative logos be chosen over more abstract designs.

Originality/Value
The marketing literature contains little systematic research on the effect of logo design on consumer preference. In particular, the evaluation of logo designs in a merger context is significantly under-researched. As a result this paper provides valuable insights. Importantly, this study uses an innovative research design which gives respondents freedom to choose their preferred solution. Hence the richness of results is much greater.

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Semiotic Perspectives for Brand Management

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Keywords

Brands, marketing, meaning, semiotics, signs.

Introduction

The purpose of this research is to develop perspectives, using the resources of semiotics, about how consumers use the stimuli from brands to engage with those brands. We consider that with a semiotic view one can envisage the brands' touch points as signs and obtain a holistic understanding of how consumers use those stimuli to construct their engagement and responses towards brands.

Conceptualisation

Brands can be regarded as semiotic entities that have signic and perceptual dimensions. Perron (as cited in Beebe, 2004, p. 626) defines semiotics as 'a domain of investigation that explores the nature and function of signs as well as the systems and processes underlying signification, expression, representation, and communication.'. Within the broad semiotic field we have opted to use the path developed by Peirce. According to Mick, Burroughs, Hetzel and Yoko (2004) Peirce's semiotic abundant resources should be more used for the study of brands.

Beebe (2004) explains that Peirce's semiotic conception can be defined as a triple connection of sign, thing signified and cognition produced in the mind. In a simple way this is how we can regard the semiotic elements *sign*, *object* and *interpretant* that Peirce created. Signs represent in some way or capacity the object and create an interpretant that is the effect the sign has on the mind of the receptor (Peirce, 1931-1958). The interpretant can be understood as the meaning signs create about a given reality for which they stand for (Mick, 1986). All in all, the relationship between these elements can be envisaged as the process of representation of reality. Peirce defended the idea that human beings have no direct experience, but merely an indirect knowledge of reality that is accomplished through signs (Silverman, 1983). Zaltman (2003, 65) considers that 'Our senses, acting on environmental cues, help us *create* our understanding of the world around us'. We think that this view can be framed within the conception presented and that these 'cues' can be envisaged as similar to semiotic signs.

Danesi (2006) states that brands can be regarded as mental constructions that evoke a wide array of meanings. Hence, considering the meaning consumers ascribe to brands as central to a possible research path, developing a semiotic approach seems relevant (Mick et al., 2004) since that this science studies how meanings are created and transmitted (Eco, 1979). Lencastre and Côrte-Real (2010) argue that the name of the brand is, first of all, a sign, as are signs its logo or slogan. Being semiotics the doctrine of signs (Mick, 1986) this is also another argument for its use. In Peirce's (1931-1958) definition a sign represents something and has the capacity to create an effect in the mind of those with whom it contacts. Hence, meaning is not contained within the sign, arising only in its interpretation (Chandler, 2007).

Lencastre and Côrte-Real (2010) define the brand's signic dimension as *identity-mix* and focus the concept on the set of distinctive signs of the brand. Regarding the semiotic *object* Perez (2004) considers that the brand *object* element takes into account all the complexity of the organisation, its mission, vision and relations with society and on their turn Lencastre and Côrte-Real (2010) precise the product, organisation, its mission and its marketing-mix as this second dimension of brand. Regarding the third one that refers to the semiotic element *interpretant* Lencastre and Côrte-Real (2010) use the term *response* (of the stakeholders) as the way to name it.

Method

We consider this article as a first theoretical step upon which we intend to develop empirical research in the future. The integration of semiotics in the brand management field allows the drawing of theoretically supported perspectives that can advance the brand management theory and practice.

Major findings

The brand's touch points are semiotic signs

We believe that any touch point between a brand and its stakeholders can be regarded as a semiotic sign, as long as it represents the brand and is able to be somehow used to construct a meaning about it. Eco (1979) explains that something is a sign because it is interpreted as a sign by a possible interpreter and states that the definition of sign does not imply the quality of being intentionally emitted and artificially produced. This leads us to a broad definition of sign and we consider that there is an emission of signs of brands originated not only in the organisation and its direct actions, but also in all the situations that can be used by stakeholders to construct meanings. Being exposed to other people consuming or exhibiting the most different brands can be used by anyone to form their perceptions about those brands (Berthon, Pitt and Campbell, 2009). In the same way, reading a comment on a web site or talking to friends about a brand can influence us. Accordingly to Kim (2000) human beings are always in the process of constructing their world through the semiotic processes that lead to meanings and we consider that when applying this view to brands, we can say that consumers permanently apprehend signs of brands, through all the multi-sensory stimulus in their surrounding, and use them to construct their knowledge or meaning about them.

Consumers engage with brands mainly on an unconscious way

Chandler (2007) states that human beings interpret things as signs mostly in an unconscious way. This view is shared by researchers like Danesi (2006) that considers that the processes of mental construction are most of the times unconscious and Franzen and Bouwman (2001) who argue that a large part of the representations of brands in the brain are beyond consciousness. Zaltman (2003) corroborates these perspectives and defends that consumers process unknowingly most of the influences they encounter in their world. We consider being acceptable to conclude that the processing of the semiotic signs of brands can be framed just like any other cognitive process and, in that sense, we infer that consumers use signs most of the time unknowingly.

The context of the consumers' interaction with brands is crucial

We believe that the way signs are apprehended is crucial to how they are processed and has thus an impact in the meaning that is created through them because as Mollerup (1997) explains the effect of the sign depends not only from signs themselves but also from the context and the culture wherein the consumer is inserted. Also, the set of meanings that can be extracted from a sign is conditioned by social, cultural and historical contexts (Thellefsen, Bent, Danesi and Andersen, 2007). So, the processes of apprehension of signs of brands and the way they are used to construct meaning are heavily context dependent

The signs of brands will lead to meaning that will lead to a response

Hartman and Spiro (as cited in Koll and Wallpach, 2009, p. 398) state that the consumers' response refers to the processing of 'perceptions in order to subsequently form comparative evaluations, preferences, behavioral intentions or behaviours'. In the same sense, Koll and Wallpach (2009) explain that what consumers know about a brand have an effect on their response, as for example, attitudes and choices. Thus, we believe that the buying behavior of brands is developed based upon the meaning created through the semiotic signs. Lencastre and Côrte-Real (2010), as stated earlier, name the semiotic interpretant when applied to brand as *response* and clarify that it comprehends different cognitive, affective and behavioural responses. In the opinion of Zaltman (2003) the processes that lead to the responses are made, most of the time, unknowingly by the consumers. So, like the apprehension of signs, the construction of meaning and the response that consumers develop upon it seems to be made mainly through unconscious processes.

We consider quite relevant the encompassing semiotic view of the touch points of brands as signs and how one can broadly regard the processes used by consumers to construct their perceptual representations. The semiotic approach allows the understanding that every sign of the brand is interconnected and interdependent with whatever originated it (as long as it represents the brand) and with what it's able to create in the mind of consumers. The resulting meaning structures, mostly in unconscious processes, the response of consumers and how they engage with brands.

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How Important is the Brand Name Element of an Established Product to Consumers?

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Purpose

The brand name element is generally regarded as an integral part of the brand entity of a product or service (Aaker, 1991: p.14; Keller, 2003: p.181; de Chernatony and McDonald, 2006: p.96). Empirical research looking at the worth of the brand name element has typically confirmed its importance. However this work has invariably looked at new, proposed or fictitious brands, rather than those already established within the marketplace (Friedman and Dipple, 1978; Gibson, 2005; Mehrabian and Wetter, 1978).

Riezebos (1994: p.69) asserted that the relative importance of the brand name element would decline as a brand became established, as a result of the cumulative impact of corporate marketing activity. Following this argument it should not be assumed that the extant empirical work on the importance of the brand name element should be automatically applicable to established products.

Given that established products make up the bulk of products in the marketplace the lack of empirical work is problematic. Following exploratory qualitative work a research study was initiated with the purpose of investigating the importance of the brand name element for established products and services. The remainder of this extended abstract provides details of the method employed, the major findings and the contribution to knowledge from the research study.

Method

A key challenge was how the brand name element could be isolated for investigation from the other brand elements and the brand entity as a whole. An experimental technique that seeks to achieve this and has been increasingly used within academic studies within and outwith the marketing domain is conjoint analysis (Dickson, 2005; Thomas-Miller *et al.*, 2000; Carroll and Green, 1995; Vriens, 1994). This has also generally been regarded as holding validity (Green and Srinivasan, 1990). It employs a decompositional approach, based on a belief that consumers cannot directly state how much they value separate features of a product if this information is explicitly sought but this can be "teased" out through the use of an indirect approach (Orme, 2006: p.25). Often it is used to identify the relative importance that consumers place on different attributes of an item under study, typically a product or brand (Malhotra and Birks, 2007: p.704). Its essential feature is that a research participant is directed to compare products made up of attributes (e.g. size, colour) with different levels (e.g. different sizes, different colours) and multiple regression based statistical techniques are then used to derive a preference function which provides the relative importance of each attribute and the importance of level within each attribute.

Accordingly conjoint analysis was used to investigate the importance of the current brand name attribute relative to the current price attribute of the brand. Through calculating how much extra a consumer would be prepared to pay as a trade off for keeping the current brand name of a product unchanged a relative monetary value for the current brand name was obtained. If the brand name element of established products is indeed of importance to consumers then it would be expected that consumers would be prepared to incur a significant increase in the price for a product in order to keep the brand name of the product unchanged.

One hundred adult participants from North West England were recruited for this experiment from a wide cross-section of the population base. All participants provided their favourite brand in a product category in which they were active. A wide range of products was selected including beverages, foodstuffs, personal goods and clothing. Firstly an involvement score was obtained from each participant based on the Personal Involvement Inventory (PII) scale, developed by Zaichkowsky (1985) and the standard scale within the domain (Bruner *et al.*, 2005: p.287). This is a twenty item seven-point semantic differential scale, measuring the enduring relevance of an object to a person.

Secondly each participant was presented on a computer screen, visually and in written form, with sixty product options presented side by side two at a time. Participants were required to state their relative preference for one product option against another for each of these pairs using a nine-point scale. The product options consisted of their chosen product but with the brand name and price attributes at various levels. In order to minimise demand bias, size and packaging attribute levels were also varied. Participants were also not told the full purpose of the task until completion.

In the case of brand name the levels consisted of existing brand name, alternative choice brand name and new brand name. For some participants an actual new brand name was given, whilst others were simply told that the brand name had been changed. In the case of price the levels varied between +/- 20% of the existing product price. Sawtooth Software CiW and CVA modules were used to develop the experiment and analyse the captured data using the pairwise full-profile conjoint analysis technique. Finally participants completed a series of qualitative questions about the impact that they considered a change in the brand name of their selected product would have on them.

The conjoint analysis software used ordinary least squares (OLS) multiple regression to estimate the value placed on each attribute level by individual participant. Statistical analysis on all the obtained quantitative data was subsequently performed using SPSS16.

Reliability was built into the experiment in two ways. Firstly Sawtooth CVA calculated an R-squared measure based on how consistent participants were in their product option preferences. Secondly quantitative and qualitative data from each participant was compared to determine the degree of correspondence. The calculated R-squared value for each of the hundred participants ranged from 0.58 to 0.94 with a mean of 0.82 and a standard deviation of 0.074. 74% of participants were identically classified from their quantitative and qualitative data. Taken together these indicate that the study carried a high degree of reliability.

Major Findings

The obtained distribution of the relative monetary value of the current brand name is shown below in Figure 1. This distribution is not normally distributed and has a mean of 20.92 and the standard deviation of 48.18. This obtained distribution shows that on average the existing brand name was valued by the participants as having the relative monetary value of 20.9% of the existing price of the product. In other words participants on average would be indifferent between either a product increasing its price by 20.9% or the product changing its brand name.

However it can be seen from the standard deviation and the shape of Figure 1 that it would be inappropriate to simply consider this finding at the level of the mean but this variability of the relative monetary value of current brand name should be acknowledged and explored. In particular three separate groups of participants can be identified. For 19 of the participants the existing brand name had Nil or a small negative value. 68 participants held a Moderate positive value for the existing brand name (0 to 30%); with 57 of these 68 holding a value less than 15% of existing price. 13 participants placed a significant positive value on the existing brand name. There is a clear distinction between this final group of participants and the Moderate positive value group, as the value placed on the current brand name by participants within this group ranged from over 60% to almost 285% of current price.

This variability in value placed on brand name could not be statistically related to age or gender. Surprisingly an investigation using Spearman rho correlation coefficient also revealed no statistical correlation between brand name value and the associated involvement score (rho= -.045, n= 100, p= 0.66).

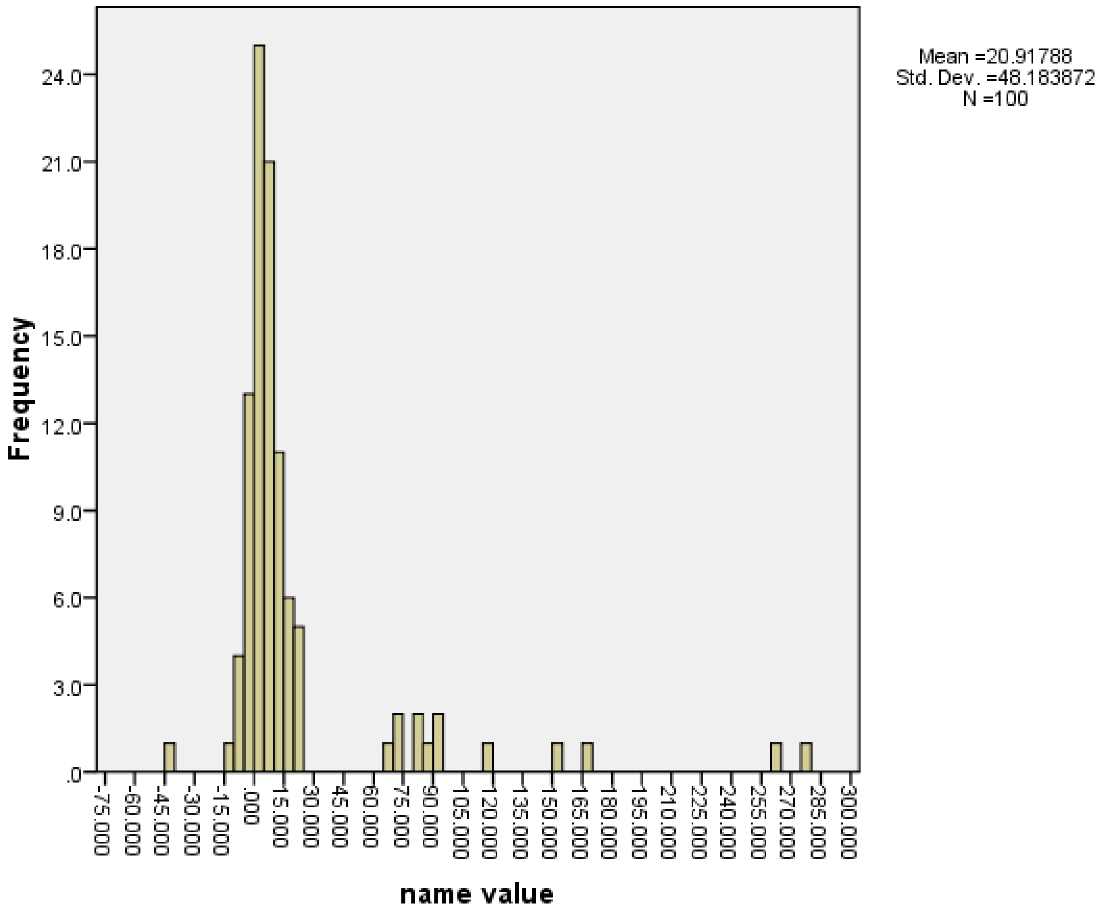
However a Mann-Whitney test revealed a statistically significant difference in value placed on brand name between where a new brand name was not given to participants (M*d*=3.169, n=33) and where a new brand name was given to participants (M*d*=9.41, n=67), (U= 708, z= -2.914, p= .004). One interpretation of this finding is that inclusion of an actual changed brand name within the conjoint analysis task, as opposed to simply the discussion of the idea of a change in brand name, increased the realism of the task to the participant and resulted in a more elevated consideration of the value of the current brand name to them. It could be argued that the more considered approach provides a more accurate measure of brand name element value.

Contribution

The research provides a rare and required insight into the importance placed on the brand name element for established products and services by consumers. It also highlights that there is significance variance in this value, which cannot be explained by some of the more obvious variables and requires additional research including its generalisability.

In particular it suggests that some of the statements made within the mainstream branding literature such as Keller (2003: p.181) ‘Consider brand names-perhaps the most central of all brand elements...’ may require qualification. The overall assumption that brand name plays a central role for established products appears to mask firstly a large proportion of consumers where it has a minimal role and secondly a minority of consumers where its role is overwhelming.

Figure 1 Distribution of Relative Monetary Value of Current Brand Name



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Session 2.3

Simon Cowell and Branding the X Factor

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Stephen Brown, University of Ulster, UK
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Dead or Living: Which Celebrity To Endorse?

Dr. Subhadip Roy, IBS Hyderabad (IFHE University), India
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Over the Waterfall in a Barrel: Experiential Marketing and the Building of Brand

Debra Leighton, University of Salford, United Kingdom
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Organizational Factors Contributing to Successful Delivery of Corporate Brand Experience: What Do We Know?

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Simon Cowell and Branding the X Factor

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Introduction

Simon Cowell's unparalleled empire of stunningly successful TV shows and associated web sites, revenue-generating phone lines and million-selling music performers, all branded under his uniquely powerful TV persona, epitomises the new marketing priorities of the media convergence era. Yet, breaking down the X Factor marketing machine into its component parts, interesting though that is, fails to explain the brand's huge appeal as a cultural phenomenon. This paper examines the branding of X Factor from an anthropological perspective, drawing on the work of Victor Turner (1969) and his theory of existential liminality. Turner felt that advanced industrial societies retained a need for rituals which suspended formal social structures in providing a sense of what he termed 'communitas'. The paper sets out some of the cutting edge branding innovations which surround the show and explores the vivid sense of emotional connection it has with its audience, emotion which translates into multiple revenue streams. We then explore the show as a performance of liminal ritual, with Cowell as magus or enchanter, directing the liminal process.

In With a Bullet- the Simon Cowell and the X Factor Phenomenon

X Factor has been the biggest show on UK TV in recent years. Owned by and starring impresario extraordinaire Simon Cowell, *X Factor* has turned the tired old TV talent show format into a golden goose of revenue streams pouring into Cowell's bulging bank accounts. Cowell presides as chief tormentor in the ritual humiliation of countless wannabees of varying talent. As the shows progress, he releases PR stories of the contestants as the viewers become ever more deeply emotionally involved in their weekly tribulations. The UK media becomes saturated with coverage of the contestants, the show's judges, and of Cowell himself, as the build up to the final gathers pace. Finally, the eight finalists become mini-stars in their own right, emerging from their dead-end jobs into the showbusiness sunlight, elected by the public, under Cowell's paternalistic direction.

As the pre-eminent entertainment impresario of the digital era, Simon Cowell's marketing genius seems beyond question. But the precise nature of his legendary marketing savvy is an enigma, and some of the contradictions in his CV are striking. For example, by his own admission Cowell can't sing, doesn't play a musical instrument, and doesn't produce records. In an interview with Playboy magazine he admitted that his keynote TV talent vehicle, American Idol, is a soap opera not a music show. Yet he has sold over 150 million records. As a talent manager Cowell spotted the music selling potential of acts as unlikely as the Mighty Morphin Power Rangers, the Tellytubbies, Robson and Gerome, and professional wrestler The Undertaker. Cowell has also enjoyed consistent success with more mainstream pop artists like boyband Westlife, million-selling 80's singer and sometime girlfriend Sinitta and, latterly, his string of talent show winners headed by superstar Leona Lewis. Other contradictions are equally arresting. He learned his trade as an artists and repertoire (A&R) man in the record business and had no training in TV, yet Cowell holds the rights to some of the most lucrative TV show formats in history. Even more paradoxically, Cowell claims he doesn't know how to work a computer or an iPod, yet a cursory examination of the web-based activities around his TV shows reveals a cutting-edge case study in leveraging value from digital and social marketing. Finally, and most significantly, Cowell appears to be an opinionated but grounded individual with no pretensions as a performing artist or a business guru. Yet, leering over the sweeping panorama of his marketing landscape, are the botox-smoothed, fang-capped features of the most recognisable global celebrity since Muhammed Ali.

Cowell's peerless PR and expensively veneered smile has made him the biggest reptile the TV celebrity jungle has ever known. He is a sharp dealmaker who understands the politics of TV contracts – he is said to have invented the *X Factor* franchise to give him more leverage in his contract negotiations with his *American Idol* partner Simon Fuller. Cowell's modus operandi epitomises the convergence of media, marketing, and celebrity culture. At the time of writing, he has reportedly signed a deal to keep his hit show *X Factor* on UK TV until 2013[2]. In the meantime, he plans to export the format to the USA to rival the success of another Cowell vehicle, *America's Got Talent*. *X Factor's* 15-17 million viewers per show make it by far the biggest show on UK TV. Those real time viewing figures have leveraged the price of 30-second advertising slots up to an estimated £150,000, rising to £250,000 for the series final. Other revenue streams bubbling from the *X Factor* spring include income from viewer phone voting with up to 8 million calls per show, sponsorship deals on the main show and its spin-off show *Xtra Factor*, and additional interactive and online content revenues from the show's website, ITV.com/TheXFactor. The website attracted more than 95 million page views and 30 video views during the 2009 series. Downloads of the performances featuring on the show generate revenue that is shared between Freemantle, the production company that makes the show, ITV, the UK commercial TV channel that shows it, and *ITunes.* The website also sells tickets for national tours of sell-out live shows featuring the performers. There is a spin-off magazine, and last but not least there are record sales from the most popular contestants,

[2] http://www.telegraph.co.uk/finance/newsbysector/mediatechnologyandtelecoms/media/8071827/Simon-Cowell-secures-deal-to-extend-The-X-Factor-for-three-more-years.html

signed to Cowell's *SyCo* label. The show's winner normally stands atop of the record sales charts each Christmas, although few make it as genuine international stars.

The X Factor franchise is credited with saving the ITV TV channel from a catastrophic slump in advertising revenues. Paradoxically, it has done so even though it is an exemplary case study in how to monetise revenues from the internet, the main threat to the future of conventional advertising (Hackley, 2010). The most striking thing about the operation is the passionate consumer engagement. Fans switch on the TV, access the website, download the performances, buy the records, phone in with their votes, buy the magazine, upload their own performances, and go to the live concerts, in their millions, without anything that could be described as conventional marketing to twist their arms. To be sure, much of this is down to Cowell's talent for hype, which ranks him alongside the immortal P.T. Barnum among the world's greatest marketing showmen (Brown and Hackley, 2011). But while both knew how to whip up a storm of excitement among the masses, Barnum merely charged for tickets to his freak shows: Cowell monetises X Factor by the ingenious combination of giving it away free to consumers, but giving them multiple opportunities to pay for additional engagement (phone votes, downloads, live tickets etc). What really sets Cowell apart from Barnum in the revenue generating stakes is the fact that he charges ITV a fortune for the privilege of erecting his big top in their field.

Theorising X Factor's Brand Engagement

Academics have commented on the way Cowell's shows satisfy a human need for community and for sensational entertainments, and stimulate the desire to engage with universal narratives of human experience (Day, 2010). In this paper we draw on the anthropology of ritual to theorise Cowell's TV success. We suggest that Cowell's approach is premised on a need not only for the kind of social connection seen in other media rituals such as royal weddings and funerals, but also for ritual which subverts the social structure and opens up the possibility of transformed identities in a process anthropologist Victor Turner (1969) termed liminality.

There may be a fragmentation of traditional social bonds which drive consumers into seeking multiple interactions via online virtual communities (Firat and Venkatesh, 1995; see also Baudrillard, 1981; McAlexander et al, 2002). But, for young people at least, online communication does not replace but supplements, mediates, facilitates and enhances face-to-face communication. The notion of the consumer tribe as a consumption phenomenon with its own special dynamic has gained resonance in recent years (Cova 1997). Bauman (1992, in Cova 1997 p.301) suggests that postmodern tribes subsist in a perpetual state of becoming which only lasts as long as the power of rituals to attract. This state of becoming chimes with Turner's (1969) notion of existential liminality as a collective and indefinite engagement with change within a fluid social context. The liminal zone was a phenomenon Turner (1969) had observed in his work on the rituals of the Ndembu tribe. Participants would be gathered, under the direction of a shaman or witchdoctor figure (no prizes for guessing who fulfils this role in *X Factor*), to be subject to the judgment of the assembled observers. They were at the threshold of a journey which, if successful, would end with transformation into a new social status. Later in his career Turner (1969) observed that in advanced societies this state of being at the threshold of a journey of change, that is, being in the liminal zone, had become detached from traditional rituals of transformation and instead occurred in a truncated form as existential liminality, experienced largely through consumption, of entertainment, brands, and experiences. Turner (1969) wrote of structure and anti-structure, by which he meant the contrast between social structure and its roles and responsibilities, and those areas where humans can divest themselves of the trappings of their social role.

In the *X Factor* shows the contestants, who tend to be serial showbusiness failures, are taken from their families and placed in a special house to be tested to their limits in the public eye. They are tested and appraised firstly by the judges then by the voting public, all under the guidance of Cowell. Strikingly, in the live shows, Cowell comments not only on their performances but also on their personality and character. Contestants are judged to be 'annoying', a 'really nice person', someone who 'really deserves this' and so on. The resonance with Turner's (1969) theories is striking. It appears as though the success of Cowell's famed TV show formats can be explained not only on his astute yet unorthodox marketing instincts but also on a huge consumer need for the quasi-ritual experience of existential liminality. In offering consumers a space in which they, and we can, can take part, actually or vicariously, in a ritual of transformation, Cowell and X Factor have extended the limits of brand engagement both offline and online.

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Dead or Living: Which Celebrity To Endorse?

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Introduction
The practice of using celebrity endorsements in advertising to promote products can be traced back to more than a hundred years. A celebrity could be defined as, '…any individual who enjoys public recognition and who uses this on behalf of a consumer good by appearing with it in an advertisement' (McCracken, 1989: p. 310). The growing popularity of celebrity endorsement as a marketing strategy is evident from the market statistics. Research suggests that the percentage of celebrity advertisements out of the total number of ads aired is as high as 25-30% in western countries (Shimp, 2000) and around 60% in India (Shashidhar, 2008). With this in mind, it's not surprising that the celebrity endorsement phenomenon has attracted increasing attention from practitioners and academics over the last three decades. In India, a popular celebrity may get more than 10 brand endorsements. For example, cricketer M.S. Dhoni has around 30 brand endorsements while actor Shah Rukh Khan has 21. A popular celebrity can earn anything between 1 to 8 million USD per endorsement deal. In such a scenario it becomes very difficult for the endorsed brand in case the celebrity lands up in controversy or his/her competence in whatever field he/she is known as diminishes. One alternative for the firm in this case is to use a dead celebrity for endorsement. A popular dead celebrity will be easily recognized and would also be free from any controversy as well as loss of competence. The present study objective is to examine whether a dead celebrity would be more effective in generating favorable responses than a living celebrity.

Literature Review
Previous research have delved into various issues relevant to celebrity endorsements in areas of psychology and consumer behavior (e.g., Mowen, 1980; Kirmani and Shiv, 1998; Cronley et al., 1999), sociology (McCracken, 1989), and advertising and brand management (Friedman et al., 1976; Mowen and Brown, 1981; Kamins, 1990; Till and Busler, 1998; Stafford et al., 2002). Most of the research has concentrated on the source effects (i.e. the celebrity being the source of a communication and the consumer being the receiver). Researchers, such as Ohanian (1990), have identified three dimensions of source credibility; which are Trustworthiness, Expertise and Attractiveness. These dimensions have been hypothesized to affect consumer attitude. Researchers have also tried to address the issue of congruence between the celebrity and the product endorsed (e.g., Friedman and Friedman, 1979; Kamins and Gupta, 1994; Mittelstaedt et al., 2000; etc.). In most case it has been found that the congruence of the product with the celebrity creates a more favorable impact on the consumer attitudes than that of an incongruent celebrity-product combination. It is a fact that celebrity endorsement is a costly affair (Kaikati, 1987; Erdogan, 1999) and companies employing celebrity endorsers are at risk of losing money, as well as the reputation of their brands. Researchers such as Kaikati (1987) identified overexposure of a celebrity as a disadvantage of celebrity endorsements. This increases the need for the advertisers and marketer to use the right celebrity who would generate the maximum favorable response from the consumers. However, other than the exception of D'Rozario et al. (2007), the celebrity endorsement literature is silent on the use of dead celebrities in endorsements and the positive and negative aspects of the same. Though the literature has suggested that the use of dead celebrities may help the advertiser in significant cost reduction (Petty and D'Rozario, 2009), there have not been any study to the authors' knowledge where the effectiveness of the dead celebrity has been compared to that of a living celebrity.

Objectives
The discussion on celebrity endorsement literature clearly points out the lack of studies to test the comparative effectiveness of a dead celebrity vis-à-vis a living celebrity. Moreover as the literature suggests several drawbacks of using a living celebrity in advertising (Kaikati, 1987) it seems obvious that a dead celebrity would be free from them and would generate more favorable consumer attitudes than the living celebrity. Thus the first hypothesis of the study could be stated as:
H1: The popular dead celebrity would generate more favorable consumer attitudes than a living celebrity.

The celebrity-product congruence literature (e.g., Friedman and Friedman, 1979; Kamins and Gupta, 1994; Mittelstaedt et al., 2000; etc.) has suggested that a celebrity congruent with a product would generate a more favorable impact on the consumer attitudes than an incongruent one. Following from there and related to our objective, it would be relevant to test whether a product congruent dead celebrity creates a more favorable impact than a product incongruent dead celebrity. The subsequent analysis would also enable us to find out the presence of any interaction effect. Thus the second hypothesis of the study is stated as:
H2: A product congruent celebrity would generate more favorable consumer attitudes than a product incongruent celebrity.

Methodology
Experimental Design was selected as the methodology in this case because of its ability to test theoretical relations (Bagozzi and Yi, 1989). The dependent variables were Attitude Towards the Ad (AAD), Attitude Towards the Brand (AB) and Purchase Intention (PI). All the three dependent variables have been taken from literature and were measured

using 5 point semantic differential scales. A series of pre-tests were conducted on multiple groups of students taking a post graduate course in Business Management to identify the levels of the independent variables. The age of the students ranged between 18-22 and male female ratio was 3:2 (approx). The first pre-test was performed to select the dead and living Celebrity which the respondents would like to watch in advertisements. The second pre-test was performed to select the Celebrity – Product combinations.. The preferred dead celebrity was singer Kishore Kumar and the living celebrity was actor Aamir Khan. The congruent and incongruent products with Kishore Kumar were a Music Related Website and a Brand of Suiting respectively and the same for Aamir Khan were Wrist Watch and Hair Oil respectively. The design used here was a 2X2 (Celebrity: Dead/Living) X (Product: Fit/Misfit) full factorial design. Fictitious ads were created for each treatment and the experiment was conducted at a premier business school in south India. The treatment groups had approximately 30 respondents. Multivariate Analysis of Variance was used as the research tool for the study and the entire analysis was performed using SPSS 16.

Major Results

The data collected was analyzed using MANOVA. The main effects suggested a significant effect of Celebrity on the dependent variables (Wilks' Lambda = 0.810, $F_{(3, 114)}$ = 8.904, p = 0.000). The Celebrity product fit (Fit as variable name) was also found to be significant (Wilks' Lambda = 0.839, $F_{(3, 114)}$ = 7.288, p = 0.000). However, the interaction term was not found to have a significant effect (Wilks' Lambda = 0.989, $F_{(3, 114)}$ = 0.432, p = 0.730). The MANOVA results (Table 1) suggested a significant effect of the Celebrity on 5% level of significance on all dependent variables. However, the Celebrity product fit was having a significant on only AAD (F = 18.987, p = 0.000) whereas the effect was not statistically significant on AB (F = 1.762, p = 0.187) and PI (F = .848, p = 0.359).

The Post Hoc (Bonferroni) tests suggested that the dead celebrity (Kishore) scored more than the living celebrity (Aamir) on all the consumer attitude variables, namely AAD (Mean Diff = 0.561, p = 0.000), AB (Mean Diff = 0.417, p = 0.002), and PI (Mean Diff = 0.656, p = 0.000) at 5% level of significance (Table 2). Thus H1 was fully supported whereas H2 was partially supported.

Discussion

The study findings suggest that proper use of a dead celebrity can lead to more effective impact on the consumer attitudes. The insignificant impact of the congruence on AB and PI imply that the consumers are not so much influenced by the celebrity-product congruence when it come to evaluating products and forming purchase intention. The most important implication of the study is a question which could be raised to the advertiser who is using the celebrity endorser as a marketing strategy. Celebrity endorsements are costly affairs and the celebrity who is getting a lot of endorsements is obviously a popular celebrity. In India, a popular celebrity could earn up to INR 50 millions from an endorsement deal. The study questions the effectiveness of such expenditure. Moreover, the insignificant interaction effect suggests that the dead celebrity is more preferred irrespective of the product being congruent or incongruent to the celebrity. The study partly supports the propositions in support of the use of dead celebrities as suggested by (Petty and D'Rozario, 2009). One of the limitations of the study was the use of student sample, which could be addressed in future research by expanding the study to a more general audience.

Table 1. Study 1 MANOVA Results

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Celebrity	AAD	9.425	1	9.425	18.919	.000
	AB	5.208	1	5.208	10.312	.002
	PI	12.893	1	12.893	20.499	.000
Fit	AAD	9.458	1	9.458	18.987	.000
	AB	.890	1	.890	1.762	.187
	PI	.533	1	.533	.848	.359
Celebrity * Fit	AAD	.074	1	.074	.148	.702
	AB	.268	1	.268	.530	.468
	PI	.726	1	.726	1.154	.285

Table 2. Study 2 Post Hoc Test Results

Dependent Variable	(I) CELEB	(J) CELEB	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
AAD	Kishore	Aamir	.561(*)	.129	.000
AB	Kishore	Aamir	.417(*)	.130	.002
PI	Kishore	Aamir	.656(*)	.145	.000

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

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Over the Waterfall in a Barrel: Experiential Marketing and the Building of Brand

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Abstract
Experiential marketing has evolved in response to a move away from a service economy to an economy that is shaped and defined by consumer experiences. As consumers seek ever more unique and memorable experiences, experiential marketing has become increasingly important in establishing and building brand identity in sectors as diverse as retail, events marketing and more recently the leisure and tourism sector. This paper aims to critically assess the validity of an experiential marketing approach in the formation and communication of brand identity. The analytical basis for the evaluation is a single case study involving the development of MONA, a hedonistic experience brand based in Australia.

Keywords
Experiential marketing; Brand experience; Brand identity; Hedonism

Experiential Marketing

Whilst experiential marketing is a relatively new phenomenon, as early as 1982 Holbrook and Hirschman highlighted the need to move away from conceptualising consumer behaviour purely in terms of information processing and a subjective experience, and yet most of the literature up to the late 1990s has perpetuated this cognitive approach. Marketing in the leisure and tourism sector has tended to be product or supply focused, with a lack of recognition of the role and expectations of the consumer as an active, skilled and discerning participant in the consumption process. Traditional models of consumption have tended to treat consumer behaviour somewhat narrowly, as a rational, problem solving process rather than considering the more hedonistic reasons behind consumption decisions. Consequently, an experiential view of consumer decision making may be a better representation of consumer choice where less tangible, hedonistic variables may be significant predictors of behaviour (Leighton 2007). The twenty first century consumer demands a value-for-money and worthwhile experience but expects at the same time to be 'entertained, stimulated, emotionally and creatively challenged' (Schmitt, 2000).

Understanding the term 'experiential marketing' is potentially problematic due to diverse definitions of the concept, and in particular there is confusion between the use of experience as a verb and experience as a noun (Palmer 2008).However, the following definition of experiential marketing is offered for the purposes of this paper:

'when a person buys a service he purchases a set of intangible experiences carried out on his behalf. But when he buys an experience he pays to spend time enjoying a series of memorable events that a company stages to engage him in a personal way' (Pine and Gilmore 1999 pp2)

Experiential marketing involves taking a product or service and amplifying it into a set of tangible, physical, interactive experiences that reinforce the offer and rather than seeing the offer through advertising media, consumers 'feel' it by being part of it. (Williams 2006).

Experience Branding

In terms of branding, Brakus et al (2009) define brand experience as 'subjective, internal consumer responses (sensations, feelings and cognitions) as well as behavioural responses evoked by brand related stimuli that are part of a brand's design and identity, packaging, communications and environment'. Zarantonello and Schmitt (2010) suggest that brand experience comprises a number of dimensions, including sensory, affective, intellectual and behavioural and that the extent to which these dimensions can be evoked will determine the intensity of the brand experience. Their recent study profiles consumers along these four dimensions in order to ascertain whether different groups of consumers prefer different experiential appeals. The resultant typology reveals five groupings: holistic consumers who are interested in all aspects of the experience; utilitarian consumers who attach little importance to brand experience; hedonistic consumers who are interested in sensorial gratification and emotions; action orientated consumers and inner directed consumers who focus on internal processes such as sensations, emotions and thoughts. These typologies are potentially highly significant for those organisations seeking to build experience brands targeted at hedonistic consumers, and suggest that organisations should emphasise the aesthetic and emotional appeal of the brand in order to appeal to these experiential consumers.

Hedonism and Experience Branding

Targeting hedonistic consumers with an experiential offering demands some understanding of the nature of hedonism. Popularly conceived as pleasure seeking, hedonism is nevertheless seen as an unsustainable experience (O'Shaughnessy and O'Shaughnessy 2002), since it embodies notions of self-gratificatory sensuality and self indulgence that may ultimately lead to disappointment, restlessness and yet more conspicuous consumption (Rohatyn 1990). However, the potential for targeting hedonistic consumers with brands designed to deliver a rich experiential offering is an attractive proposition. The following case study provides an insight into this potential.

Research Design

The data for this case is drawn from a longitudinal project that is tracking the Australian brand MONA from its early stages, through to its opening, and on to a review once it has been operating for a year. An inductive research approach has been adopted and within this an exploratory design, utilising participant observation, interviews with key staff, analysis of corporate publications and media statements and data from social media sites such as blogs.

The Case of MONA

The case of Australia's MONA is unusual in many respects. It is privately owned and funded by millionaire David Walsh, variously described by the Australian press as "a professional gambler", a "rabid atheist", and a "university drop-out and autodidact" (Coslovich 2007: 5). It is located in Hobart, the capital city of the island state of Tasmania, Australia, a long way from the art capitals of the world. More significantly MONA is the umbrella brand for a range of products that are aimed at the luxury brand consumer, the consumer that thinks little of travelling half way around the world for an unusual and memorable experience. MONA's product range—wine, beer, art, accommodation, and music—is clearly aimed at those consumers seeking a hedonistic experience.

The acronym MONA stands for Museum of Old and New Art. The privately owned art museum—unusual in Australia's museum sector—at the core of the corporate brand MONA has a significant though small collection (460 works housed in 65,000 square feet) and construction of the building has only recently been completed. It opened in January 2011 at a reputed cost of AU$70 million (£39.5 million) with a collection valued at £63 million. Entrance is free and 50,000 people visited in the first three weeks alone. (The Sunday Times, 20.2.11).

MONA is much more than an art museum. Under the umbrella brand MONA sits, in some ways, the more obvious hedonistic products of Walsh's vision. The original product of the corporate brand was Moorilla wine, now rebranded with a more 'edgy', more sophisticated positioning, complete with sensual branding. There is also the successful boutique beer brand Moo Brew, with labelling designed by Australian artist John Kelly and a distinctive and very non-beer champagne-shaped bottle. At the cellar door for both these products is a restaurant called The Source , named after artist John Olsen's 6 metre work on the ceiling of the foyer. Four additional apartments for the luxury accommodation that features work from the art collection, designer furniture and controversial architecture. There are now 8 apartments collectively named The Pavilions on the edge of the Derwent River, each named after an artist or architect and costing AU$7.6 million (£4.3 million). The final product within the MONA umbrella brand is MONA FOMA, or MOFO, a Festival of Music and Art—2010 was its second year. Curated by Brian Ritchie of the post-punk band the Violent Femmes, MOFO 2010 had John Cale, late of the influential band Velvet Underground and fresh from the 2009 Venice Biennale as its 'eminent artist in residence'. The humorous and self-deprecating tone of the MONA statements regarding MOFO can be illustrated thus:

> *'MONA FOMA is back for the second year and promises to be almost as good as the first. It also promises to take itself even less seriously' (MONA 2009).*

Findings

MONA is a work in progress. The art museum itself has been described as '*the most exciting addition to the Australian cultural landscape since the Sydney Opera House'*(The Sunday Times 20.2.11) and word of its success is spreading fast. Some of the other products within the MONA brand are only now just starting to take on their hedonistic form having been something of a legacy in need of rebranding. New products such as MOFO have quickly taken hold within Australia as distinctive and innovative cultural icons. For the future, though, MONA needs to make its mark internationally. The market for luxury brands is relatively small, particularly in a country with a population the size of Australia's. It might be said that the market for MONA's hedonistic experiences is even smaller. Also important is the fact art and cultural organisations need to be product driven. If they are not they risk their artistic integrity, the very thing that challenges their target markets (Colbert 2007).

Who, then, is the target market that will take MONA into the future? David Walsh has been quoted as saying:

> *'I want to target the world, but I want to target a very small percentage that might be interested in this subversive, adult kind of Disneyland… [they] might come from New York or Hobart, and if they come from New York, they'll justify the long trip and fairly large expense because the specific experience might have something to say to them' (cited in Strickland 2009: 38).*

MONA has now started reaching out to the global hedonistic consumer – the London based *The Art Newspaper* ran an extensive feature in their July 2010 issue on MONA (Ruiz 2010), after a writer travelled to Tasmania for a personal tour of the facilities.

Conclusions

This paper has explored the notion that consumers are seeking unique and memorable experiences and that marketing strategies need to offer more than the traditional features and benefits view of consumers in order to target them effectively (Williams 2006). An experiential approach to marketing is proposed as a tool for building brand identity, involving a more postmodern approach to the consumer as an aesthete, an emotionally driven and discerning participant in the consumption process. Hedonistic consumers are identified as especially responsive to experiential marketing, since they are seen to respond well to emotional appeals. The case of MONA serves to illustrate the potential for experiential marketing to target a small but discerning segment of consumers, drawn to the unconventional and highly personal brand that exemplifies the unorthodox nature of its founder, David Walsh. As the longitudinal study progresses and the brand continues to develop, so the full range of possibilities for the brand will continue to emerge.

Meanwhile, the programme for MOFO 2011, the arts and cultural festival that was 'the drum roll to the opening of MONA' promised amongst other things to 'solicit your discord' and 'exploit your sense of fun' (MONA 2010). As experiential marketing appeals go, at the very least it is intriguing and for hedonistic consumers potentially irresistible.

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Organizational Factors Contributing to Successful Delivery of Corporate Brand Experience: What Do We Know?

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Extended Abstract

Introduction, context and purpose

In recent years, the related notions of value co-creation (Prahald and Ramaswamy, 2000, 2004; Wikstrom, 1996), Service-Dominant Logic (Vargo and Lusch, 2004, 2008) and an experientially-based economy (Pine and Gilmore, 1988, 1989) have emerged to create a context in which the source of value for firm, consumers and other stakeholders is seen to lie in the interaction between those consumers and the firm's brand that results in a distinctive and meaningful experience for them. Consumers are no longer viewed as passive recipients of products but, along with the brand owner, active participants in the process of co-creating a uniquely valuable, branded experience. As Gronroos (2007) puts it, *'customers do not look for goods or services, ...but for solutions that serve their own value generating processes',* and rather than simply selling increasingly commoditized goods or services, firms now increasingly seek to derive superior value from delivering and enabling such an experience.

From the co-creation standpoint therefore, a firm's competitive advantage and ability to create long term value come not only from ownership of a brand asset that promises a distinctive and meaningful experience, but also from having the capability to successfully deliver it to meet the expectations of consumers and other stakeholders, so as to engage and build long-term relationships with them (Norton, 2003; Roper and Davies, 2007; Schreuer, 2000).

The co-creation view has therefore highlighted the importance to a firm's value creation process of its capability in 'brand delivery' - what Aaker (2004) describes as the ability to *'deliver the brand promise with reliability'*; in other words, the capability to successfully and consistently deliver the experience the brand represents and promises in terms of a distinctive set of functional and emotional benefits. Growing awareness of the importance of brand delivery was neatly articulated some years ago in the now familiar and much quoted statement by Jan Carlzon, former Chief Executive of Scandinavian Airlines Service;

'SAS is not a collection of material assets but the quality of contact between an individual customer and SAS employees who serve a customer directly. Last year, each of our ten million customers came into contact with approximately five SAS employees and this contact lasted an average of 15 seconds each time. These 50 million 'moments of truth' are the moments that ultimately determine whether SAS will succeed or fail as a company. We must prove to customers that SAS is their best alternative' (Carlzon, 1988).

In reality, there is a realization that successful and consistent delivery of the experience promised by the brand at such 'moments of truth' is still far from easy to achieve. According to a report by consultancy Interbrand (2007), *'Strict adherence to brand standards creates brands with customer impact - but few companies have been able to secure consistent compliance across their organizations'.* Although they may be few, some firms however are noticeably significantly better at successfully and consistently delivering the promise their brand offers than others. The reasons for this are numerous, but literature suggests that some aspects of organizational culture are important factors.

This paper therefore aims to gain a further understanding of the complex relationship between capability in brand delivery and organizational culture from a review of existing literature. It considers successful delivery of brand experience, although critical to a firm's value creating ability, to be a *non-financial aspect of organizational performance.* However, a review of the literature quickly reveals the issue to be complex, as there are various distinct strands of literature that could be considered relevant, each of which offers diverse perspectives. Two are considered here; first, the literature on the linkages between organizational culture and performance in general, and second, the newer and narrower, emerging literature on the relationship between organizational culture and brand delivery itself. The paper presents a mapping and review of these literatures to set an agenda for investigating conceptually the complex relationship between aspects of organizational culture and the increasingly important capability to successfully deliver corporate brand experience in a co-creation context.

Review of Relevant Literature

1. Organizational culture; problems in diversity of definitions and theoretical perspectives

A problem in beginning research into any connection between organizational culture and capability in brand experience delivery, or indeed any other aspect of performance, is the wide diversity of theoretical perspective relating to culture itself in which there are no commonly agreed definitions. As Lundberg (1985) has pointed out, the whole notion of organizational culture, *'remains a phenomenon that is, as yet, not fully understood or agreed upon'.* As a starting point for understanding, Deshpande and Webster (1989) provide a succinct description as a, *'shared pattern of beliefs and values that shape behavioural patterns and norms'* while Harris and Ogbonna (2002) offer, *'... a pervasive eclectic, layered and socially constructed phenomenon which is generated through values, beliefs and assumptions but expressed through artefacts, structures and behaviours'.*

Smircich (1983) and Huczynski and Buchanan (2000) have pointed out there are two broad streams of thought on culture. One, the 'interpretivist', deriving more from the social sciences, has viewed organization *as* culture - culture being intrinsic to, and root metaphor for the organization as a collection of patterns of meanings, shared values and behaviours that may be multi-layered, complex and dynamic (Alvesson, 2002). The other, the 'functionalist', on which the more management-oriented literature is founded, takes a perspective in which culture is seen as something an organization 'has' rather than 'is' (Wilson, 2001) - an internal variable which can, to an extent, be managed or changed, and which mediates and helps define organizational behaviour, performance and outcomes. To go some way towards reconciling these, Martin (1992) offers three perspectives on an organization's culture, those of *integration*, *differentiation* and *fragmentation*, which each recognise different degrees of complexity, difference, conflicts, layers and subdivisions within it.

2. Organizational culture and performance

The integration perspective, within which much of the more managerialist literature lies, is the more relevant for the research question posed here. It takes the functionalist view, described above, in which there is an assumption, to a degree at least, of there being a reasonably clear and shared set of values and assumptions within an organization. From this standpoint, an organization's culture can be considered to have a direct influence on both its performance outcomes as well as its reputation with consumers and other stakeholders (Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Roberts and Dowling, 2002; Schneider 1980). Culture is seen as a medium which can act to enable, or conversely frustrate, managers in achieving organizational goals (Harrison, 1972; Moseley, 2007). However, scholars have offered differing perspectives on the relationship between culture and performance, and in various studies, what has been considered to constitute 'performance' has differed widely. Kotter and Heskett (1992), for example, have shown evidence of a link between culture and some types of organizational financial performance, while Reid and Hubbell (2005) have identified certain elements in what have been described as 'performance cultures'. Other researchers have considered the role of some dimensions of culture as they affect performance, such as participative decision making, power sharing, support and collaboration and tolerance for risk and conflicts (Ke and Wei, 2008), common commitment (Eicher, 2006; Campbell and Yeung 1991) and leadership style (for example, Goffee and Jones 1996; Leffingwell 2001). However, the literature in this area is fragmented and there is little consensus.

3. Organizational culture and delivery of brand experience

A successful corporate brand embodies a unique identity and set of values perceived as attractive and valuable by its consumers and other stakeholders, such as shareholders (Harris and de Chernatony 2001). Within the relatively new and emerging brand delivery literature itself , there seems to be some agreement that a congruence between those values represented by the organization's brand (such as integrity, luxury, stylishness, fun, youthfulness etc.) - how the brand presents itself to consumers and the outside world - and those values inherent within the organization's own culture, is critical to successful delivery of the expected brand experience to consumers and other stakeholders (De Chernatony and Cottam, 2006, 2008; Ind and Bjerke, 2007; Gotsi, Andriopoulos & Wilson, 2008). De Chernatony (1999) has proposed that one measure of what might be termed *'brand performance'* is the gap between a brand's *perceived identity* and its *actual reputation* with consumers who have experienced it. In this respect, particular aspects of a culture which encourage employees to 'live the brand' in order to deliver the experience it promises have been explored, such as organizational leadership (Vallaster and de Chernatony, 2006), internal communication (Chong, 2007) and employees' level of engagement and motivation (Harris and De Chernatony, 2001; Sartain & Schuman, 2006). Anisimova and Mavando (2003) have drawn attention to the importance of minimizing the perceptual gaps between internal (employee), external (customer) and strategic (senior management) groups of stakeholders in aiming to achieve alignment between the values prevalent in an organization's culture and those represented in its brand.

Conclusions

The paper reviews and attempts to draw together two strands of literature relevant to the issue of successful delivery of brand experience in a co-creation context, in which successfully delivery and consumption of such an experience is seen as critical to an organization's ability to create long term, superior industry value. It concludes that, while there is growing scholarly and practitioner interest in this important area, the literature on the relationship between organizational culture and performance in terms of successful delivery of brand experience is both diverse and embryonic, and no coherent body of theory as yet exists to underpin it. It seems clear that linkages do exist; researchers have identified particular elements of culture that may contribute to superior performance in terms of of brand delivery. However, there is little empirical evidence and the overall picture that emerges about the nature of this relationship between culture and 'brand performance' is as yet partial, complex and fragmented. Further work is necessary to examine and reconcile existing literatures and to develop a new and more integrative literature and a body of theory which can be tested empirically.

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Session 2.4

Effects of Corporate Social Responsibility on Affective Commitment and Loyalty

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Do Prototypical Brands Facilitate or Impede the Introduction of Novel Extensions?

Frank Goedertier, Vlerick Leuven Gent Management School, Belgium
Niraj Dawar, Ivey Business School, Canada
Maggie Geuens, Gent University, Belgium
Bert Weijters, Vlerick Leuven Gent Management School, Belgium

An Inquiry into Corporate Heritage Brands and their Relevance in a Corporate Marketing Context: the Case of Britain's Oldest Brewer

Mario Burghausen, Brunel University, Brunel Business School, United Kingdom
John M. T. Balmer, Brunel University, Brunel Business School, United Kingdom

**Rethinking the brand management of family businesses –
Does family add value and how do you manage it?**

Joachim Kernstock, Centre of Competence for Brand Management, St. Gallen, Switzerland
Claudius König, CloserLondon, London, United Kingdom

Building Corporate Reputation: A Director's Perspective

Chantel Reddiar, University of Pretoria, South Africa
Nicola Kleyn, University of Pretoria, South Africa
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Effects of Corporate Social Responsibility on Affective Commitment and Loyalty

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Introduction

In order to contribute to research on the topic of corporate social responsibility (CSR) perceived by consumers, this study empirically explores the relationship between CSR dimensions and loyalty intention, mediated by affective commitment.

Conceptualization

Nowadays, car brands are concerned with corporate social responsibility (CSR). It is possible regard such aspects in brand communication, as well as in their online sites. By creating such identity, corporate car brands expect to be more competitive, achieve greater profits (Luo & Bhattacharya, 2006), and have more committed and loyal customers.

In a psychological perspective, the socially conscious consumer is a "consumer who takes into account the public consequences of his or her private consumption or who attempts to use his or her purchasing power to bring about social change" (Webster, 1975, p. 188). Later, Roberts (1993, p. 140) points out two dimensions, environmental concern and a more general social concern, in his definition of the socially responsible consumer and states that it is "one who purchases products and services perceived to have a positive (or less negative) influence on the environment or who patronizes businesses that attempt to effect related positive social change". This definition assumes two dimensions: environmental concern and a more general social concern.

Mohr et al. (2001) regard socially responsible consumer behaviour based on the concept of corporate social responsibility (CSR). Carroll (1991) discusses four domains of corporate responsibility: economic, legal, ethical, and philanthropic.

As Smith (2003) refers, the perspective of the stakeholder theory postulates that companies should consider the effects of their actions on all relevant constituencies (shareholders, customers, employees, suppliers, environment, and community).

Recently, the ISO/DIS 26000 (2009, p.3) standard mentions social responsibility (SR) as the "responsibility of an organization for the impacts of its decisions and activities (include products, services and processes) on society and environment, through transparent and ethical behaviour that contributes to sustainable development; takes into account the expectations of stakeholders; is in compliance with applicable law and consistent with international norms of behaviour; and is integrated throughout the organization and practiced in its relationships". The present study applies this more recent definition.

The majority of studies reveal a positive relationship between CSR and profitability through factors such as employee or customer loyalty, community goodwill, or socially responsible investing (e.g., Waddock & Graves, 1997; Margolis & Walsh, 2001; Schnietz & Epstien, 2005; Morsing & Schultz, 2006).

Corporate contribution to environmental and social concerns communicated through consumer-company relationship is regarded as an effective way to prove the company's commitment toward the solution of important social concerns (Jalleh et al., 2002; Baghi et al., 2009). Thus, the dimensions of corporate social responsibility should exercise a positive impact on affective commitment. This commitment is affected directly by the degree of personal interaction between a customer and a company and how the company manages the customer's relationship over time (Bendapudi & Leone, 2002). Affective commitment has a direct effect on behaviour or loyalty intentions (Verhoef, 2003; Johnson et al., 2006).

Assael (1987) defines brand loyalty as commitment to a certain brand. Zeithaml et al. (1996) regard behaviour intentions as saying positive things, recommending the company, or remaining loyal to the company.

Based on the previous considerations, this study proposes that chose CSR initiatives ((labour practices; community development; environmental (the environment); and economical (consumer issues)) enable companies to build a base of committed customers, which in turn positively contributes to customers' loyalty intentions. Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H1: CSR dimensions have a positive impact on customer' affective commitment.

H2: Affective commitment has a positive impact on customer' loyalty intentions.

Method

Sample and Data Collection

The questionnaire that operationalized the latent variables, as well as the demographic variables was pre-tested by six car users personally interviewed in three car dealers (car stands that sell cars and perform car maintenance). Then 329 car users of three different brands (Toyota, Renault, and Ford), living in three regions of Portugal were contacted through the car brand dealers and filled the questionnaire during May to September of 2009.

Over 50 percent of the sample fell into the age group between 31-50 years old. About 20 percent of the respondents were under 31 years old and approximately the same percentage of the respondents were over 50 The car users of the three brands are split into 35.0% from Renault, 33.4% from Ford, and 31.6% from Toyota.

Measurement

The seven latent variables of CSR were formulated based on the (ISO/DIS 26000, 2009) and the work of Walsh & Beatty (2007) and Webb et al. (2008). Affective commitment was measured based on two items (Fournier, 1998; Garbarino & Johnson, 1999; Johnson et al., 2006). Finally, loyalty intention is assessed through five items adapted from scales previously developed and used to measure loyalty (Zeithaml et al., 1996; Johnson et al., 2006). Respondents rated all measures on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (“completely disagree”) to 5 (“completely agree”).

Data Analysis

A structural equation model approach, using Partial Least Squares (PLS) (Ringle et al., 2005), was used to test the hypotheses of this study. The PLS employs a component-based approach for estimation purposes (Lohmoller, 1989) and can readily handle formative factors (Chin et al., 2003).

Major Findings

Findings indicate that the affective commitment of the car users of the three brands depends more on consumer issues, such as the fulfilment of expectations and empathy with sellers and other support staff than on other core CSR subjects, such as environmental concerns, community development, and even labour practices (see figure 1). In this context, car users are more aware of their direct personal product’s needs than of other more “indirect” determinants of CSR. The fulfilment of expectations comprises items such as “this brand is committed to provide what it promises” and “this brand fulfils the promises it makes”. However, affective commitment has a significant and positive effect on loyalty intentions.

It is important to create a good consumer-brand relationship in order to retain consumers. Nevertheless, car users are not socially conscious consumers. Brand managers should be aware in order to promote their social and environment activities to involve and motivate car users to social responsibility concerns. Otherwise, resources spent in social responsibility politics and practices are important from an ethical point of view, but might not be so from the point of view of profit.

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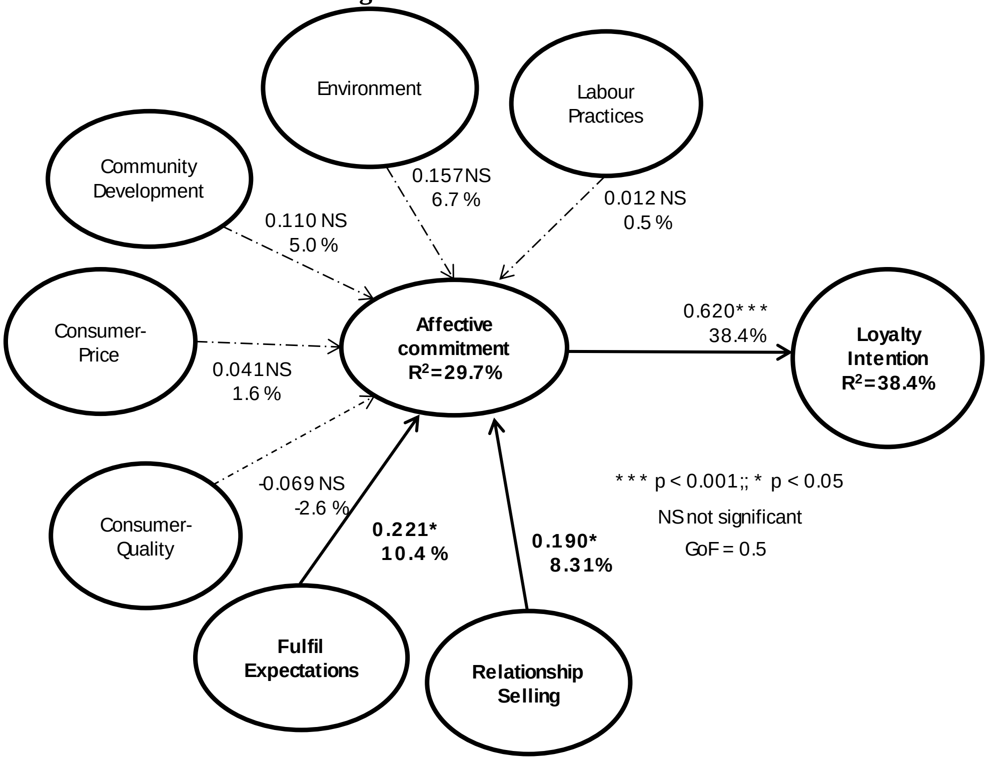
Figure 1. Structural Results



Do Prototypical Brands Facilitate or Impede the Introduction of Novel Extensions?

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Novel products, defined as unique innovations that are clearly distinct from other available alternatives, tend to have high failure rates (Sethi and Iqbal, 2008). But successful novel products are often more profitable than incremental innovations (Day, 2006), providing firms with an incentive to attempt novel innovation. Novel product failure is often due to lack of consumer acceptance, rather than technological or product shortcomings (Dewar and Dutton, 1986). To increase the acceptance of novel products, innovating firms may use a brand extension strategy - launching new products under brand names that are already familiar to consumers. Benefits of this strategy include immediate consumer awareness and a potential transfer of relevant brand associations (Tauber, 1988; Aaker, 1990).

Prototypical brands - those perceived by consumers to be most representative of their product category (Nedungadi and Hutchinson, 1985) - are among the most familiar in any category. Prototypical brands are, by definition, also strongly anchored in the product category of which they are the most representative and central exemplar (Nedungadi and Hutchinson 1985). Researchers have argued that category anchoring may facilitate consumer acceptance of extensions in categories *close* to the core category associated with the prototypical brand due to brand-category fit (i.e. the extension's perceived similarity to the parent brand (e.g. Aaker and Keller, 1990), but may hinder acceptance of *distant* extensions (Keller, 2008). However, past brand extension research has focused on products that are new-to-the-brand, but not new-to-the-market. Since novel products by definition depart from consumers' current category representations, the strong category anchoring of prototypical brands may hinder, rather than help acceptance of both for *distant* and *close* extensions.

However, in the context of novel extensions, other features of prototypical brands might strongly influence their effect on consumer acceptance. In addition to being highly familiar to consumers, and strongly anchored in their base category, prototypical brands tend to also carry strong associations of quality and trustworthiness (Aaker and Keller 1990; Loken and Ward, 1990). In three studies we examine whether these trust associations can overcome consumers' perceived uncertainty about novel extensions, and whether these might offset a potential fit disadvantage.

Study 1

The objective of study 1 was to generate a set of brand stimuli that vary in brand prototypicality but have similar awareness levels. Based on a pre-test (N = 28) 12 product categories, each associated by respondents with five to seven familiar brands, were selected for inclusion in the online main survey (n=235; 49% male; 25-65 years), and12 brands nested in four product categories were retained for further analyses: SUVs (*Land Rover, Toyota, Opel*), PCs: (*Siemens, Sony, IBM*), Ketchup (*Devos-Lemmens, Calvé, Heinz*), and Photo cameras *(Canon, HP, Sony*). Study 1 also serves as a preliminary investigation of the effect of brand prototypicality on the acceptance of novel extensions. Categorization theory suggests a two-step brand extension evaluation process (Boush and Loken, 1991), wherein Step 1 consists of an assessment of the fit between the parent brand and the extension product, and the second entails attitude transfer from the brand to the extension product. In Study 1, we investigate whether brand prototypicality facilitates or hinders the first step of this process for close novel extensions. A pre-test focus group (N = 8) identified a realistic, fictitious novel (close) product for each of the product categories identified in the first pre-test. These innovation stimuli were included in the main survey described above. Survey results show a significant positive effect of brand prototypicality on perceived brand-product fit: B = .64 (t = 17.82, p < .001); brand awareness does not have a significant effect on perceived brand-product fit (B = -.02, t = -.72, p = .466). Thus, after controlling for brand awareness, brand prototypicality has a strong and significant positive impact on perceived brand-product fit.

Prototypicality has been conceptualized as the opposite of novelty or distinctiveness (Schifferstein and Hekkert, 2008; Veryzer and Hutchinson, 1998), suggesting a possible perceived fit conflict when prototypical brands are extended to innovative products. Interestingly, the results of Study 1 suggest no such conflict. Even stronger, we find that brand prototypicality increases fit perceptions between a brand and a close novel extension. Taking a brand extension research perspective one could argue that when novel extensions are 'close', consumers may perceive a level of category coherence despite the extension's novelty (Bridges, Keller and Sood, 2000). Because perceived fit is an important driver of innovation acceptance (e.g., Aaker and Keller, 1990; Loken and John, 1993), prototypicality probably also facilitates consumer acceptance of close novel innovations. Insights from product innovation research, however, may offer an alternative explanation. While brand extension research focuses on the effect of perceived brand-product fit to explain consumer evaluations and acceptance of extensions (e.g. Boush and Loken 1991; Keller and Aaker, 1992), product innovation research stresses the negative relation between consumers' perceived uncertainty about new products and product acceptance (Ram and Sheth, 1989; Sorescu, Chandy, and Prabhu, 2003). In contrast to existing products, novel products are perceived as risky, carrying uncertain outcomes (Ram and Sheth, 1989; Robertson, 1971; Golder and Tellis, 1997). This uncertainty originates from perceived performance, physical, social, psychological, or financial risks (Ram and Sheth, 1989). To overcome uncertainty, consumers engage in search behavior (Urbany, Dickson and Wilkie, 1989). But if the information available does not reduce uncertainty, consumer acceptance is low (Min, Kalwani and Robinson, 2006). Since prototypical brands tend to be perceived as particularly trustworthy (Veryzer and Hutchinson, 1998; Nedungadi and Hutchinson, 1985; Ward and Loken, 1988), they provide consumers with information that helps reduce perceived uncertainty about novel products – leading to increased acceptance. We conduct a second study to test the uncertainty reduction hypothesis.

Study 2

A second online survey (n = 381; 56.5% male; 25-65 years) replicates the effect of prototypicality on fit, and extends it to dependent variables more directly related to innovation acceptance (i.e., *attitude towards the product*, *purchase intentions of the product*). A second goal was to investigate factors underlying the expected impact of prototypicality on product acceptance: perceived fit and/or the risk-reducing nature of prototypical brands. The brand and innovation stimuli of Study 1 were used. We ran a separate Structural Equation Model for each product category, modeling purchase intention and new product attitude as the dependent variables. Attitude is a partial mediator of the effects on Intention. The prototypicality manipulation (brand with low = -1, medium = 0, or high = 1 prototypicality) is the independent variable that directly affects perceived brand prototypicality. Perceived brand prototypicality affects new product attitude and purchase intention via two mediators: perceived brand-product fit and perceived risk. In the base model, we assume only partial mediation by brand-product fit and perceived risk. This model shows acceptable fit to the data for each of the four product categories ($chi^2(94)$ all below 179.9, $p <.001$; TLI's all above .984; CFI's all above .988; RMSEA's all below .049). We then restrict the paths from perceived brand prototypicality to new product attitude and purchase intention to zero. The model fit indices consistently point towards full mediation of the effect of prototypicality on attitude and intention (based on chi^2 difference tests and the Consistent Akaike Information Criterion). In Study 2 we find that both perceived (category) fit and trust in the extension mediate the positive effect of brand prototypicality on the acceptance of *close* novel extensions. However, Study 2 does not inform us of the relative strength and necessity of each of these two 'routes' to consumer acceptance of novel extensions of prototypical brands. Furthermore, we do not know whether the observed "trust" effect of prototypical brands is strong enough to enable an overall positive effect on acceptance when extensions are of a *distant* nature (and consequently may 'suffer' from a negative effect of brand prototypicality on fit perceptions that will negatively influence acceptance). To answer these questions, we run a third study.

Study 3

In a third online survey (n = 1330; 46% female; 2% 19-65 years) we replicate the conceptual model of Study 2 but include both *close* and *distant* novel extensions as stimuli, to investigate the impact of the distance of the extension in the context of our findings. The (close) innovation stimuli and brand stimuli of two product categories (*SUV cars* & *ketchup*) that were used in Study 2 were used again in Study 3. Participants of a focus group (n=6) brainstormed about and selected a distant, novel product for each of the two categories and for two other product categories (*chocolate* and *beer*). We specify a model as in Study 2 and use the close/distance manipulation as a grouping variable. Purchase intention and new product attitude are modeled as a function of perceived brand-product fit and trust in the new product. The latter serve as mediators for the effect of perceived brand prototypicality. Perceived brand prototypicality is regressed on the brand manipulation. Using multi-group analysis, the same model is simultaneously fitted to the data for the low and high distance groups within each category. However, as in Study 2, we test the model separately for the four product categories (i.e. we subsequently test four two-group models). The model fit is good and results point towards full mediation of the prototypicality effect via perceived brand-product fit and trust in the new product (lowest CAIC values for the full mediation models). The regression weights for the close and distant new product conditions of each product category are all in the expected direction and statistically significant ($p < .05$). In the distant group the effect of prototypicality on perceived fit becomes statistically insignificant ($p > .05$) in three product categories (SUVs, chocolate and ketchup) and even negative in one case (beer). We verify that these regression weights are indeed significantly different across groups by means of a Chi^2 difference test. This turns out to be the case ($p < .001$ for SUVs, chocolate and beer, and $p = .004$ for ketchup).

Conclusion

Results from three studies demonstrate that there are at least two routes to the acceptance of prototypically branded innovations. A *category-fit* route, which becomes stronger when novel products are perceived to be close to the core category of the prototypical brand; and a *risk-reduction* route is active for both close and distant novel products. These studies bridge a gap between the brand extension literature that focuses on factors affecting consumer acceptance of extensions of existing brands, and the innovation literature that examines reasons for new product success and failure. The results also nuance earlier claims that category congruence is crucial for successfully extending prototypical brands. Finally, these results demonstrate that prototypicality transcends category anchoring effects, and positively influences the acceptance of new products, even in distant product categories.

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An Inquiry into Corporate Heritage Brands and their Relevance in a Corporate Marketing Context: the Case of Britain's Oldest Brewer

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Introduction

The purpose of this article is to further elaborate our understanding of the nascent area of corporate heritage brands. We do this by reporting research insights from a theory-building exploratory qualitative case study which was undertaken within a centuries-old organisation – namely Britain's oldest existing brewery and the country's 19th oldest corporate entity. We specifically focus this article on the nature and role of corporate heritage as it is apprehended and appropriated by management and key communication staff.

Corporate Heritage Brands

Based on earlier work on monarchies as corporate brands (Balmer, Greyser & Urde, 2004, 2006) it has been proposed that some organisations develop a unique corporate heritage that could potentially be leveraged as a strategic resource for corporate brand differentiation *viz.* corporate heritage brands (Urde, Greyser & Balmer, 2007). These corporate heritage brands are a specific category of institutional brand in that they act as a meaningful reference point for individuals and groups by virtue of their linking the present to the past and the future alike. As such, it has been argued, that they signal stability as well as relevance to stakeholders. In order to stay relevant these brands need to be responsive to change at the same time. Hence, they need to be actively managed, maintained and nurtured with the CEO having the role of a "custodian" or "steward" for the brand and its heritage (Balmer, et al., 2006; Urde, et al., 2007).

Corporate Heritage Brands and Corporate Marketing

In examining the corporate heritage brand construct in marketing contexts it is clear that its institutional focus means that it falls within the corporate marketing realm (cf. Balmer, 1998, 2001; Balmer & Greyser, 2003, 2006). This being said, in scrutinising the literature on corporate marketing it has been found that there is a general lack of empirical research in the area especially in respect to the practical relevance and efficacy of *historical references* in the corporate marketing field. Making specific reference to heritage within the corporate marketing literature we have observed that there has been a palpable increase in the use of the term heritage in the marketing literature, the concept of heritage. However, there are some notable gaps in terms of comprehension of the construct in terms of its nature, boundaries, or relevance *vis-à-vis* marketing in general and corporate marketing in particular. To reiterate, corporate heritage brands and corporate heritage remain an under-researched area.

History Matters

There has been an upsurge of scholarly interest in nostalgia (Holbrook, 1993; Holbrook & Schindler 1996; Holak & Havlena, 1998; Stern, 1992), retro branding (Brown, 1999; Brown, Kozinets & Shelly, 2003), history marketing (Schug, 2003; Herbrand & Röhrig, 2006) etc. for some time now and adopting historical and retrospective perspectives appears to be part of the current *Zeitgeist*.

The Study

Our study has as its particular focus, corporate heritage brands and we believe this research to be unique in that it is the first major empirical study of its type, which seeks to make an explicit theoretical contribution to our comprehension of corporate heritage brands by focusing on its strategic nature. The research is significant in that, unlike extant studies on the area (Urde et al., 2007) which tend to focus on large - often global - corporate brands, our study focuses on a small- to medium sized family owned company based in the South-East of the UK. Family owned companies are under-researched with regard to marketing and brand management in general (Berthon, Ewing & Napoli, 2008), but are a believed to be a very promising backdrop for research of corporate heritage brands (Balmer et al., 2006; Blombäck & Brunninge, 2009). The case study focuses on the UK brewing sector, which is significant within the UK in terms of annual turnover, employment and cultural relevance. Moreover, despite the dominance of multi-national breweries, some 29 family owned businesses remain independent. Many of them are potential or actual corporate heritage brands following the template introduced by Urde, Greyser and Balmer (2007). It is a unique and important case study since it examines corporate heritage brands within Britain's oldest brewery.

Methodology

Based on moderate ontological constructionist convictions and epistemological pragmatic pluralism (Blaikie, 2007, 2009), the study adopted a single in-depth case design within the inductive, qualitative research traditions underpinning this study due to the lack of extant empirical research, the nascent, unspecified and multifaceted character of heritage and heritage brands as emerging concepts within the context of corporate marketing (Bonoma, 1985; Tsoukas, 1989; Eisenhardt, 1989; 1991; Dyer & Wilkins, 1991; Gill & Johnson, 1991; Stake, 1995, 2005; Gummesson, 2000; Yin, 2009). The study takes special interest in the particularities, interdependencies and the complexities of heritage as strategic resource and its cultural and organisational manifestations. Deep immersion in a single case was deemed advantageous as it was seen not only to provide the rich materials necessary for understanding and explicating corporate heritage brands, but also to enable a prolonged hermeneutic interaction between empirical data, emerging framework and extant literature, in order to clarify the boundaries of the concept (e.g. Dubios & Gadde, 2002; Verschuren, 2003; Dubios & Gibbert, 2010; Easton, 2010).

Some broad *preliminary concepts* (Yin, 2003) were used in a *sensitising mode* (Blumer, 1998 [1969]) as *orienting devices* (Layder, 1998) that provided initial guidance and focus for our study and increased our *theoretical sensitivity* (Glaser, 1978). Hence, these concepts helped to situate the study in its disciplinary and theoretical context that informed and guided the selection of the case itself, the identification of relevant units of analysis and indicated towards likely types and sources of data (Yin, 2003). A pilot study with another brewery similar in organisational characteristic (family owned, multi-generational, SME), but dissimilar in its approach to heritage branding was carried it to refine the research guides and reflect on the preliminary concepts.

Seventeen depth interviews with a cross-section of directors and managers were conducted. The duration of interviews ranged normally from 60 to 90 minutes. Interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed. Field notes were taken before, during and after interviews. Other important sources of data were documents. Documentary material comprised, among others, internal reports, archival material, annual reports, along with promotional material in the public domain such as brochures, magazines, and other documents such as the company website, newspaper clips. In addition, visual material was collected and non-participant observations took place throughout the project.

Facilitated by Software (MAXQDA 10) for storage and retrieval purposes a three-stage coding process, which is common with qualitative and inductive research of this kind (Charmaz, 2006; Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Miles and Huberman, 1994) was carried out. Following this approach, three orders of codes were established: first level (open) coding, second level (axial) coding, and third level (selective) coding. The process of data analysis was an iterative process and was not linear in form. Theoretical memos informed the process of analysis. Within the research tradition of qualitative research, different analytical techniques are employed and include constant comparison to generate codes and categories, asking theoretical, practical, structural, and guiding questions to create new information and concepts, writing memos (Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

Findings

Based on our findings we developed a fivefold VARCA-framework. We identified the following five instrumental categories: (1) Validate, (2) Articulate, (3) Relate, (4) Communicate, (5) Adopt.

The framework conceptualises our key insights into actionable categories of activities related to the management and appropriation of several substantive corporate heritage dimensions within the corporate marketing context that emerged from our study – providing subsequent managerial guidance. Based on our findings we distinguish between generic heritage characteristics as identified by Urde et al. (2007) and substantive heritage dimensions that form a company-specific pattern.

(1) Validate signifies the question whether managers and corporate communicators recognise and acknowledge the importance and saliency of heritage for their organisation and that it is manifested within the organisation.

(2) Articulate denotes the way in that the respondents were able to specify and describe substantive heritage dimensions of their organisation. Based on our examination of the heritage discourse within the organisation we abstracted four interrelated substantial heritage dimensions frequently mentioned by respondents as well as in corporate documents.

(3) Relate concerns the alignment and conflation of these heritage dimensions with the company's present identity and the way linkages with other heritage and identity domains were expressed. We found these substantive heritage dimensions to be closely linked to the present identity and core values of the organisation. However, the company's heritage was not only self-referentially linked to the institutional identity, but appears to support a reciprocal link of the corporate identity to local and regional identities.

(4) Communicate refers to common patterns of how managers and communication staff link the past to the present in a meaningful way and to what extent these linkages are reflected in other ways such as in public and promotional documents. The substantive heritage dimensions coalesce with corporate identity. We identified five concurring interrelated ways in which these links with the past are realised by organizational members during the interviews and within organizational documents as well.

(5) Adopt refers to the way management embraces the company's revealed heritage as responsible custodians of that heritage and for the strategic appropriation of heritage for corporate marketing purposes. We found an expressed overarching sense of responsibility, which can be described as some kind of guardianship or custodianship.

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Rethinking the brand management of family businesses -
Does family add value and how do you manage it?

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Introduction

This paper reviews family heritage's position as a core element in brand identity (Balmer 2010, Balmer, Greyser & Urde 2006, Balmer & Greyser 2002). It will aim to better understand the value of family in terms or brand management and company leadership. It examines weather the adoption of a family feel adds value to a brand both internally and externally and looks at its affect across four distinct family business archetypes.

Definition

When it comes to defining a family business we acknowledge three different established perspectives. In order to understand the use of "family" in brand management, it is necessary to differentiate it from common definitions of family businesses.

Firstly there are approaches combining start-up and entrepreneur activities (Abimbola & Vallaster 2007). In this study, entrepreneurship approaches are excluded, because of the limited access to "heritage", which is developed over time. There are definitions of family business derived from the entrepreneur and founders research community. Definitions of family business in this context can be described as follows: "*A business actively owned and/or managed by more than one member of the same family."*

Secondly, family businesses are often considered as being limited to small and medium sized companies, in which a special leadership style is responsible for success. This is often discussed under the term of Mittelstand leadership. This study does reflect on the often mentioned Mittelstand, which in the recent crisis has become an increased topic of interest due to their resilience during this period.

Mittelstand, understood as a mindset and leadership principle has previously been discussed by Porter (1990) in his study about the competitive advantage of nations and analysed as a key success factor of italian midsized companies and by Simon in (2009) in his book Hidden Champions of the 21st Century in relation to many German companies. In other recent publications Mittelstand is reconsidered as a superior governance principle and also connected to family businesses (Talaulicar 2010).

Thirdly, there is a politically driven "official" approach to family businesses that uses a broader definition of family business. The European Community has provided an "official" definition, when a firm is considered as a familiy business: " (1) The majority of decision-making rights is in the possession of the natural person(s) who established the firm, or in the possession of the natural person(s) who has/have acquired the share capital of the firm, or in the possession of their spouses, parents, child or children's direct heirs. (2) The majority of decision-making rights are indirect or direct. (3) At least one representative of the family or kin is formally involved in the governance of the firm. (4) Listed companies meet the definition of family enterprise if the person who established or acquired the firm (share capital) or their families or descendants possess 25 per cent of the decision-making rights mandated by their share capital." (European Commission 2011).

This understanding of family business is part of the European commission's presidents program, who consider the role of family businesses and their special in-depth orientation to corporate social responsibility and long term management perspectives important in terms of sustainable economic growth. Therefore they believe that family businesses should be supported by the European Community, a centiment which is backed up by Barroso (2007).

However, all these definitions and approaches to evaluating family business tend to base their definitions on ownership and/or corporate governance. Cultural aspects, internal and external communications and customer and employee relationships appear to be a significant area that has been under examined when evaluating family businesses. Further more, the overarching aspect of brand management and identity, which touches all of these areas can prove to be a key indicator in relation to identifying a family influence.

These aspects are important in order to understand brand management and its use of "family" in relation to addressing it to stakeholders, or as a differentiator to market competition. "Family" as a differentiator can be emphasised either internally creating a specific corporate culture or externally shaping the brand in the market place.

In order to identify family businesses this paper sets two principal distinctions towards any corporation: (1) Family founding is present as opposed to public/state or investors founding of a company. (2) The focal corporation is not a founders business or a start-up, set by an entrepreneur, but it is a established business (knowing well that establishing a business is different depending on the industry exposure). An internet establishement counts in months, whereas private banking, its business and its brand, needs decades (Abimbola & Vallaster 2007).

Research questions and methodology

This study looks at corporate brand management and links a corporation's brand identity to family values. It focuses on management who try to establish a "family feel". Brand identity content can be detected either in a actual, communicated or even ideal identity (see Balmers AC^3ID Test, Balmer, Stuart & Greyser 2009).

The key question, this study addresses, is: 'When and why does family add value and act as a differentiator between brands?' To answer this question this paper initially examines the extent to which family is currently being used as a differentiator. The research is based on a case sample of four different industries. All cases are discussed within a proposed framework that comprises family feel indicators observable through secondary research. To explore this topic we have developed a framework to identify if a company presents a family 'feel' either externally or internally through branding and communication (Memili, Kimberly, Kellermanns, Zellweger & Barnett 2010).

Understanding weather a family feel is used as part of a corporation's identity will lead to us addressing the following key questions surrounding family and brand management: (1) Should management address 'family' as a value? (2) Is family a differantiator? (3) Should a corporation adopted by a family focus on its (face) value? (4) Can management play the family value and are there risks of overplaying it? (5) How much should 'family' be emphasised by the corporate brand? (6) When and why does a true and sustainable family feel add value to the corporate brand? (7) When does family brand value have a positive influence on the leadership of the company? (8) And how to play "family" into the internal and external perception of the company?

Family businesses can be found in almost all industries. For our research we selected four sectors; retail, construction materials, health care and banking. All of these industries are global and established in almost all markets. Between our four sectors we represent both business to consumer and business to business concerns.

Findings and practical implications

The findings un-earthed following the initial secondary research that this article presents will not tell us definitively when and how family adds value to a business. What it gives instead is a set of "indicators" that allow us to identify the presence of a "family feel" within any organisation. These "indicators" lead to a framework in which family business and brand management will be discussed. At this level of findings, indicators are split into external and internal usage.

External indicators: (1) Family founding name included in company name: Made via an unconscious decision or planned by management, naming can evoke a specific family feel, even if family members are not part of the company anymore. (2) Family referred to the company's values: The family represents a specific attitude to business and it is part of external communication and approach to business. (3) Family story prominent in company history: The personal story of the family is directly linked to the corporate brand and used in external communication. (4) The notion of family used by external communications: Family as a stereotype is used in advertising and corporate communications. (5) Family imagery or films used: Portrayal of family imagery in branded external communcation. (6) Brand symbols and are directly linked to the family (i.e. a signature logo)

Internal indicators: (1) Family members present in management: Owners concentrate on internal management. (2) Family members present in supervisory board: Family presence is limited to corporate governance and not used regularly in public and management. (3) Family name included in company name: Family is part of the heritage without being involved in actual management and ownership. (4) Family values referred to in recruitment information: Family values are strongly used throughout the entire recruitment processes. (5) The notion of family used by internal communications or initiatives: i.e. celebrating corporate anniversaries are strongly linked to a sense of family. (6) Family imagery or films used for recruitment: A sense of family is part of the recruitment argument.

The key finding is a framework that can lead to aiding management decisions within family owned business or be used as a platform for further research about corporate family heritage and brand management. Summarising the results of the study, it detects several major gaps in regards to companies presenting a non-coherent internal and external family feel which present avenues for further exploration around brand alignment and authenticity.

Amongst other cases the study presents finding in which strong family businesses only use a family approach internally. In terms of their external communicated brand identity (Balmer et al. 2009) other values and stereotypes are used and replace any outward family feel. This situation causes important brand management issues that should be explored and addressed.

An even more dramatic situation is described in the study when a family feel is used externally despite the fact that there is no family present within the business. The gap of authenticity stretches the brand across customer and stakeholder expectations. Such an approach needs to be managed carefully from a brand perspective in order to satisfy all relevant parties.

Future research

As alignment, authenticity and continuity are universally desired within the branding world the next step is to conduct further primary research with family businesses to discover how alignment and authenticity affects companies and how these issues add value to or detract from a businesses success. This deeper understanding of family business and the evolution of brand identities can be studied by the application of Balmer's AC^{3}ID test (Balmer et al. 2009, Balmer & Greyser 2002). This application creates an insight of the role of family values and a family feel in the evolutionary development of the brand identity. However, it requires the limited access to the internal corporate discussion. At least one of the four industries should be tested.

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Building Corporate Reputation: A Director's Perspective

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Corporate reputation has evolved into a valuable strategic and intangible corporate asset that directors, as custodians of corporate reputation, must build and manage as an important source of competitive advantage. The recent global economic turmoil which began with the onset of firms in the United States of America ("USA") being allowed to adopt untenably risky positions which were unsustainable when financial market positions turned has dealt a blow to the corporate reputations of many global players (Morris, 2008). As corporate malfeasance and misdeeds have surfaced, the recent magnitude and frequency of corporate failures, hubris and governance infringements, has resulted in the lowest recorded levels of trust in corporate USA (Edelman Report, 2009).

Shareholders and society look to the upper echelons of companies, specifically their boards of directors to take responsibility for the management and building of corporate reputation (Davies, Chun and da Silva 2002; Fombrun 1996). In South Africa, the King III report (IOD, 2009) has specifically mandated the directors of a company to take formal responsibility for corporate reputation at board level. The purpose of this research is to explore the perspectives of executive directors to determine their understanding of corporate reputation and their opinions on: the dimensions of corporate reputation; the value attributed to corporate reputation; their responsibilities as custodians of corporate reputation and; the manner in which they believe they should build and manage corporate reputation.

Literature Review

Literature was reviewed to develop a comprehensive perspective of the definitions and dimensions of corporate reputation, the value of corporate reputation, and the role of directors in building and managing corporate reputation.

A detailed review of the literature surfaced a myriad of definitions of corporate reputation. The numerous definitions have proved problematic in advancing the field of corporate reputation (Fombrun and van Riel (1997; Barnett, Boyle & Gardberg, 2000; Wartick, 2002; Mahon, 2002; Lewellyn 2002 and Barnett, Jermier and Lafferty 2006).
Literature surveyed also indicated multiple perspectives on the dimensions of corporate reputation (Gabbioneta *et al*., 2007; Fombrun and van Reil 2004; Mercer 2004; Gardberg and Fombrun 2006; Carter 2006; Petkova, Rindova, and Gupta, 2008 and Kim, Bach, and Clelland, 2007). The literature acknowledged that identifying and leveraging the dimensions of corporate reputation could be of invaluable importance to companies (Gabbioneta *et al*., 2007). In an analysis of the various dimensions of corporate reputation Walker (2010) notes that reputation comprises different dimensions and that these dimensions are issue specific for each stakeholder and/or company. This supports O'Callaghan's (2007) contention that a one size fits all approach to corporate reputation is not adequate. Despite the varying perspectives on the dimensions of corporate reputation, authors are unanimous in their views on the importance of corporate reputation. Gibson, Gonzales and Castanon (2006, p.15) note that "Reputation is arguably the single most valued organisational asset". This view is supported by Galliard and Louisot (2006), Fang (2005) and Firestein (2006).

Dowling (2006) argues that corporate reputation management is primarily; first and foremost, the responsibility of the board of directors and that directors that do not deal with reputation management place their companies at risk and continue to do so until such time as this corporate asset is elevated to board level. The board of directors are tasked with accountability to shareholders for all aspects of the business (Roberts *et al*., 2005). Jagt (2005) notes that reputation management poses one of the major balancing acts in an executive's leadership role as directors are required to perpetually manage the sometimes conflicting interests of multiple stakeholders at the same time.
Building a strong reputation and managing the risk of reputational failure takes careful thought, meticulous planning and constant work over long periods of time (Larkin 2003). Fombrun and van Riel (2004) advocate for the active management of corporate reputations in order to derive maximum competitive advantage and to ensure that maximum value is created for the company. Wiedmann (2002) stresses the need for a companies to adopt a framework to drive an integrative and purposeful reputation management plan that spans across all areas of the business including finance; people; resourcing; distribution; and production

Methodology

A qualitative methodology was utilised for the purposes of this study. As the nature of this research was to interpret phenomena, a partly exploratory, partly descriptive design was employed in order to gain the deep insights sought. Semi structured, in-depth interviews were conducted with directors of a multi-national company that is listed on the Johannesburg Stock Exchange. It operates in a highly competitive and specialised industry.
The target firm employs 14 executive directors. The sample size in this study was 12 out of the 14 directors. Information was collected by means of face to face interviews with each respondent, in the privacy of a board room. A list of prompting questions was prepared in the form of an interview guide. The data compiled from the interviews were analysed in accordance with the inductive process and systematic stages outlined by Miles and Huberman (1994), and further expanded by Hillenbrand and Money (2007, p. 286), which consist of the, "preparation of written up field notes; qualitative clustering to identify trends in the data and the further analysis to identify high level themes and links between clusters."

Results

Investigation into how directors defined corporate reputation revealed that the term had a variety of meanings across respondents. A strong link to reputation was made via the brand connotation and many of the respondents expressed the sentiment that brand and reputation were inextricably intertwined. Most of the interviewees stressed the importance of corporate conduct; an underlying set of values; a code of conduct and; having a code of ethics or guiding corporate culture as indicators of a corporation's reputation. Rich data was gathered in arriving at the basket of dimensions of corporate reputation. Clustering of the statements into themes led to the development of a framework with the following dimensions: corporate conduct; leadership; customers; financial performance; corporate governance and crisis management. The most cited dimension of corporate reputation was the company's leadership and its people. Many of the respondents acknowledged that good corporate governance was a pivotal dimension of corporate reputation. The far reaching emphasis of governance was indicated by the many detailed comments regarding stakeholder engagement; transactions that could potentially give rise to environmental concerns and the company's corporate social investment programs. One of the respondents was particularly vocal that a crisis management plan had to form a dimension of corporate reputation. Whilst crisis management was referenced by a few other respondents it was not specifically included as a dimension to corporate reputation.

All directors interviewed believed that corporate reputation was of value to any company, although it was interesting to note that whilst the value was acknowledged, directors had different views on whether corporate reputation offered a competitive advantage. In addition, each of the respondents had differing submissions as to the manner in which corporate reputation could be built. Corporate conduct was the overwhelming theme proposed by directors for the building and management of corporate reputation.

Conclusion and implications

This study contributes to advancing the area of corporate reputation by examining the perspectives of executive directors of publicly listed companies. It provides a director's view of the dimensions of corporate reputation that serve as levers to build and manage corporate reputation. In addition it has equipped directors with a proposed a framework with which they can attempt to build and manage corporate reputation as a source of competitive advantage.

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Session 3.1

Financial vs. Consumer-based Brand Equity: A cross-cultural perspective

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Financial Brand Valuation: an experiential perspective

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Consumer Boycotting and Global Brand

Ibrahim Abosag, Manchester Business School, U.K.

I Don't Like It! – Understanding Brand Avoidance

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Financial vs. Consumer-based Brand Equity
A cross-cultural perspective

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Introduction

Greatly as a result of the increasing M&A activity in the late 1980s and early-1990s, the awareness of the financial value of brands has increased, bringing along the concept of 'brand equity'. (Lindemann, 2010; Kapferer, 2004). The value of brands has indeed been recognized as one of the priorities in branding research which has also highlighted the importance of having a long-term focus within brand management (Koçak, Abimbola & Özer, 2007; Keller & Lehmann, 2006; Wood, 2000). In accounting terms brand equity relates to the total value of a brand as a separable asset built over time, thanks to the investment of the business in it (Wood, 2000; Wright, Millman & Martin, 2007). There is, however, no clear consensus on how to measure brand equity, and from which standpoint (Koçak et al., 2007).

Basically, there are two perspectives to measuring brand equity: financial or firm-based brand equity and consumer-based brand equity. The consumer-based brand equity represents a bottom-up approach, examining the meaning of the brand and the value consumers place on it. This can also be called brand strength (Wood, 2000). The company-based viewpoint, on the other hand, is a top-down approach of measurement using information on the financial performance of the company. (Fetscherin, 2010) The approach focuses on outcomes, actual or notional business transactions, extending from efforts to enhance a brand's value to its stakeholders (Shimp, 2010; Wood, 2000). This specific value has been most prominently demonstrated by the 'Best global brand' survey published in *BusinessWeek* with Interbrand annually since 2001. Rather than actual revenues, the survey incorporates expected earnings to encompass the potential strategic contributions and benefits of a brand to a company (Wright et al., 2007). Brands are intangible assets; according to the Interbrand survey, brands account on average for more than one-third of shareholder value.

Looking at the top-10 brands on Interbrand's list, an interesting question arises: what brands are on the top in customers' top-of-mind list, and in different countries? By comparing the ranking of brands on Interbrand and among consumers, *the purpose of this paper is to compare the financial brand equity with the consumer-based brand equity and to find out if there are cultural differences between the consumers' perceptions*. The empirical research was conducted in the US, France, Finland, and Sweden.

Convergence of cultures

It has been predicted that the success of global brands is leading to colonization of world cultures by international corporate brands and demise of local cultures. The leading global brands are almost beyond exception American, and in reference to that, global cultural homogeneity is also called 'Americanization' or 'Westernization', suggesting that the companies with their global brands force Western lifestyles on consumers in other parts of the world. An interesting question arises: are cultures converging? Mooij (2010; 2003) argues that if there is convergence, it takes place at a macro level, such as convergence of demographic phenomena like graying populations. And the wealthier countries become, the more manifest is the influence of culture. Fundamentally, according to her, deeper-level cultural differences in consumer behaviour across countries are persistent. According to Mooij (2010), needs may be universal but core values, attitudes and motivations vary across cultures. Consequently, similar motives and arguments cannot be used in all marketing communications.

Whether to standardize – for greater efficiency – or adapt the product to the cultural circumstances – for greater effectiveness – is one of the fundamental questions in global branding, and has been a debate point among academics for the last 50 years. On one hand, standardizing can yield economies of scale. On the other hand, companies should appreciate the differences among foreign markets and adapt their offerings to consumers' deeper values. A third view, the contingency perspective, is based on the idea that the best branding strategy varies depending on the situation (Agrawal, 1995).

Measuring Brand Equity

It is postulated that measuring brand equity (value) across cultures in multiple market environments can have significant managerial and theoretical value. To this end, this research will explore the awareness of brands and brand value in different nations and cultures, evaluate the effects of cultural differences, highlight important managerial implications, and suggest how brand equity (value) may impact company marketing strategies. Precisely, the purpose is to study the differences between financial-based brand equity and customer-based brand equity. The empirical study was conducted in the US, France, Sweden and Finland and consequently, the aim was to see if the top-of-mind perceptions differ from one culture to another.

For indicating brand equity, one of the ways Kapferer (2004) recommends is spontaneous brand awareness by which he means a measure of saliency, of share of the customer's mind when cued by the product. According to Aaker (1991; see also Ballantyne, Warren & Nobbs, 2006) there are two levels of awareness: the stimulus based brand recognition and the memory based brand recall. Herein, the focus is on brand recall: the consumers were asked to retrieve a brand name from memory without any reminders. Ultimately, it is a question of top-of-mind (TOMA) awareness or TOMA status where a particular brand is the first one that consumers recall when thinking about brands in a particular product category. (Shimp, 2010) Brands that are easier to recall stand a better chance of gaining entry into the consumers' consideration set, i.e. the pool of brands from which a choice is made (Ballantyne et al., 2006).

Research setting

US, French, Swedish and Finnish students were asked to list their top-of-mind brands in the following categories: beverages; computers; cell phones; cars; restaurants; media, and Internet services. By asking so, the idea was to see how similar the choices are compared to Interbrand's Best global brands as well to see if there are cultural differences in the equities. In order to keep group differences to a minimum, a homogeneous sample like students is considered valid and justified. Student samples are thought as superior samples in cross-cultural comparisons for establishing equivalence, controlling source of variation and isolating the cultural differences. (Koç ak et al., 2007)

According to Hsieh (2004), there are two types measures employed in brand equity studies: attitudinal and behavioural. This study represents the former, focusing on brand awareness. Top-of-mind awareness does not tell about intention to purchase nor actual brand choice, i.e. behavioural tendency. If, however, we are to follow Keller's (1993) definition of brand equity according to which favourable brand associations lead to a positive response, i.e. purchase intention or actual choice, we are allowed to believe that a customer preferably buys his/her top-of-mind brand in the category.

Major Findings

If we are to measure brand equity by top-of-mind awareness of consumers, the results of this study indicate that the brand equities differ across countries. Different cultural conditions lead to different top-of-mind awareness. In the following Table, the top-of-mind brands in each examined product category in the four countries are presented.

<Insert Table 1 here>

As discernible from the overall results, quite many of the consumers' top-of-mind brands are the same as on the Interbrand top-10 ranking, and differences between countries are scarce. In the beverages' category, Coca Cola is the number one brand in all examined countries except the US. The fact that in the United States Coca Cola is a fountain brand may have something to do with the result. The computer category is surprisingly unanimous within the countries. The highest ranked cell-phone brand on the Interbrand list, Nokia, is quite naturally the top-of-mind cell phone in Finland, as well as respectively Apple and Sony Ericsson in the US and Sweden. In the car category[3], however, there is quite a lot of dispersion, and an interesting finding is that Mercedes Benz is the top-of-mind brand among the French students even though there are fairly big French car brands in the market. Also the fact that McDonald's is the on the top in the restaurants' category is an interesting result regarding France; for nearly 50% of the students it is the first restaurant in mind. The media category is the most ethnocentric: a country's own TV channel or newspaper was ranked first. Finally, Google seems to have gained ground in Europe in particular.

Discussion

Brands are created by the market but they must be managed by the company. In all markets, successful brand management begins with knowledge of the target market. The paper contributes to the understanding of cultural differences. The issue is important for business managers as the debate on standardization vs. adaptation is still ongoing. A brand's position in the market may be a factor underlying the results. There may be intense competition in the market or the product category is not considered as important in all the countries. Furthermore, the national-level predisposition toward imported brands, the length of time the brand has been in the market, brand distribution as well as marcom expenditures may have an effect on the results. These are issues that should be addressed in the future studies. It should also be noted that the results might have been different had the empirical data been gathered from different education levels and age groups as well as various geographic regions.

Understanding brand equity from the customers' perspective needs more attention (Washburn & Plank 2001). This study took a look at the issue, asking consumers what brands they value in particular product categories. However, the paper is not able to answer the question how to build up and affect a brand's value to the customer, i.e. what kind of marketing activities are needed to make consumers respond favourably to a brand.

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[3] The examined categories were given according to the Interbrand top-10 list of 2009 where Toyota was listed the 8th, the value of the brand being 31,330 $ million. In 2010 there were no automobile brands in the list.

For a brand to be successful, it must be the preferred alternative in the consumers' memory. Offering greater value than other brands, brands based on recall have better potential to succeed in the long run.

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Table 1. Summary of the major findings

	USA		**Finland**		**France**		**Sweden**	
Beverages	Pepsi	n=105 (54%)	Coca Cola	n=107 (84%)	Coca Cola	n=176 (78%)	Coca Cola	n=165 (91%)
Computers	Dell	n=82 (42%)	Dell	n=43 (33%)	Dell	n=80 (35%)	Dell	n=56 (31%)
Cell phones	Apple	n=33 (17%)	Nokia	n=126 (98%)	Nokia	n=93 (41%)	Sony Ericsson	n=121 (66%)
Cars	Toyota	n=47 (24%)	BMW Audi	n=20 (16%)	Mercedes Benz	n=40 (18%)	Volvo	n=66 (37%)
Restaurants	McDonald's	n=27 (15%)	McDonald's	n=34 (28%)	McDonald's	n=92 (47%)	McDonald's	n=68 (43%)
Media	Fox	n=22 (16%)	MTV3	n=50 (45%)	TF1	n=22 (15%)	Aftonbladet	n=24 (28%)
Internet services	Yahoo	n=27 (14%)	Google	n=58 (48%)	Google	n=83 (39%)	Google	n=70 (44%)

Financial Brand Valuation: an experiential perspective

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This paper investigates the financial valuation of intangible brand value from an experiential perspective. Intangible brand value appears to be increasing across all product and service categories, especially in transitional economies such as China. Furthermore, mergers and acquisition (M&A) activity, especially cross-border M&A, is also increasing both in volume and value . However, financial brand valuation, whether this involves a corporate brand or individual product/service brands, remains limited to traditional methods most of which are derived from the areas of finance and economics. This paper makes full use of social science theory in an attempt to form a more accurate financial value.

An in-depth, critical review of the most common financial brand valuation methods is first presented., which exposes clear and growing limitations given a more turbulent business environment and much more varied consumer lifestyles.

A new methodology is then proposed which aims to complement existing methods by allowing consideration of the differing consumer brand consumption experiences. A financial valuation of each brand experience is arrived at by employing use of both social constructivism and social constructionism. Results indicate that different experiences indeed lead to quite different valuations.

A sample of 101 Chinese university students from a well known Chinese university provided quantitative research data on their different brand experiences, where mobile phone usage was used in this case. A priming process took place in which sample respondents were asked to imagine using their phone to contact, a) their parents b) a romantic partner c) a best friend and d) a classmate. Qualitative research data was also obtained via 10 depth interviews and 3 focus groups. Statistical analysis provided significantly different responses across different primed experiences.

As a result, this paper “opens the door” to a more accurate understanding of how consumers value brand experience. Finally, implications for valuation of takeover targets as well as marketing mix activity are discussed in full

The Relationship between Religiously Motivated Consumer Boycotts and Global Brand Image

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Boycotting as a forced anti-consumption behavior has been occurring for decades. Boycotting according to Friedman (1999), John and Klein (2003), and Klein *et al.* (2004) often occurs when people deem a firm (micro-boycotting) or a country's (macro-boycotting) act to be egregious. At the macro-boycotting level, studies have generally tackled the different types of animosity caused by a political (e.g. Ettenson and Klein, 2005; Amine, 2008), economic (e.g. Shin, 2001, Ang *et al.*, 2001), or military (e.g. Klein, 2002, Nijssen and Douglas, 2004) egregious act. Despite an expanding research interest in understanding animosity, there appears to be a scarcity in studies addressing religious animosity. Religious animosity and its boycotting campaigns have proved to be significantly damaging to international companies. The ongoing boycotting campaign against the Danish dairy group Arla Foods (FA) is a part of the religious animosity that grew within the Muslim community (Riefler and Diamantopoulos, 2007) as a result of the publication by "Jyllands Posten", an independent Danish newspaper, of cartoons depicting the Prophet Mohammad in September 2005. The boycott of AF started early in 2006 and within the first five days of the boycott, the company lost over sixty percent of its market share (Abosag, 2009). Despite the Fatwa (religious statement that should be obeyed) issued by the International Support of the Prophet Conference in Bahrain exempting AF from the boycott, AF has still been unable to recover its market share in Saudi Arabia, where it has its production facilities.

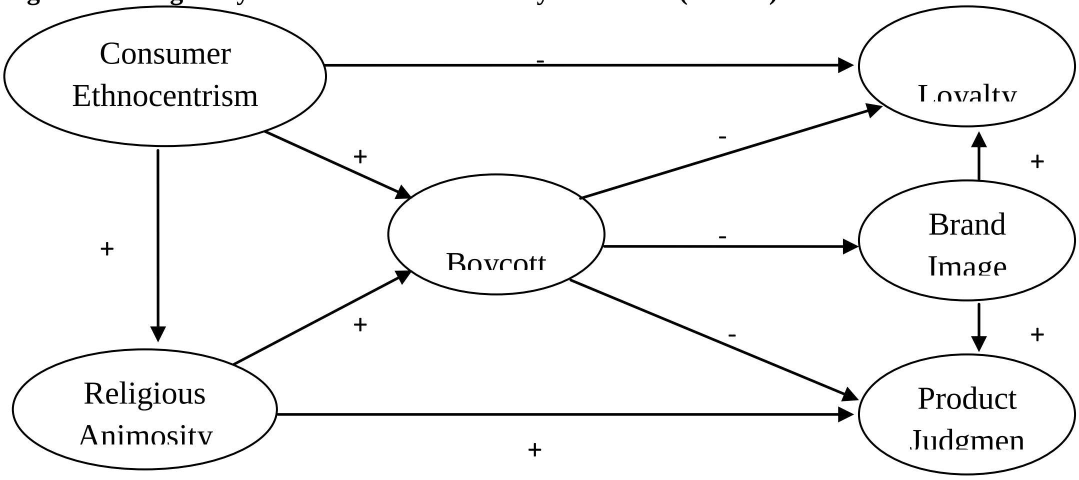
This paper combines different streams of literature on animosity, ethnocentrism (e.g. Klein *et al.,* 1998; Rose *et al.*, 2009), consumer boycotting (Friedman, 1999; Klein *et al.*, 2004), brand image (Keller, 1993; Martinez *et al.,* 2008), product judgement (e.g. Hui and Zhou, 2002) and customer loyalty (e.g. Zeithaml *et al.,* 1996), and proposes a theoretical framework including hypotheses fully supported by relevant theories based on the gaps and justifications from the extant literature. The structural model proposed is empirically tested on the boycott of AF in Saudi Arabia. The details of the research study, including the research instrument, the research setting and the data collection, are discussed in the section following the hypotheses. Subsequently, we present the results and discuss their implications both for researchers and practitioners.

Consumer Religious Animosity and Ethnocentrism: Consumer animosity refers to anger reactions related to previous or ongoing political, military, economic, or diplomatic events that affect consumers' purchase behavior (Klein *et al.,* 1998). In order to understand the differences between different types of animosity, one must think of these animosities in relation to the core beliefs held by consumers. At the very heart of an individual's core belief system is a basic assumption upon which their views on the realities of life are formed. This is the epicenter of a person's belief system and is where religious animosity develops. What makes boycotting triggered by an egregious act against a religion so effective and long-lasting is that it attacks the core belief of consumers.

While established country-of-origin studies generally presume a direct relationship between consumers' product judgments and purchase behavior, the animosity model suggests that consumer animosity can affect buying behavior directly and independently of product judgment (Wilkie and Pessemier, 1973; Green and Srinivasan, 1990). The literature shows a correlation between consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism (Klein *et al*., 1998). However, other studies show consumer animosity and ethnocentrism as distinct constructs (Klein and Ettenson, 1999). Ethnocentric consumers typically avoid buying foreign products. During boycotting campaigns that are triggered by religious animosity, ethnocentric consumers are likely to develop a high level of religious animosity and participate in the boycott.

Brand Image, Product Judgment and Customer Loyalty: Literature on the subject suggests that brands from the boycotted country will be negatively impacted as consumers will hold a more negative image of the brand (Smith and Cooper-Martin, 1997). Also, literature has shown sufficient evidence that global brands can have a big impact on product perception and judgment (Leclerc, Schmitt and Dube, 1994) and on customer loyalty (Zeithaml *et al.,* 1996). The literature on the subject supports the propositions that both country of manufacture and brand image are important factors in consumer evaluations of product quality (Aaker, 1997). We expect brand image to influence product judgement and loyalty positively even during boycotting campaigns.

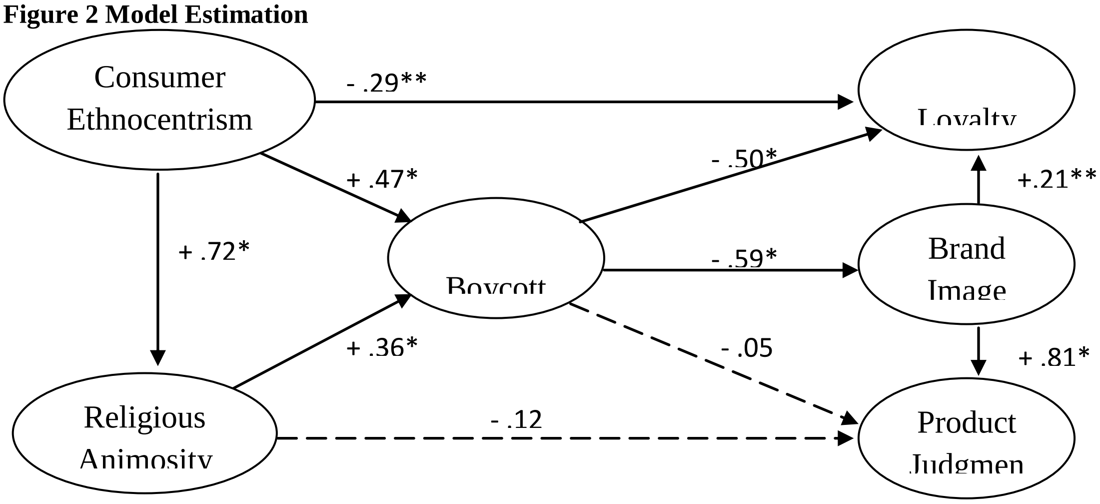
Figure 1 Religiously Motivated Consumer Boycott Model (RMCB)



Methodology and Findings: The research was conducted on Saudi Arabian consumers near the end of 2009. Using a systematic sampling method, which "produces samples that are almost identical to those generated via simple random sampling" (McDoniel and Gates, 2001, p. 341), the study achieves the randomized sample necessary for this kind of study. A telephone directory was used to assemble the sample, implementing a skipping interval that was randomly fixed to number eleven in each column (two columns) on each page. All respondents were Saudis and the sample was made up of 55.2% male and 44.8% female. A total of 238 completed questionnaires were returned.

The survey instrument is derived from Klein et al.'s (1998) initial test of the animosity model. It consists of demographic variables and the six key constructs: (1) consumer ethnocentrism, (2) consumer animosity, (3) boycotting behavior, (4) product judgment, (5) brand image, and (6) brand loyalty. All statements were measured on a seven-point Likert-Scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The estimation of the model resulted in a very good fit χ^2 (df) = 10.65 (5), p-value = .056, CFI = .99, IFI = .99, GFI = .98, AGFI = .94, RMSEA = 0.067. To validate the model, a competitive model was tested. The results show poorer fit compared with the original model. The estimation of the competing model resulted in χ^2 (df) = 42.86(6), p-value = .000, CFI = .97, IFI = .97, GFI = .94, AGFI = .80, RMSEA = 0.158. This result confirms the legitimacy of the original model.

Figure 2 Model Estimation



*significant at p<.005 (1-tail); ** significant at p<.05

Discussion: The key findings show that consumer ethnocentrism has a direct and sizeable impact on religious animosity. Consumer ethnocentrism also increases the occurrence of boycotting behavior and reduces customer loyalty toward AF. As in Rose *et al.* (2009) religious animosity was found to increase the likelihood of boycotting, though no influence on product judgment was detected. The impact of boycotting on brand image and on customer loyalty was found to be negative and significant. However, no relationship was found between boycotting and product judgment. This emphasizes the fact that though consumers deliberately avoid purchasing certain products during boycotting, this does not change their opinion of the products' quality, leaving product judgment independent from the influence of boycotting and religious animosity. Our findings show that brand images evoking positive emotions also increase customer loyalty and help consumers make better judgments about products.

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I Don't Like It! – Understanding Brand Avoidance

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Introduction

In essence, branding is about influencing and creating positive and attractive images that sell. Analogically, the majority of consumer and customer research focus on the positive consumption of brands. However, consumers also reject specific brands in order to avoid adding undesired meaning to their life (Lee et al., 2009) which also may have a considerable impact on business success. Brand avoidance, where consumers reject specific brands, is a sparingly studied field within branding although interest is growing, as seen in a recent special issue on anti-consumption (Journal of Business Research, vol. 62, 2009).

What does brand avoidance mean and when can we consider that consumers avoid certain brands? Brand avoidance is defined by Lee et al (2009, 170) as "the incidents in which consumers deliberately choose to reject a brand". In this definition no timeline is mentioned, indicating that these incidents may be past, present or future incidents. The notion that consumers should deliberately choose to reject a brand indicates that consumers during that incident reflect upon the brand. However, as Zaltman points out, a considerable amount (95%) of consumer activity, especially in mundane routine situations are not reflected upon: "In actuality, consumers have far less access to their own mental activities than marketers give them credit for."(Zaltman, 2003, 9). The last component in the definition is rejection. Rejection can take various forms of not choosing a brand. Hogg et al (2009, 153) propose that avoidance, aversion and abandonment involve different degrees of anti-choice due to the strength of feelings and behaviors they express. Brand avoidance would include staying away or moving away from a brand. Resistance can take the form of active behavior in the marketplace whereas rejection involves more passive behavior which may be difficult to recognize or observe. (Hogg et al., 2009) Brand avoidance would thus include also passive avoidance. Based on their study, Lee et al (2009) propose that a consumer's personal reasons for avoiding a brand may be caused by negative first hand consumption experiences that lead to unmet expectation (experiential), identity avoidance may develop when the brand's image is symbolically incongruent with the individual's identity, and moral avoidance and moral brand avoidance may arise when the consumer's ideological beliefs are incongruent with the brand's values and associations (Lee et al 2009, 169). Hogg et al (2009) propose that to reject a specific brand may be mediated by the marketing environment, the social environment, or the consumer's individual environment. These environments work as sources for information for the consumer.

Rejection and resistance on the other hand are forms of anti-consumption with varying degrees of visibility. Brand avoidance is considered a particular form of anti-consumption. Anti-consumption relates to the consumer's attitude and active resistance towards consumption (for a discussion, see Cherrier, 2009) in general, or specifically towards certain brands. Specific brand avoidance has been further classified based on if the focus for avoiding the brand is due to the consumer's societal concerns or personal concerns. (Iyer and Muncy, 2009) Social movements, like market activists, relate to societal concerns. These consumer activities may take the form of boycotting certain brands due to that they are considered to cause specific societal problems. The other category concerns brands that are avoided due to personal concerns. Personal concerns are conceptualized by Lee et al. (2009) as anti-loyalty, which reflects a "personal commitment to avoid purchasing a product because of perceived inferiority or because of a negative experience associated with it" (2009, XX). This paper focuses on personal concerns for brand avoidance.

In conclusion, this article defines brand avoidance as the incidents (past, present, future) in which consumers reject a brand. Brand avoidance can be a reflected choice or un-reflected choice. The purpose of this paper is to explore consumers' brand avoidance dynamics by focusing on how brand avoidance concerning specific brands of the consumers' choice has evolved based on information from various sources over time.

We propose that the understanding of experiential, identity and moral brand avoidance (Lee et al 2009) can further be developed buy exploring consumers' Personal Construct Systems (Fransella et al., 2004). Personal Construct Systems represents the consumer's individual model of how s/he makes sense of her/his world, events and situations. By revealing consumers' Personal Construct Systems more understanding on brand avoidance can be developed especially on how the consumers' brand image has evolved over time.

The understanding on how brand avoidance has evolved over time will be developed by applying two concepts: the "*image heritage*" and the *"image-in-use"*. Image heritage stands for the individual consumer's *past* brand specific network of individual and/or social experiences over time. Image-in-use stands for the *present* image construction process, which is influenced by image heritage, company activities and other social influences. The concepts highlight the interplay between past and present in the brand image construction process.(Rindell et al., 2010, Rindell and Strandvik, 2010)

The paper is structured as follows: first, in our literature review we will discuss image heritage and image-in-use, since they are novel concepts for capturing the temporal and contextual dimension in brand avoidance. Then, an overview of anti-consumption literature is provided for clarifying the linkage between brand avoidance and anti-consumption, and for opening up brand avoidance research. Second, the empirical setting, analysis and findings are presented, and finally managerial implications and suggestions for further research are presented.

Methodology

Repertory Grid Technique is used to analyze qualitative data on how consumers perceive brands of their choice that they avoid. The RGT technique offers a concrete analytical framework for exploring the form and nature of consumer's subjective and inter-subjective meaning systems. The underlying sense-making process, called construing in PCP, is an act of discrimination that may take place at many levels of awareness. It thus offers a holistic understanding of the process of meaning making. The technique as such has been used in large number of fields, including marketing.

Results

The paper presents a categorization of various reasons and consequences of brand avoidance rooted in consumer profiles which provide a deeper understanding of the brands position on the market place. Results show how brand avoidance is dynamic and changes over time both specifically concerning specific brands, but also concerning consumers' brandscapes (Thompson and Arsel, 2004).

Discussion

For managers, the study clarifies the criticality in understanding brand avoidance and especially why the brand is avoided. This may open up new opportunities for branding strategies. The paper presents a novel approach for understanding brand avoidance based on consumers' Personal Construct Systems. It offers a concrete analytical framework for exploring the form and nature of consumers' subjective and inter-subjective meaning systems.

KEYWORDS: Brand avoidance, Image heritage, image-in-use, Repertory Grid Technique

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Session 3.2

Advertising Agency Employer Branding:
Eliciting Salient Attributes from the Perspective of Prospective Employees

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The Life Cycle of Mavens

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Exploring the Relationship between Corporate, Internal and Employer Branding – An Empirical Study

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Branded Space-time: Narrative Productions of Organisational Identity and Image

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Saara Taalas, Turku School of Economics, Finland
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Advertising Agency Employer Branding: Eliciting Salient Attributes from the Perspective of Prospective Employees

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Introduction

Branding is a well established topic in the academic literature, with the first papers published during the 1940s (see for example Guest, 1942). In the time since, a recurring theme has been the potential for branding to differentiate an organisation, product or service from competitors (see Gardner & Levy 1955, Aaker 1991, Keller 1993, Kotler, Brown, Adam, Burton & Armstrong 2007). Branding research has generally been undertaken in the context of consumer or trade markets, the growth in interest of which was evidenced during the second half of the 20th century, when an estimated 766 major publications by 789 authors were published (Papadopolous 2002, in Anholt 2002). However, the concept of employer branding has emerged relatively recently (see Ambler & Barrow, 1996).

The last 50 years has witnessed major changes in the workplace and society; through the technological advancements of the 1960s, industrial strife in the 1970s, the emergence of the 1980s 'enterprise culture', the 1990s recession and corporate downsizing (Cooper & Burke, 2002). This has resulted in a plethora of new challenges and opportunities for management and workers, including: downsizing, restructuring, short term employment contracts, changing roles of men and women, virtual organisation networks, outsourcing, and flattened hierarchical structures. Recent macro environment factors such as the globalisation of labour markets and the aging of baby boomers have created more competition for staff recruitment, which in turn has necessitated management to become more people-centred. However, understanding employer attractiveness from the perspective of potential employees remains under researched, (Berthon, Ewing & Hah, 2005).

This paper is concerned with advertising agency brand image among prospective employees. Specifically this exploratory study reports the first use of Kelly's Triads to elicit attributes of advertising agencies deemed salient to graduating students of an undergraduate advertising major. The differences between the salient attributes elicited from students and opinions of an expert panel highlight the value of engaging in an inductive stage identifying context-specific consumer input to supplement universally accepted attribute lists for use in structured surveys measuring employer brand image and positioning.

In the advertising industry, recruiting and retaining knowledge workers is of vital importance, given as suggested by Saatchi & Saatchi worldwide CEO Kevin Roberts that his organisation is in the *ideas* business (see www.saatchikevin.com). Often the success of an agency in a competitive pitch depends upon the quality of the staff and the creativity of their thinking. Also, traditional advertising is undergoing radical transformation, which is changing the way it is planned, created, channelled and even defined (Richards & Curran 2002, Schultz & Schultz 2004, Malthouse, Calder & Tomhane 2007, Chowdbury, Finn & Olsen 2007). It is expected that amidst this turbulence, advertising agencies are also seeking to redefine and reposition themselves. The motivation for this research project was the acknowledgement by the advertising industry in Australia of a severe and worsening talent shortage (see for example AdNews, August 8, 2008, p. L3). The problems resulted in a National Skills Summit called by the Australian advertising industry in 2008. The desire to attract potential graduates has encouraged agencies to launch innovative recruitment programs such as such as DDB's 'Launch Pad' (see www.ddb.com/careers.html), which includes a commitment to spend 2% of total revenue on training programs and support 23 internships in 2008. It is proposed that there will be an increasing need in the future for advertising agencies to develop an understanding of how they are positioned as employers in the marketplace if they are to enhance their recruitment strategies. To do so requires an understanding of the salient attributes that attract recruits to agency brands and how the firm is perceived to perform on these attributes in relation to key competitor employer brands.

Method

Due to the lack of an established scale to measure advertising agency brand image within the literature, two inductive approaches were used to develop a list of salient attributes, which could be used at a later stage to operationalise the construct of interest. The first involved personal interviews with prospective employees using Kelly's Triads, and the second sought expert opinion from a panel of practitioners and academics. The rationale for the latter was to identify any differences between the supply and demand perspectives, since it has been argued that one of the strengths of Repertory Grid is the identification of attributes of importance to the participant, but which the researcher may not have thought of (Ryan, 1991). Kelly's Triads, also referred to as the Reperotry Test, was originally designed to operationalis George Kelly's (1955) Personal Construct Theory (PCT). The unification of theory (PCT) and technique has therefore has strong face validity (Downs 1976, Smith & Leach 1972).

Qualitative research requires a purposeful sample of information-rich participants. Another sampling aim is to reach a point of data redundancy, where the addition of any new participants would not yield any new information. Previous applications of the Repertory Test by one of the authors found that half of all data was elicited from the first two participants and that the addition of any new information ceased after 8-10 interviews. A call for volunteers was made to students in the final year of an undergraduate advertising major. These students were in their final semester, and actively considering their career options and agency preferences. A total of 11 interviews were held during August 2008, at which point data redundancy had been reached. The sample consisted of seven females and four males, all aged in their early 20s. Interviews lasted an average of 20 minutes.

Kelly's definition of a construct was "a way in which things are construed as being alike and yet different from others" (Kelly, 1955, p. 105). The triad card method has been a common approach used to elicit constructs. Elements are presented to subjects in a series of three, usually using verbal labels, printed on individual cards. An element is the object of interest in the study, which in this case was advertising agency brand names. Since elements should be broadly representative of the domain of interest, being meaningful to students and representing a realistic choice set, a three step process was used to develop the list of elements. First, a list of Brisbane-based and national agency award winners was complied from the 9th AFA Effectiveness Awards, the 2007 Effie Asia Pacific Awards, the 2008 Cannes Lions International Advertising Festival and the 2008 Brisbane Advertising and Design Awards. This resulted in 15 national agencies and 11 Brisbane-based agencies. Second, students in a final year advertising unit were asked to list, unaided, those agencies they would prefer to work for. This resulted in 15 national and Brisbane agencies. These lists were merged and nine agencies selected as being represented on both the student and award winners lists. On presentation of each triad, subjects were asked one question: "When thinking of advertising agencies as a career choice, in what important way are two of these agencies alike, and different to the third?" Participants were advised that the technique was not a test of their abilities, and that there were no wrong answers. They were also advised that no repeated statements were permitted. At the point when a participant could not identify any new similarity/difference, one further triad was attempted. When no more similarity/difference statements were elicited, participants there were asked if there any other important agency attributes not already mentioned. This rarely resulted in any new attributes. The few that were mentioned were included with the Repertory Grid data.

Also during August 2008, expert opinion was sought to obtain the supply side perspective. A panel of five advertising agency managers and five advertising academics around Australia were asked to offer their views on what attributes of agencies they considered would important to graduates seeking employment in an advertising agency.

Findings

The 11 students used an average of 6 triads to generate an average of 11 statements. A total of 120 statements were elicited. The statements elicited from the first four participants represented 87% of all statements, demonstrating how quickly data redundancy manifests in applications of the technique. The 120 statements were then grouped into common themes of similar wording. Of interest was the commonality of label categories, rather than the extremes of idiosyncratic individual constructs. This process resulted in the development of 15 themes, which are shown in rank order of popularity in Table 1. A co-researcher was asked to verify the findings, using the categorisation criteria recommended by Guba (1978), which proposed that categories should feature internal homogeneity and external heterogeneity. The expert opinion resulted in a pool of 58 statements. These were grouped into eight themes of similar wording, and are also shown in Table 1.

Discussion

There are two implications evident from the data in Table 1 in relation to the development of a scale to be used in measurement of an employer brand image and position. Firstly, the differences in the findings with the scale developed by Berthon, Ewing and Hah (2005). This illustrates the potential danger in borrowing a scale from the literature that has in not context-specific. Secondly, there are a number of differences in the perspectives of the students in comparison to those in the expert panel. This also illustrates the value of seeking input from the target segment at the questionnaire design stage. Perhaps the most ironic finding in this regard is that students were shopping for a *brand* of advertising agency, an attribute that did not emerge in the opinions of the expert panel, nor in the employer brand scale developed by Berthon, Ewing and Hah (2005). Economic concerns such as good salary, opportunities for advancement and job security were last on the students' list, yet. Also many of the factors which the expert panel rated highly, such as "right kind of clients", "good reputation for their work" and "opportunities for advancement" were less important to students than to the expert panel. The strongest of these are the more emotive for the students (social, development and interest), while rational factors such as development and economic are more prevalent in the responses of the expert panel. While the research was undertaken in an Australian context, it is suggested researchers in other parts of the world could screen the suitability of the attribute list for through focus groups.

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20.

Table 1 – Findings

Theme	**Repertory Grid rank**	**Expert opinion rank**
Well known brand	1	
Graduate friendly	2	
International work opportunities	3	
Large company	4	5
Innovative company	5	
Right kind of clients	6	1=
Youthful culture	7	
Good working conditions	8	4
Fun & friendly workplace	9	
Good reputation for their work	10	1=
Brag value	11	
Good location	12	
Training programs	13	
Job security	14	
Social marketing opportunities	15	
Nature of the agency		6
Culture suits employee		7=
Opportunities for advancement		1=
Good salary		7=

The Life Cycle of Mavens

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Abstract
The importance of the role of Mavens in driving both brand and product success is widely recognised in both academic and industry circles (Walsh, Gwinner, & Swanson, 2004). Whilst considerable knowledge has been gained regarding their individual behaviour and their motivations to act as social leaders and pseudo brand ambassadors little if any of the previous research has examined the effect of time (Brancaleone & Gountas, 2006; Feick & Price, 1987; Hazelwood, Lawson, & Aitken, 2009). An important part of employing mavens in marketing strategy is that their use and integration must be sustainable. The relationships formed with mavens must be long term, yet little is known about how maven behaviour forms and evolves over time.

Drawing on parallels with theories of the product life cycle this paper explores the life cycle of a maven. Long term mavens were identified within the Sydney rave community. This context was chosen due to its highly diverse social structure and membership offering representative results of much larger communities (Goulding & Shankar, 2004). In addition, the behaviour of members of the rave community are similar to those in other branded communities. This offers generalisability to other brand types.

In-depth interviews were conducted with 12 subjects, of which 2 have been selected for analysis here. The in-depth interviews adopted a co-creationist approach to knowledge generation providing extensive insight into the phases a maven goes through from market novice to fully emerged maven and beyond. The scope of this paper extends the focus of present research to include an examination of the transition away from this critical social role (Elliott, Watson, & Harries, 2002). The co-creation method involved peer based interviews by junior researchers highly integrated with the relevant music culture and social scene (Silverman, 2006). Peers offered the ability to obtain a much greater depth of knowledge as raving was, and in many regards still is, an underground phenomenon that often uses illegal behaviour to obtain venues and run parties or 'raves' (Elliott, et al., 2002). Peers provided a trust essential for successful data collection.

Upon review of the interviews a number of clear phases in a maven's life cycle were identified. The phases of the maven life cycle are: (1) initial social inclusion, where the future maven enters a brand community through relational bonds; (2) becoming a punter, during which the future maven gains acceptance and integrates into the community; (3) social leading, where the maven starts to emerge as a dominant social figure in the community; (4) phenomenon leading, instead of focusing on leading the people in the brand community the maven starts to emphasise the advancement of the foci of the social scene, that is, the brand; (5) phenomenon drift, which involves the maven starting to expand beyond the initial brand that is focus of the social scene to explore parallel brands with their associated ideas and phenomenon; and (6) shifting, the eventual move of the maven to a new branded community that allows them to reflect a new personal focus, that the maven views as reaching their 'maturity'. These phases chart the evolutionary process of mavens within a social and branded community. The main theoretical bases for the transitions between each phase are the maven's desire for control and socialisation, both of which form essential foundations for identity construction.

The desire for control and socialisation played a critical role in motivating the maven to pursue a new part of their life cycle. In early stages of the maven life cycle the desire for socialisation is critical. It forms the necessary basis for social cohesion to form and a social structure to emerge. By phase three though the impact of a desire for control emerges with the maven seeking control over their own social environment. This results in them taking a leadership role within the brand community. By phase four the desire for socialisation begins to decrease at the same time as the desire for control is increasing. This sees the maven refocus away from controlling the community to controlling the phenomenon which is the focus of the community, the brand. As the desire for socialisation continues to diminish, the bonds with the original community start to break freeing the maven to drift into parallel communities where they still retain control over the brand phenomenon that is the focus of their personal interest. This dual role of socialisation and control marks a considerable departure from literature that considers both social and control processes. Literature largely only considers how a social group exerts control over individuals. Socially dysfunctional behaviour, such as criminal acts, and how community pressures can be used to reduce or control such behaviour is often the primary focus of the research (Warner, Beck, & Ohmer, 2010). In this case the social status of the maven allows them to exert control over the community providing a stark contrast to this literature. It suggests that when an individual has social status the direction of control can invert. The data also suggests that with this focus the maven can inadvertently bring about the destruction of the very phenomena or brand they have engaged with.

The implication of this evolutionary process for brands is explored. For a brand wishing to maintain a relationship with a group of mavens with specifically sought after unbroken social ties, there must be anticipation of eventual 'shifting'. The brand must be prepared to shift with the maven reaching them within their new community even if this means moving and integrating the brand with the maven's new community. This type of shifting behaviour can present a considerable opportunity for brands planning to expand beyond their present market. By targeting mavens with shifting behaviour that is complimentary to market expansion plans a gateway into these new communities can be found.

In contrast to following the maven to a new community the brand may wish to maintain contact with the current community for strategic reasons. The results of this research indicate that such brands must recognise that the mavens they are presently in contact with will likely evolve out of this community at some point. By understanding the life cycle of mavens, and the critical role of socialisation and control in their behaviour, the next generation of mavens can be identified and targeted so that sustainable access can be maintained within the present community.

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Exploring the relationship between corporate, internal and employer branding – An Empirical Study

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Introduction

Employees are considered the most important factor to the overall success of corporate brand management, as King (1991) advocates that employees are the interface between the organisation and customers. The importance of 'employer branding' has been highlighted (Ambler and Barrow, 1996; Edwards, 2005); however the interrelationships between the corporate branding, internal branding and employer branding have not been fully explored in the corporate branding literature. This study investigates how these three concepts are linked in practice and examines how internal and employer branding could work together to reinforce the corporate brand in the U.K. Higher Education sector, specifically a School within a UK university.

The corporate branding concept places an emphasis on employees' attitudes and behaviours. This has given rise to internal branding and employer branding, which argue for a closer alignment between the employees' values and the corporate brand's. However, few studies have attempted to provide a platform by which the two concepts can be synergised to achieve a strong, consistent corporate brand. In previous work, the authors have attempted to address this gap through the development of a new conceptual framework based on existing literature which argues for closer conceptual alignment between corporate branding, internal branding and employer branding. This paper has developed this conceptual framework by providing empirical evidence based on qualitative research. The research was set out to explore, using a case study, the extent to which this conceptual framework can be applied to an organisation. The paper will discuss the preliminary findings of 15 in-depth interviews with employees and managers of a University faculty. It provides insights into how corporate branding, employer branding and internal branding can be aligned and applied into the not-for-profit business setting.

Research Context

Corporate identity reflects the values that are central to a corporate brand. Therefore, corporate identity forms the foundation of a corporate brand (Balmer, 2001). The aim of corporate branding is to deliver values which attract key stakeholders to the organisation so that they can develop a sense of belonging to the organisation (Hatch and Schultz, 2003). However, the interrelationships between corporate branding, internal branding and employer branding have not been explored sufficiently in the existing literature (Foster et al., 2010).

Existing corporate branding literature tends to focus on the internal audience. Authors have emphasised the importance of employee involvement (de Chernatony and Harris, 2001) to ensure the consistent delivery of brand values to stakeholders. Employees are considered the ambassadors for their organisation. Internal branding has been used as a means of aligning the values of employees and the corporate brand (Reichheld and Rogers, 2005). By delivering the consistent corporate brand messages to all stakeholders, internal branding enables organisations to differentiate themselves and achieve competitive advantage (de Chernatony and Harris, 2001). However, internal branding has its focal point on existing employees; it has not sufficiently explored the recruitment of the '*right*' people in the first place.

The external perception of the corporate brand has tended to focus on customers' opinions. Therefore, research on the internal branding perspective has not adequately explored the opinions of the prospective employees who play an important role in corporate brand management, as Ind (1998) states that the recruitment of the '*right*' people could contribute to the corporate brand development. Employer branding can play a role in this and has been defined as a process of '*promoting, both within and outside the firm, a clear view of what makes a firm different and desirable as an employer*' (Backhaus and Tikoo, 2004, p.120). Employer value propositions about the employment experience have been discussed in the literature; however, studies on how internal branding could impact on staff recruitment are still scant. Hence, this study aims to address the gap in knowledge by exploring the relationship between internal branding, corporate branding and employer branding. The research questions of this study are as follow:

- How effectively are the School's brand values communicated internally?
- How effectively are the School's employer brand values communicated externally?
- To what extent are the internal brand values and external employer brand values of the School aligned to the School's and University's corporate brand?

Research Design

A qualitative research approach has been adopted for this study due to the exploratory nature of the topic and the apparent complicated relationship between corporate, employer and internal branding. A case study approach was used with one University faculty in the U.K. being selected for this context. Fifteen in-depth semi-structured interviews were carried out with the existing staff within the School. Each interview lasted approximately an hour. The participants were selected according to the 5 key functions within the university; these were research, commercial, teaching, managerial and administrative. The themes explored in the interviews are related to corporate branding, internal branding and employer branding of the School and the University and the extent of how these concepts are aligned. All the interviews were audio-recorded, transcribed and analysed through thematic analysis.

Preliminary Findings

Internal branding

All the senior managers shared a similar view of the School's brand values. However, many employees were unfamiliar with all the core brand values of the faculty. They were unable to describe these values, and some expressed that the values were not communicated to them consistently or explicitly. In addition, it was found that different divisions and functions of the School had various priorities and agendas; and cultures, and these caused confusion amongst the existing employees in relation to the School's brand values. That said, 'employability' was one of the brand values identified by the existing staff. This value was communicated to staff through both internal and external sources (e.g. league tables, placement and career services and students) but not necessarily through communication by managers.

Existing literature (Punjaisri and Wilson, 2007) emphasises the importance of communication in implementing internal branding. An effective communication strategy would ensure that there is a shared understanding between the management and employees. This would also lead to the right pattern of behaviour. Any communication breakdown would cause major problems in which staff could not identify with the brand values of the School and hence fail to communicate these unique values to other stakeholders. However, the findings suggested that many staff, particularly academics, were resistant and cynical to internal 'branding' and marketing related communication and were more receptive to communication that relied less on the 'hard sell' and took account of the different working patterns of academics. So, for example, there was a heavy reliance on email as a way of communicating to staff which whilst creating a lot of email traffic was deemed the most appropriate way to reach staff who were out of the office due to activities like teaching, meeting clients and working from home.

The employer brand

Traditional means of conveying the employer brand, such as job adverts, were regarded as not effective in communicating the brand values of the School. Instead existing staff played a considerable role in attracting applicants (e.g. academics) to the School, such as when they presented at conferences. They therefore acted as the ambassadors of the employer brand. The accreditations and awards also made the School an attractive place to work. Furthermore, the physical attributes of the School, such as the location and building were seen as key methods for attracting staff new employees. The building therefore reflected the mission of the School and sent out a clear message to both the internal and external stakeholders.

Linking the internal brand values and external employer brand values of the School with the University's corporate brand

The corporate brand values appear to be understood amongst the senior management, however, it was found to be inconsistent amongst employees. This could be a result of the School undergoing recent changes in strategic direction, although participants reported that they were clear in terms of their job roles. Those people who were able to comment on how the School's brand linked to the University's brand, reported that this was because of their awareness of tangible elements, such as the programmes and types of research the School was involved in and reported in things like the website, prospectus etc. This suggests that the visual identity was seen to be important in communicating the message to the existing employees.

One shared value that was reported frequently, however, was that of 'employability' and the idea that students studying at the School and University were in a strong position to apply for work when they graduated. This could be regarded as a core value and one which participants tried to communicate whilst interacting with stakeholders, such as students. This seems to resonate with existing literature that values drive behaviour. In other words, when employees are clearly aware of their corporate brand values, they will be enabled to deliver on those values, which will lead to consistent delivery of corporate brand promise.

Conclusion

The preliminary findings of this study indicate that although there are theoretical links between corporate branding, internal branding and employer branding (Foster et al., 2010) the existence of this in practice is patchy. In some instances this reflects the nature of the industry the case organisation operates in. The nature of the sector reflects the different nature of the internal audience. As such, the style of communication and how the brand message is communicated needs to be adapted to suit the nature of the audience in terms of how receptive they are to internal branding communication and the nature of their job roles. Some of the brand values were communicated effectively as a result of reinforcement from a combination of internal and external sources and not necessarily through interactions with managers. Traditional recruitment sources were also less effective in communicating brand values to potential applicants yet the role of brand ambassadors is essential in delivering the School's USP to the external audiences. This research has suggested that there is a link between internal branding and employer branding as existing staff act as the brand ambassador; however, only the senior management have good understanding of corporate brand values and the internal branding process. Internal branding and its activities are important to those people who are recruited through the traditional means to ensure that they understand School's brand values and hence their likeliness to stay. This case study explored a specific context and the analysis is only based on a small sample, the findings could not be generalised outside the context studied. The nature of the topic has also proved to be difficult for some respondents as they had difficulties in articulating their thoughts and feelings on the 'branding' issues of the School.

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Branded space-time: Narrative productions of organisational identity and image

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Abstract In this paper we approach brands as epistemic objects that organise the spatial relationship between brand strategy and everyday work-life profoundly challenging the role of branding work. Through an empirical case of discussions and contradictions related to branding in a university department setting, we explore how branded spaces emerge in stories-so-far produced in an email exchange concerning the possible need for formulating a proper branding strategy. Our narrative analysis reveals that the vague boundary conditions of these spaces, allowing for multiple inclusions and exclusions, turns branding into an effective mode of governance that is met with very little resistance. On the contrary, our case suggests that branding gives rise to branded spaces of faith in and through which the faculty members' academic identities and images are negotiated. In this context branding emerges as a possible source for alignment in a deeply disjoined try to simultaneously find something in common and to set apart.

Keywords Branding, complex organisations, storytelling, space-time

INTRODUCTION

The reading of brands and branding have changed in recent years. The complexity of brands warrants new ways of conceptualising the phenomenon. In this paper we approach brands as epistemic objects that organise the spatial relationship between brand strategy and everyday work-life profoundly challenging the role of branding work. Brands were originally developed as markers for goods to denote ownership (e.g. Martineau 1958; Gardner and Levy 1955), and supply information about the offer in terms of quality and reliability. In the 1960s and onwards branding theories were integrated with consumer psychology and socio-cultural approaches to brands (Schroeder 2009; Holt 2006). From this perspective brands are viewed as devices that simplify consumer decision-making and lower search costs and as vessels of meanings (Holt 2006). It was not until the 1990s, however, that branding emerged as a marketing and business strategy. Moor (2007) describes how practices of branding were developed as a response to a range of different factors, amongst all an increased scepticism before traditional marketing tools such as advertising. What differentiates branding from marketing communication is that branding encompasses the whole organisation; it is omnipresent (i.e. in every *place* at the same *time*). In contrast to promotional strategies that primarily rely on time, branding strategies rely on *space*. Pike (2009) proposes that the object of the brand and the process of branding are inherently geographical for three reasons. First, the value of the brand is derived from spatial connections and associations. Space and place, he argues, are given meaning through branded objects and social practices of branding. Second, brands are involved (and evolve) in spatial circuits of production, circulation and consumption that, and this is his third point, are geographically dispersed and uneven. The problem with brand management theory is that it delivers universal models based on the assumption that one-size-fits-all (Holt 2006). This is troublesome, as branding is nowadays extended outside the realm of goods and services to public institutions such as hospitals, cities and universities, people (e.g. celebrities and politicians) and geographical places. Research on brands conducted from sociological perspectives suggests that brands have evolved from being manageable assets to complex interfaces that organise the relation between producers and consumers and consumers and producers (Lury 2004; Arvidsson 2006). Relations are organised around creating and negotiating the brand's identity and image (cf. Thompson and Arsel 2003). The aim of this paper is to examine the consequences of the omnipresence of branding for creating and maintaining organisational identity and image. To this end we define the brand as an epistemic object (Knorr-Cetina 1999; Knorr-Cetina and Broegger 2000) that organise relations in a spatial sense. Understood as epistemic object, a brand is characterized by an essential elusiveness of look, content, shape, and story (Zwick and Dhloakia, 2006). It allows the connection of some relations, through the encounter of some *stories-so-far*, while disconnecting others. As Zwick and Dholakia (2006: 21) put it: "A knowledge object may thus be called more or less ontologically liquid (or ontologically viscous) depending on the speed by which the object is revealed and the rate at which it changes". Given the fluidity and elusiveness of the epistemic object, new identities and images are not fixed, but negotiated. This mode of organising is not only 'in time and space' but constructs a fluid space-time, which enables the continuous creation of organisational identities and images. Following Massey (2005) we understand space-time as the coexistence of trajectories as *stories-so-far* or, to put it a little differently, as the encounter of ongoing stories. In this sense, space-time is to be understood as the production of interrelations, which are necessarily embedded in material and symbolic practices. Taking this relational and performative definition of space-time prompts the following question: How does branding (re)configure the organisation's spatial relations – the meeting-up of *stories-so-far*? This question warrants a political reading of organizational identity and image, one that interrogates the relations through which they are constructed. It becomes then also necessary to ask: whose story is at issue here? (Massey, 2007)

BRANDED SPACE-TIME

We apply this understanding of space-time aspect of branding to a narrative analysis of a representative situation of branding related exchange engaged in the internal discussion mailing list in an academic department in a Scandinavian university during May-July 2010. The email exchange concerned the possible need for the university to formulate a proper branding strategy. With the new pressures put on public institutions branding has become a device to increase their visibility in order to attract human capital and funding (Czarniawska & Genell, 2002). Of particular interest here is the recent branding of universities for which attracting external funding has become increasingly crucial during the past decade. Our narrative analysis reveals that the vague boundary condition of branded spaces generates different stories about what the academic work and university is and should be calling for need to engage in identity work. Organisational identity and image are managed through on-going attempts to fix the boundaries, not only for the brand but also for and among the branded, that is to say, determining what it needs to include and exclude. Branding narratives re-negotiate the boundaries of 'here' and 'there', 'ours' and 'yours', 'excellence' and 'mediocrity' (Holt 2006; Pike 2009). In the *stories-so-far* about the university several versions of organisational identity and image emerge. Brand, space, identity, image and knowledge are involved in an ongoing narrative production. In conclusion we argue that organisational identity/image is not to be found in the fixed boundaries of the brand, but in its relation to the outside. Since the brand becomes a continuous knowledge project for the members of the organisation, the implementation of the branding strategy is met with very little resistance. Our study shows that branding serves as an effective mode of governance in complex organisations that is met with very little resistance. On the contrary, our case suggests that branding gives rise to branded spaces of faith in and through which the faculty members' academic identities and images are negotiated. In this context branding emerges as a possible source for alignment in a deeply disjoined try to simultaneously find something in common and to set apart.

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Session 3.3

Profiling the Image of Urban Business Destinations: Innovative Segmentation Criteria

Francesca d'Angella, IULM University
Manuela De Carlo, IULM University

Beyond the perfect shot:
An exploratory analysis of golf destinations online Promotional texts

Rosária Pereira, University of the Algarve, Portugal
Antónia Correia, University of the Algarve, Portugal
Ronaldo Schutz, University of the Algarve, Portugal

Brand Perception and Brand Complexity: A Place Branding Perspective

Sebastian Zenker, University of Hamburg, Germany
Suzanne C. Beckmann, Copenhagen Business School, Denmark

Co-branding places?

Andrea Lucarelli, Stockholm University, Sweden

***Haft* and *Sord* Factors in Place Branding: Between Functionalism and Representationalism**

Massimo Giovanardi, "Carlo Bo" University of Urbino, Italy

Profiling the Image of Urban Business Destinations: Innovative Segmentation Criteria

Francesca d'Angella, IULM University
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Topic and purpose

In today's highly competitive tourism marketplace, image is a fundamental asset for the competitiveness of urban destinations (d'Angella, & De Carlo, 2009). According to the literature on place-competition (Dwyer, & Chulton, 2003; Gordon, & Buck, 2005; Markusen, & Shrock, 2006), cities and territories have to distinguish themselves from other destinations and create a positive, distinct and sustainable image in order to attract different targets, governmental funding and corporate inward investment. Even if this topic has already been explored by a wide stream of literature since the Nineties (Padgett, & Allen, 1997; Echtner, & Ritchie, 2003; Gallarza et al 2002; Beerli, & Martìn, 2004; Tapachai & Wariszak, 2000), the centrality of this theme in management practices has led to a revitalization of the current academic concern. This issue seems less developed concerning urban destinations, particularly those with a business vocation. The paper is set in the context of tourism marketing and, more specifically, in the process of destination image formation (Hunt, 1975; Gartner, & Hunt, 1987; Gartner, 1993; Go, & Govers, 2009, 245-249). It contributes to this ongoing debate by profiling the perceived image of a business oriented urban destination, according to nontraditional segmentation criteria. Moreover, the measurement of the perceived destination's image is based on the evaluation of specific services and tourism features of the destination instead of intangible and subjective elements. In particular, the paper aims at testing the following macro hypotheses:

HP1. The image of an urban destination differs by the scope of the trip
  Hp2 a. the image is different according to the trip itinerary
    Hp2 b. the image is different according to the trip organization
HP2. The image of an urban destination differs by the knowledge depth of tourists
    Hp3 a. the image is different according to the number of times the tourist has already been to the destination
    Hp3 b. the image is different according to the number of nights spent in the destination
HP3. The image of an urban destination differs by the perception shift of tourists

Methodology

In order to answer our research questions we surveyed tourists in Milan. We selected Milan as our single case study because it's a business destination, without any deliberated communication strategy. In this sense, it is an interesting clinical case study to assess differences in the image perception according to tourists' characteristics rather than destination's policies. Questions are based on the attributes that determine the perceived destination image as proposed in tourism literature (Beerli, & Martin, 2004a, 2004b; Etchner, & Ritchie, 1991; Embacher, & Buttle, 1989; Walmsley, & Jekins, 1993; Walmsley, & Young, 1998) and on specific destination's features. In fact, the choice to study an urban destination obliged the authors to formulate the questions giving less relevance to weather and natural environment and more space to the other attributes. In total, 17 variables are used to assess destination image. We asks tourists their personal opinions about Milan regarding: urban facilities, transports, hospitality, accommodation, events, culture and entertainment using a ten-point Likert-type scale, from 'extremely unsatisfied (= 1)' to 'definitely satisfied (= 10)'. The sample includes 1,032 tourists coming to Milan for different purposes[4]. All questionnaires were carried out by face to face interviews conducted in summer and autumn 2009 in leisure and cultural places; airports and train stations; business hotels and fairs & exhibitions.

The data analysis was conducted in two stages. First, we used a k-means analysis to group respondents into clusters diverse in terms of global satisfaction of their tourist experience in Milan (perceived image). In this step of analysis, the challenging part is the estimation of the optimal number of clusters. Since stopping rules are heuristic (Milligan et al., 1985), to assess the proper number of clusters we adopt the criterion suggested by Ball and Hall (1965), which is based on the average distance of the items to their respective cluster centroids. The largest difference between levels has been used to indicate the optimal solution. In the second part of the analysis, we conduct ANOVA tests to understand the influence of traditional segmentation variables (Hp0), scope (Hp1), knowledge depth (Hp2) and perception shift (Hp3) on destination's image according to the clusters identified.

In the two steps we opted for cluster and ANOVA methods because, as Jenkins (1999) notes, in studies about destination image, structured methods such as factor analysis, cluster analysis and other multivariate analyses are more common than unstructured ones. In fact, the methodologies used in this research have been often used in tourism studies to analyze image formation, differences according to different tourism segments (Hankinson, 2005; Kozak, 2002) and destination residents (Long, Perdue, & Allen, 1990). Furthermore, we run two OLS logistic regressions to test the

[4] To guarantee the representativeness of the sample we conducted all the analyses considering both the sample as it is and weighted the data according the purpose of the trip (business tourists are much higher than leisure tourists) and the nationality (foreigners are more than domestic visitors). In both the cases we obtained similar results, but with a higher number of observation using non-weighted data. For this reason we opted for this solution. Please consider the analyses with weighted data available for further close examinations.

relationships between the overall image of tourists (independent variable) and the willingness to advice a friend to visit Milan for a holiday (Y1) or to come back in the future for leisure purposes (Y2).

Figure 1

Findings

The result of the first part of the empirical analysis is the identification of 5 clusters, which show a different perceived image of Milan – from "delighted tourists" to disappointed tourists" –, measured in terms of overall satisfaction.

In the second part of our research first of all we checked for image differences according to some socio-demographic segmentation criteria: age, nationality and purpose of the trip. ANOVA tests provide significant results. In particular, elder tourists are those less satisfied, while in terms of nationality, Milan is appreciated more by foreigners than Italians. Finally, the outcomes show that among business tourists there are both disappointed and satisfied tourists, while the delighted are mainly leisure.

Table 1

Then, we tested the hypotheses, detailed into 8 sub-hypotheses. All the assumptions have been verified because ANOVA tests show a statistical significance according to each of them.

About Hp1, outcomes indicate that the image improves according to reductions of the tourists' scope, both in terms of geographical scope (only the city without surrounding areas) and organizational scope (when it is delegated to effective travel agencies instead of self made organization).

Table 2

The second interesting group of results links the perceived image to tourists' knowledge depth. Results confirm that the deeper the knowledge of the city, the higher the image. In fact, both repeaters and tourists spending three or more nights in the destination have better image than first comers and short-stay visitors.

Table 3

The last set of results focuses on the relationship between the tourism experience and the perceived image of the destination. This analysis involves only tourists with a deep knowledge of the city (repeaters). ANOVA test shows that disappointed tourists find the city worse than in their last visit, while satisfied respondents find it essentially unchanged.

Table 4

The analysis of the components of the overall satisfaction per each cluster offers interesting results. Culture and entertainment is the category most appreciated by tourists, even by not satisfied tourists, who assess an average rank which is even higher than delighted visitors. For urban features, transports and accommodation the average scores are coherent with the overall satisfaction of respondents. The analysis of the perceived image by tourists clusters detailed according to these four tangible components suggests defined area of improvements under the responsibility of the DMO (urban features) or private actors (transports and accommodations).

Figure 2

Finally, we verified the causal relationships between the image and two variables which measure the overall appreciation of the tourism experience: the willingness of tourists to come back to Milan in the future for leisure and the willingness to advice a friend to visit Milan for a holiday. The OLS logistic regressions show in both the cases significant and positive relations between the independent variable (image) and the two dependents. These results suggest the importance for policy makers and tourism firms' managers to monitor and work on the destination image to attract leisure tourism flows in the future, balancing the tourism mix of a business destination.

Originality of the Paper and Implications

The original implications of this paper are both theoretical and managerial.

The first innovative element is methodological. Authors decided to use only tangible elements (culture & entertainment, urban features, transports and accommodation) for the identification of clusters of tourists characterized by different levels of overall satisfaction. The advantage deriving from the cluster methodology is the detection of priority areas for actions aiming at increasing the perceived image of the destination. The choice of considering only tangible variables, related to services and attractions managed by specific destination stakeholders, allows both destination managers and private actors to determine effective policies and actions.

A further original element is the link between the perceived image and innovative segmentation variables. These new criteria on the one hand enrich the academic debate on destination image; on the other hand they provide policy makers with new analytical perspective to improve the destination's image.

Finally, the paper confirms the causal link between the perceived image and both the intention to revisit for leisure or to recommend it. This link, already established by recent studies (Assaker, Esposito, & O'Connor, 2010; Zabkar, Brencic, & Dmitrovic, 2010; Qu, Kim & Im, 2010), is crucial for urban business destinations aiming at balancing the market mix between business and leisure tourism.

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Figure 1 The framework of the analysis

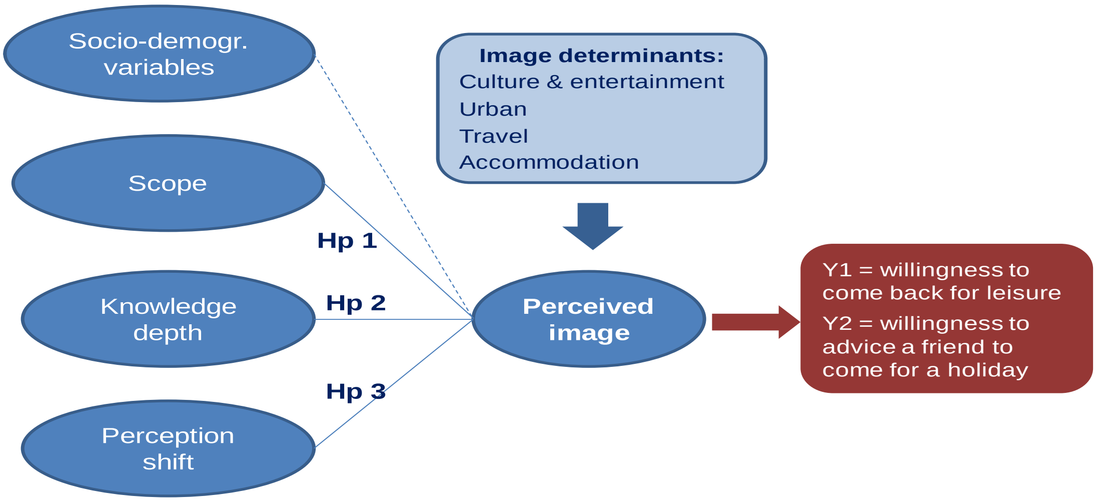


Table 1 Image differences according to socio-demographic segmentation criteria

Hp0: The image of an urban destination is affected by traditional segmentation criteria		N	Mean	Sig.
Year of birth	Disappointed	63	63,52	.000
	Not satisfied	86	72,08	
	Moderately satisfied	135	67,61	
	Satisfied	108	73,02	
	Delighted	135	69,15	
	Total	527	69,35	
dummy nation 0=Italy, 1=foreign	Disappointed	63	,4286	.000
	Not satisfied	86	,4302	
	Moderately satisfied	135	,2815	
	Satisfied	108	,3519	
	Delighted	136	,5735	
	Total	528	,4129	
Purpose of the trip 1=business 2=leisure	Disappointed	63	1,2063	.000
	Not satisfied	86	1,2907	
	Moderately satisfied	135	1,5037	
	Satisfied	108	1,7037	
	Delighted	136	1,2500	
	Total	528	1,4091	

Table 2 Image differences according to the scope of the trip (HP1)

Hp1: The image of an urban destination is affected by the scope of tourists' experience		N	Mean	Sig.
Trip organization 1=by himself, 0= by others	Disappointed	63	,4286	.000
	Not satisfied	86	,3488	
	Moderately satisfied	135	,6444	
	Satisfied	108	,8519	
	Delighted	136	,3088	
	Total	528	,5265	
Itinerary 1= only Milan 0=Milan + other places	Disappointed	63	,4603	.000
	Not satisfied	86	,4767	
	Moderately satisfied	135	,4593	
	Satisfied	108	,5463	
	Delighted	136	,7794	
	Total	528	,5625	

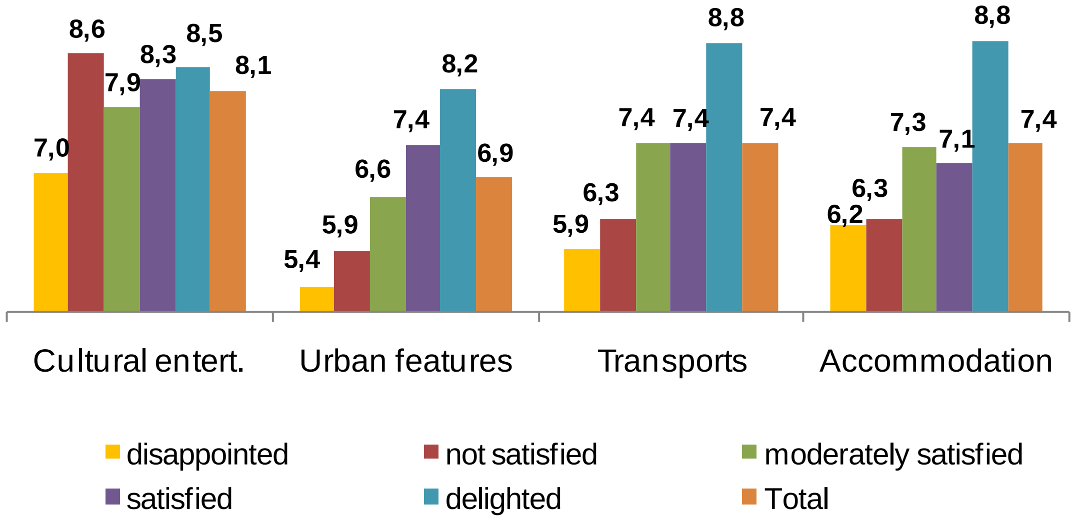
Table 3 Image differences according to tourists' knowledge depth (HP2)

Hp2: The image of an urban destination is affected by tourists' knowledge depth		N	Mean	Sig.
N. of nights spent in the destination	Disappointed	63	2,44	.000
	Not satisfied	86	2,49	
	Moderately satisfied	135	2,36	
	Satisfied	108	4,96	
	Delighted	136	2,78	
	Total	528	3,03	
N. of visits to Milan	Disappointed	63	2,24	.000
	Not satisfied	86	1,88	
	Moderately satisfied	135	2,40	
	Satisfied	108	1,85	
	Delighted	136	2,08	
	Total	528	2,10	

Table 4 Image differences according to tourists' perception shift (HP3)

Hp 3: The image of an urban destination is affected by the perception shift		N	Mean	Sig.
How did you find the city compared with your last trip?	Disappointed	50	2,38	.000
	Not satisfied	50	1,92	
	Moderately satisfied	102	1,84	
	Satisfied	59	1,76	
	Delighted	99	1,68	
	Total	360	1,87	

Figure 2 Tourists' satisfaction according to the four image components



Beyond the Perfect Shot: An Exploratory Analysis of Golf Destinations Online Promotional Texts

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Introduction

Over the last decade, information and communication technologies have contributed to the development of new tools and services that facilitate global interaction between tourism players around the world. According to Mills & Law (2004), the internet has changed tourism consumer behavior by providing direct access to a greater affluence of information provided by tourism organizations, private enterprises and by other consumers. Most tourism organizations (hotels, airlines, travels agencies and golf courses, among others) have embraced the internet as part of their communications strategies hence this paper is focused on the analysis of promotional texts of golf course websites, tourism and golf entity websites when promoting a region as a golf destination.

Purpose

This paper aims to explore to what extent golf tourism in the Algarve is promoted under the premises of a 'glocal' strategy, by using specific characteristics of the region to elaborate its promotional narratives or by using a global approach, common to other golf destinations. The study also uses promotional texts in golf related websites to verify whether the traits used in human and brand personality models are used to promote golf destinations.

Conceptualization

Considering that a brand is the good name of a product, an organization or a place, ideally linked to its identity (Kapferer, 2004) it can become a facilitator of an informed buying decision, or a 'promise of value' (Kotler & Gertner, 2002; Van Gelder, 2003). As far as places are concerned, identity is constructed through historical, political, religious and cultural discourses; through local knowledge, and influenced by managers, which establish and project a full set of unique characteristics that will be the basis for differentiation, and are then disseminated by marketing strategies through different communication channels, turning a place into an appealing destination.

By going through the process of collecting information, the consumer creates an image or a mental portrayal or prototype (Alhemoud & Armstrong, 1996; Kotler, Haiden & Rein, 1993; Tapachi & Waryzak, 2000) of what the travel experience might look like. Such an image is based on attributes, functional consequences (or expected benefits) and the symbolic meanings or psychological characteristics that consumers associate with a specific place (Etcnher & Ritchie, 1991; 1993, 2003; Padgett & Allen, 1997; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000). Consequently, it is necessary for marketers to create a strong brand personality in travelers' minds to assign the destination a meaning that gives the customer something to relate to. Brand personality has been defined as the "set of human characteristics associated with a brand" (Aaker, 1997) "that are projected from the self-images of consumers in an attempt to reinforce their own personalities" (Murase & Bojanic, 2004).

Therefore, destination brand personality appears as a wider concept which will have to include different dimensions, as suggested by Pereira, Correia & Schutz (2010). For instance, human personality traits (HPT) which allow for the personification of the brand (Aaker, 1997); destination image and visitor self image, as correlated constructs, expressed by destination image descriptors (DID) which reflect the conceptualization of brand personality as part of the tourist's self expression (Murase & Bojanic, 2004); and finally, the relational components of brand personality (RCBP) such as functional, symbolic and experiential attributes that play a fundamental role in the establishment of relationships between destination, brand and visitors while contributing to the differentiation of the brand (Hankinson, 2004).

Methodology

The research was based on the collection and comparative analysis of 45 promotional texts in websites of official tourism entities and golf courses in the Algarve, and of 54 promotional texts in websites of golf courses and official tourism entities worldwide, as shown in table 1. The latter corresponds to the 2009 best 40 golf courses in the world according to Golf Magazine's (2010) ranking. A total of 99 websites were included in the study.

Table 1 here

As main analytical method, the software *word smith* was used to calculate the frequency of each adjective in the overall text. Also, the percentage of each adjective in the overall number of web sites was calculated in order to acknowledge the representativeness of each adjective in the total number of websites, for each category: 'Worldwide' (common to Algarve and other destinations), 'Algarve only' and 'Other destinations only'. After a revision of the adjectives, the ones with frequencies less than 5% were eliminated. A list of 129 adjectives remained. The websites relating to the Algarve and to foreign destinations and golf courses were treated separately to allow a comparative analysis of the terms. A contextualization of each adjective in the text was done in order to find which object/attribute of the destination it was referred to.

The study considered three different dimensions of traits: 1) HPT included in the 'Big-Five' model of personality (Goldberg, 1992), as brand personality can be the personification of the brand or a "*set of human characteristics* *associated with the brand*" (Aaker, 1997: 347); 2); BPT (brand personality traits) were also indentify to verify to what extent the traits found in Aaker's (1997) brand personality scale correspond to the ones found in the promotional texts, and 3) DID, given that brand personality can also be interpreted in terms of the matching/mismatching between tourist self-image and destination image (Enkinci, 2003). DID include the terms by which tourists express their impressions and representations of a destination.

In addition, the categories of attributes in this study correspond to the categories of the RCBP suggested by Hanskinson (2004): functional, symbolic and relational. Functional attributes includes not only general attributes related to the destination: accessibility and transport; bars and restaurants; landscape/scenery; cleanliness; climate; beaches; cuisine; nightlife; culture; entertainment, events; price; quality of accommodation; reputation; shopping and tourist information; but also ones specific to golf destinations: golf courses; golf course layout; facilities (trolleys, buggies, clubhouses, clubs, among others); golf tournaments; golf academies, proximity, tee times, maintenance and environmental policies. These attributes were found in the literature on golf tourism as being the factors that would influence tourist choice when choosing a golf destination (Barros, Butler & Correia, 2010; Correia, Barros & Silvestre, 2007; Hudson and Hudson, 2010; KPMG, 2008; Martins & Correia, 2004, Mendes, 2004; National Golf Foundation, 2003; Petrick, 1999, Ribeiro, 2006; Turismo de Portugal, 2008). As for symbolic attributes, they include: the character of the local residents; the profile of typical visitors and the quality of the service provided by service contact personnel. The experiential category comprises descriptors of: how destinations make visitors feel; the feel of the destination; the character of the building environment and ones relating to security and safety. This categorization allowed the identification of which attributes are more salient in the narratives promoting golf destinations and to what extend these adjectives correspond to brand and human personality scales presented in the literature.

Major Findings

A total of 442 adjectives were found in both files. The Algarve related websites summed up a total of 130 adjectives while the foreign destinations and golf courses websites accounted for 192 adjectives. The common ones reached the amount of 120. In order to reduce the list, different degrees of adjectives were excluded as well as adjectives with a frequency under 5%.

Figure 1 here

The common adjectives found in both files were indentified and correspond to 76, while there were 20 adjectives used only in the Algarve-related websites and 33 used only in the websites of foreign destination and golf courses around the world. That made a total of 129 potential destination brand personality traits (see figure 1).

Figure 2 here

Considering the models in the literature, only 9 adjectives correspond to the Big-Five model of human personality (Goldberg, 1992) while 15 are found in Aaker's (1997) brand personality scale. In addition destination image descriptors amounted to 39, 4 being common with BPT and 3 common with HPT (see figure 2).

Figure 3 here

Figure 3 shows the distribution of the traits and descriptors through the categories of destinations. The Algarve used only 4 HPT, 10 BPT and 27 DIDs when promoting itself as a golf destination while the other destinations used 7 HPT, 11 BPT and 35 DIDs. In any case the number of adjectives is not relevant.

Figure 4 here

Furthermore, figure 4 illustrates the adjectives that belong to each of the dimensions as well as the common ones.

Figure 5 here

As far as the RCBP are concerned more emphasis was given to the functional attributes golf courses, landscape/scenery, golf course layout and facilities. The experiential attribute which gathered a wide range of adjectives was the profile of the typical visitor, and the more emphasized symbolic attribute was the character of the building environment (see figure 5).

The results show that the majority of adjectives are used worldwide. The Algarve is not promoted with a very specific set of adjectives. Only 15,5% of the adjectives apply to the Algarve and are not found in any other destination. Adjectives comprised in the Big-Five Model of Personality (7%) and in the Brand Personality Model (11,6%) are barely used to promote golf destinations worldwide and particularly the Algarve while DID accounted for (30,2%). These findings clearly show that golf destinations are *dehumanized* and that there is no differentiation as far as websites' promotional texts are concerned. The terms used to describe the attributes of the Algarve as a golf destination are, in most cases, the same as used elsewhere. Even the adjectives used in the 'Algarve only' category do not represent any regional specificity nor refer to local historical, political, religious and cultural characteristics as suggested in the literature. It appears that golf tourism uses a common approach to communicate globally.

What is original/Value

This is one of the first pieces of research listing adjectives that stakeholders consider appropriate to promote destinations and relating them to brand personality literature. At this point the appropriateness of human and brand personality traits to define a scale for destination brand personality is questionable. This research represents a first step towards reinventing the scale.

Practical and Research Implications

Creating and assessing the brand personality of a golf destination will bring value to the destination management contributing to planned marketing actions aiming at: changing general destination and product-destination attitudes; helping to establish the destination brand; and creating differentiation, resulting in increased preference and usage as well as higher emotional ties and trust and loyalty towards the destination brand. Results show that to access golf destination brand personality a specific scale must be drawn including a wider set of personality traits. Directions for future research will be to use a new set of adjectives on a brand personality scale and test it in a golf destination to assess its reliability.

Keywords

Branding, golf destinations, brand personality, online promotion

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Table 1 – Promotional websites included in the analysis

Type of entity	Number	Sample
Golf courses in the Algarve	40	40
Official tourism and golf authorities	5	5
Best golf courses in the world	100	40
Official tourism and golf authorities in the regions where the best golf courses are located	27	14

Figure 1 – Number of adjectives selected per category of destinations

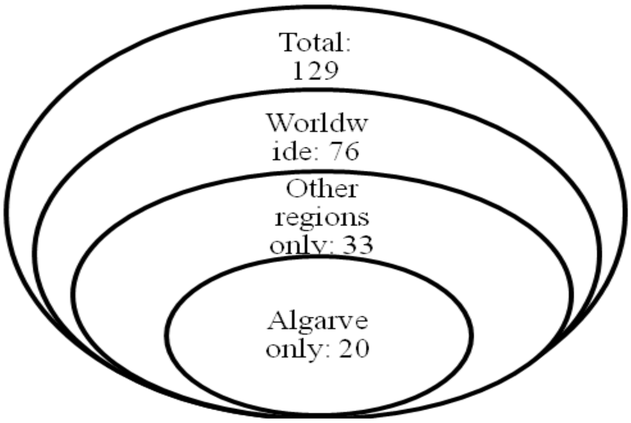

Figure 2 – Adjectives found in the texts grouped by dimensions (HPT, BPT and DID)

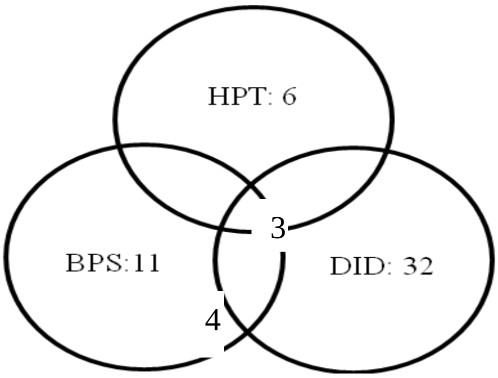

Figure 3 – Number of adjectives grouped by dimensions and per destinations categories

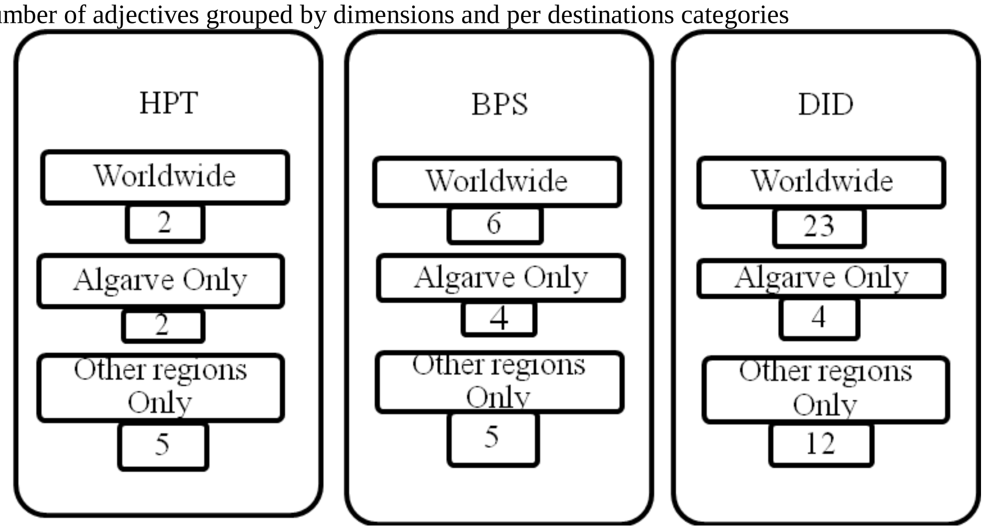

Figure 4 – Adjectives that belong to the different dimensions: HPT, BPT and DID

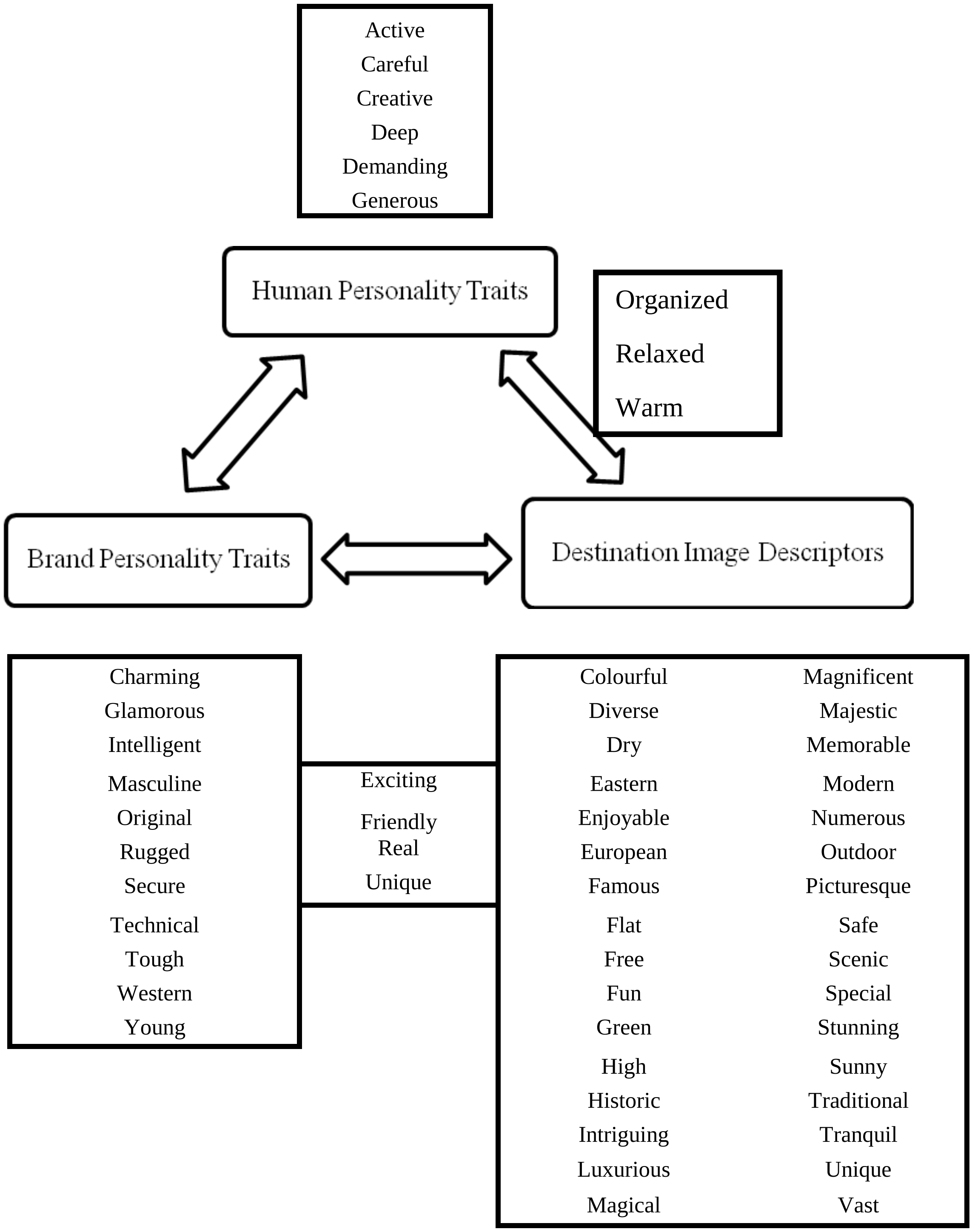

Figure 5 – Main attributes of a golf destination described with a major number of adjectives

Golf courses (RCBP-Funtional)	•Beautiful, challenging, championship, classic, demanding, different, enjoyable, excellent, fabulous, famous, favourite, first rate, great, great, high (quality), ideal, impressive, large, legendary, local, long, old, original, picturesque, popular, professionals, renowned,rugged, special, spectacular, superb, testing, top, top class, traditional, undulating, unique, world class, important, recent. • Southern, composite, difficult. •Diverse, fast, last, masculine, memorable, private, public, unsurpassed.
Landscape /scenary (RCBP-Funtional)	• Ancient, beautiful, different, fabulous, flat, great, green, high, ideal, impressive, magnificent, natural, picturesque, rolling, rugged, sandy, small, spectacualr, stunning, superb, traditional, tranquil, undulating, unique, vast, wide, wild, wonderful. • Protected, sandy, unspoilt, dry. • Inspiring, last, majestic.
Course Layout (RCBP-Funtional)	• Challenging, Championship, elevated. enjoyable, flat, good, magnificent, modern, original, renowned, strategic, testing, traditional, unique, wide. • Generous, intelligent, • Deep, diverse, few.
Facilities (RCBP-Funtional)	• Excellent, exclusive, first, large, magnificent, major, modern, perfect, proud, superb, white, wonderful, • Few, full, organized, private.
Character of the building environment (RCBP-Experiental)	• Exclusive, historic, impressive, old, major. • Charming, luxurious, typical.
Profile of the tipical visitor (RCBP-Symbolic)	• Amaterur, demanding, great, professionals. • Experienced. • Inspiring, international, national.

Brand Perception and Brand Complexity: A Place Branding Perspective

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Introduction

Branding often aims at reducing the multitude of consumers' image associations, thus trying to communicate simplified verbal and visual images. For many product brands this strategy works quite well, since consumers most often are neither willing nor able to remember complex or diverse associations for one product (Keller, 1993). However, since brand image is per definition a network of associations in the individual persons' mind (Keller, 1993), aggregating these associative networks for segmentation purposes is anything but an easy task. Moreover, this strategy becomes even more difficult in the case of complex brands aiming at diverse target audiences. Corporate brands, for example, do not only target consumers, but also other stakeholders such employees. An association like "cheap" could be good for a customers' buying decision of a company's product, but scare new employees since it also has a taste of "low income".

The situation becomes even more complex in the case of place branding (Anholt, 2009): the perception of a city (as a brand) usually differs strongly between the various target groups due to different perspectives and interests of, for instance, residents and tourists. The different perceptions are a big challenge for place marketers, because many diverse associations have to be communicated—making it nearly impossible to find a "one fits all" place brand. Communication that focuses on one external target audience thus can prove quite dangerous for the place marketing process, since it might lower the identification with the place brand by other target audiences such as internal ones (Zenker & Petersen, 2010). Yet, place branding is not least strongly dependent on the involvement of its residents because they are part of the brand and are also ambassadors for the brand (Kavaratzis *et al.*, 2010). Hence, this paper argues that in complex cases such as place branding the focus should be much more on the brand perceptions of the different target groups and try to understand how and why these perceptions differ. This paper therefore illustrates with two empirical studies the important discrepancies between the city brand perceptions in the mental representation of internal vs. external target groups (study 1) and even between different internal target groups (study 2), using the example of the city of Hamburg.

Place Branding and Brand Complexity

A place brand is defined as: "a network of associations in the consumers' mind based on the visual, verbal, and behavioural expression of a place, which is embodied through the aims, communication, values, and the general culture of the place's stakeholders and the overall place design*"* (Zenker & Braun, 2010, p. 3). Essential for this definition is that a place brand is not the communicated expression or the physical environment, but the perception of those expressions in the mind of the target group(s). These perceptions lead to branding effects such as identification (Anholt, 2007; Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003), or satisfaction (Bruhn & Grund, 2000; Zenker *et al.*, 2009).

From a theoretical point of view, the core target groups in place branding are: (1) visitors; (2) residents and workers; and (3) business and industry (Kotler *et al.*, 1993). However, the groups actually targeted in recent place marketing practice are much more specific and complex. Tourists, for example, could be divided into business and leisure time visitors (Hankinson, 2005). Even more complex is the group of residents: a first distinction is the internal residents and the external potential new residents. Within these groups specific target audience segments are found such as students and the so-called creative class (Braun, 2008; Florida, 2004; Zenker, 2009). The distinction between internal and external target groups is of particularly high importance because of the different knowledge levels of these target audiences that entail different core associations with a city (Keller, 1993). Based on social identity theory (Hogg, 2003; Tajfel & Turner, 1979), the out-group (external target audience) should show more common and stereotype associations with a place, while the in-group (internal target audience) should have a more diverse and heterogeneous brand perception. Hence: we propose the following hypothesis:

> H1: *An external target audience has more stereotypical brand associations than an internal target group.*

As already mentioned, the various target groups do not only differ in their perceptions of a place but foremost in their place needs and demands. Students, for example, most certainly search for more night live activities like bars and clubs; managers, however, are more interested in business infrastructure and probably also high class cultural entertainment. It is inevitable that there are both conflicts and synergies between the needs and wants of different target groups. But one's location cannot be seen separately from other useful locations–hence the place offering is not a single location but a package of locations. Consequently, the product for tourists in London, for instance, overlaps to some extent with the product for the city's residents. Similar to a shopping mall–as an illustrative metaphor–a place offers a large assortment for everybody and each customer fills his or her "shopping bag" individually according to his or her interest. Hence, we propose the following hypothesis:

> H2: *Each target group will have brand associations (in comparison to the other groups) that relate to their core interests.*

Empirical Studies

For both studies, the method of network analysis (Henderson *et al.*, 2002) was chosen, which uses data from qualitative questionnaires and analyses it in a quantitative approach. The result is a network of brand associations which can be compared with the perception of other target groups. The aim is to identify top of mind brand associations that are strongly connected in the image network and to assess the differences in the perception of the target groups.

For the first study data was collected via a representative online research panel. The image associations of the city of Hamburg brand were assessed by using an open-ended questionnaire, asking the participants for their top of mind associations (with a minimum of three and a maximum of five) for the city of Hamburg. The sample consisted of 334 participants, with 174 participants who have lived or were still living in Hamburg (group A: internal residents) and 160 participants who have never been to Hamburg or just for a short visit (group B: external visitors). Afterwards all qualitative mentions (n = 1.437) were coded into 85 different associations by three independent coders and the top 20 brand associations were calculated by their degree centrality in the network.

The top 20 core associations for both target groups are shown in Table 1. The differences in the rankings are highlighted if the discrepancy in the centrality within the network is more than 10 ranks. For the internal target group the associations with Hamburg are much more diverse including the heterogeneous offerings of a city. As predicted, the view of the Hamburg city brand for the external target group is much more based on a stereotypical homogeneous picture of the city. Additionally, "Harbour" and "Reeperbahn" are strongly connected in this group. Figures 1 and 2 illustrate the brand association network of both target groups. Again, the unique associations are highlighted by using a different node shape (diamonds). In comparison with the external target group (Figure 2) the internal target group (Figure 1) shows a much stronger network of associations (in terms of more connections between the associations). Thus, hypothesis 1 as well as 2 are supported.

Table 1: *Top 20 Core Association of the Hamburg Brand by Degree Centrality (Study 1)*
<INSERT TABLE 1 HERE>

Figure 1: *Perception of the City of Hamburg Brand by Internal Target Group*
<INSERT FIGURE 2 HERE>

Figure 2: *Perception of the City of Hamburg Brand by External Target Group*
<INSERT FIGURE 3 HERE>

Image associations in study 2 were assessed using qualitative in-depth-interviews and the laddering technique (Wansink, 2003) with 20 members of the Creative Class (Florida, 2004) including artists, scientists, managers of relevant sectors, and urban planners (group A) and 20 master students from different disciplines (group B). As in study 1 top 20 brand associations were calculated by their centrality in the network.

The top 20 core associations for both target groups are shown in Table 2. Noticeable are the unique associations of trade ("Hanse") and dimensions like "rich and expensive" for the creative class. Additionally, "music events" is a strong association. For the students' group different dimensions concerning the university and other leisure time activities like "bars and restaurants" are clearly more important. Figures 3 and 4 illustrate the brand association network of both target groups supporting both hypotheses. The strong connections between the core associations in the student sample (Figure 4) in comparison with the broader network of the creative class members (Figure 3) are noteworthy.

Table 2: *Top 20 Core Association of the Hamburg Brand by Degree Centrality (Study 2)*
<INSERT TABLE 2 HERE>

Figure 3: *Perception of the City of Hamburg Brand by Internal Creative Class Members*
<INSERT FIGURE 4 HERE>

Figure 4: *Perception of the City of Hamburg Brand by Internal Students*
<INSERT FIGURE 5 HERE>

Discussion and Managerial Implications

According to Kotler *et al.* (1993), one of the aims for place marketing is to "promote a place's values and image so that potential users are fully aware of its distinctive advantages" (p. 18). Since an effective brand communication is based on the existing positive images of the city, it is crucial to assess the existing brand associations of the various target groups and then to highlight the distinctive advantages of the place. In the case of the city of Hamburg, place marketers so far mainly concentrate on the image of Hamburg as "city on the waterfront", as a "shopping city", "business place" and a city with a lot of cultural offerings like "musicals" (Hamburg Marketing GmbH, 2009). This image strongly fits the perception about Hamburg for its external target audience, but it neglects the image for most of its actual residents–a circumstance that results in low identification with the Hamburg brand and even public protest about place marketing activities in a "Not in our Name"-campaign from Hamburg residents (Gaier, 2010). This example demonstrates the urgent need for a more differentiated brand communication in case of high brand complexity. A more complex brand-architecture with a place umbrella brand and different target group specific sub-brands would be able to communicate a more heterogeneous picture for the Hamburg brand. For example, the association "university" could be included in one sub-brand (*Hamburg Student City*), as well as keep the "musicals" association, which seems important for tourists, in a tourist-sub-brand (*Visit Hamburg*). This would also lead to a more authentic communication and a higher identification with the Hamburg brand by all target groups.

Tables and Figures:

Table 1: *Top 20 Core Association of the Hamburg Brand by Degree Centrality (Study 1)*

No.	Group A (internal)	Group B (external)
1	harbor	Harbor
2	Alster [river]	Reeperbahn [red-light and party district]
3	Elbe [river]	Alster [river]
4	Michel/churches [flagship - tourist attraction]	**Fish market [weekly market - tourist attraction]**
5	Reeperbahn [red-light and party district]	**Musicals**
6	**nature and free space**	St. Pauli [vibrant district and local soccer club]
7	beautiful	Elbe [river]
8	city at the waterfront	Michel/churches [flagship - tourist attraction]
9	HSV [local soccer club]	HSV [local soccer club]
10	shopping	Hanse [historic trade union]
11	**home / a place to settle down**	city at the waterfront
12	**open and tolerant**	**Fish**
13	**Hamburg city hall**	**Northern**
14	Harbor City / harbor store houses	Shopping
15	St. Pauli [vibrant district and local soccer club]	Beautiful
16	Hanse [historic trade union]	**rich and expensive**
17	**cultural offerings**	major city
18	major city	Harbor city / harbor store houses
19	**good university**	friends and family
20	**opera and theatres**	**Ocean**

Note. Order by Freeman's degree centrality measurement; strong differences are highlighted

Table 2: *Top 20 Core Association of the Hamburg Brand by Degree Centrality (Study 2)*

No.	Group A (creative class)	Group B (students)
1	city at the waterfront	home / a place to settle down
2	harbor	major city
3	reserved people	Harbor
4	major city	city at the waterfront
5	home / a place to settle down	multi-cultural
6	cultural offerings	Reeperbahn [red-light and party district]
7	**Alster [river]**	cultural offerings
8	multi-cultural	**nature and free space**
9	Reeperbahn [red-light and party district]	**good university**
10	**diverse**	open and tolerant
11	beautiful	**bars and restaurants**
12	Elbe [river]	Elbe [river]
13	open and tolerant	**mass university**
14	likeable and helpful people	reserved people
15	theatre	**Hammaburg [old city castle]**
16	**Hanse [historic trade union]**	Theatre
17	**rich and expensive**	Beautiful
18	freedom	likeable and helpful people
19	**"Pfeffersäcke" [swear word for a rich merchant]**	**Musicals**
20	**music events**	**bad weather**

Note. Order by Freeman's degree centrality measurement; strong differences are highlighted

Figure 2: *Perception of the City of Hamburg Brand by Internal Target Group*

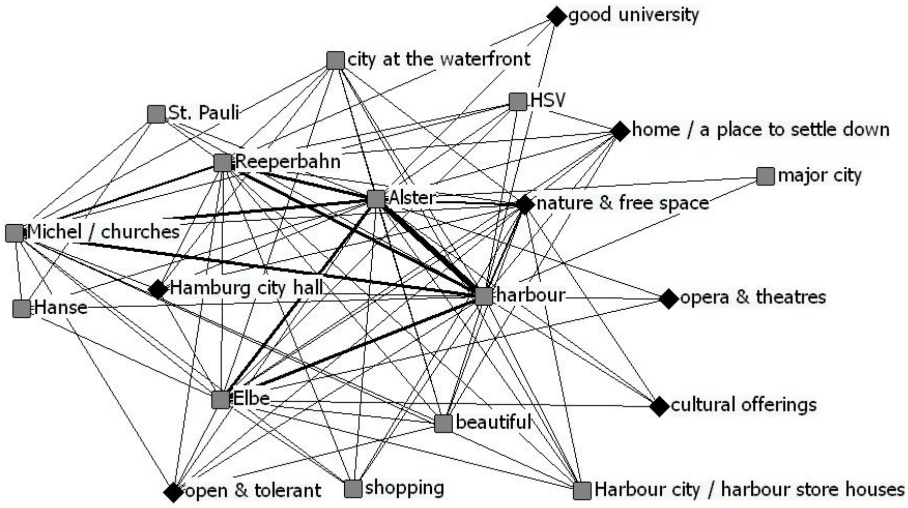


Figure 3: *Perception of the City of Hamburg Brand by External Target Group*

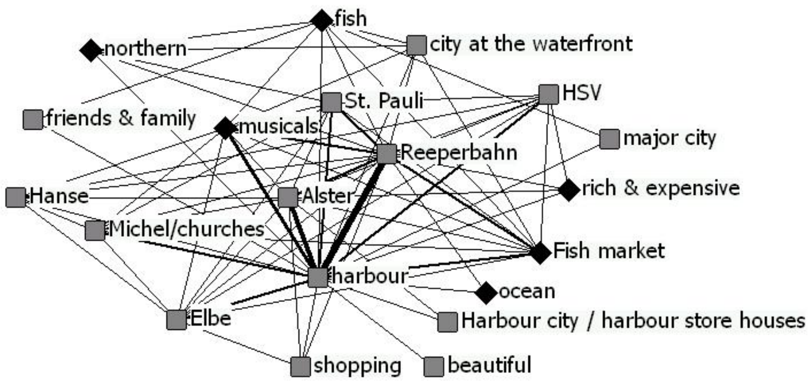


Figure 4: *Perception of the City of Hamburg Brand by Internal Creative Class Members*

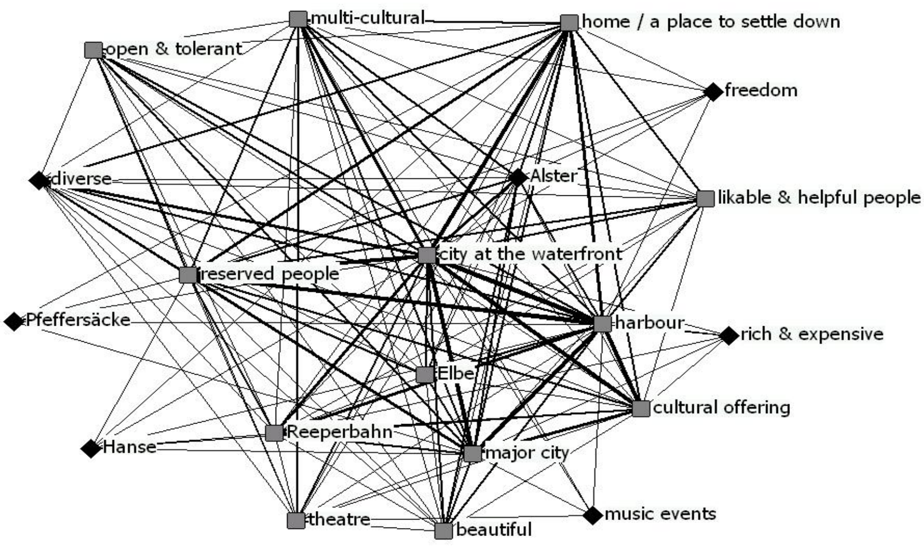
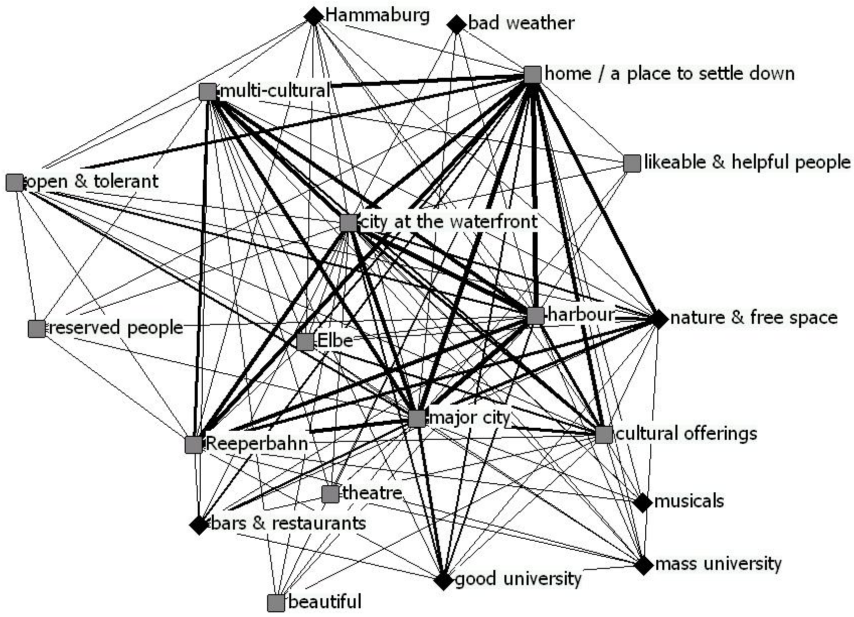


Figure 5: *Perception of the City of Hamburg Brand by Internal Students*



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Co-branding places?

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Introduction

Place branding is an economic and social important activity for cities, regions and nations around the world. The debate on place branding has in recent years involved an increasing number of scholars belonging to different academic fields (Lucarelli & Berg, 2011). Contemporaneously, there has been a rapid growth in different city branding strategies, practices and public and private investments. New and interwoven methodologies have been applied in order to shape competitive and winning place-branding efforts. The manifestations of a place brand can be characterized by different types of elements and efforts: tangible such as logos, slogans, taglines, events, artifacts, city area, or intangible, such as city users' perception, place attributes, management and governance mechanisms, social and community networking.

In the literature, place brands are similarly in general understood as highly complex phenomena. Such complexity has been tackled in different disciplines and perspectives with the aim to render a better understanding of the phenomena in order to produce a more "effective" city branding (Ashworth & Kavaratzis, 2010). Despite the manifold approaches and disciplinary particularities pointing toward differences among places and corporations, services and products, in recent literature on place branding there is still the conscious understanding that place brands are slight variations of corporate brands. This paper argues that place branding differs from corporate branding in some fundamental aspects: place branding is complex social constructs composed of a multi-contextual understanding both in spatial and temporal dimensions, multi-leveled interaction among actors and by a legal, political and aesthetic process

The present study suggests an alternative approach to the understanding of place brands through the development of a conceptual framework that focus on the constituting features of place brands and the place branding manifestations. This paper, contrary to the static and atomistic understanding of place branding, suggests that place brands are a complex and dynamic process in a constant state of flux; place brand activities and efforts are constituted by the interaction of several brands in a particular space (place brandscape).

Theoretical framework

In recent times, we are witnessing a cacophony of logos, slogans, events and other types of interventions all aimed to promote, sell and market cities. With the advent of the "branding tendency" in society, places are increasingly adopting the branding paradigm to market themselves. The "branding tendency" has indeed not only affected the entire society, changing the way production and consumption are conceptualized (Kornberger, 2010), but it has also changed the way in which brands are acting in different arenas, creating a world consisting of brands. The branding tendency has affected also geographical entities, such as cities, leading to talks about city brandscape (Pike, 2009; Raahauge, 2008). Places are internationally acting in an international multilevel (Syssner, 2010) competitive place brandscape (Berg, 2009) and locally they are constituted of different types of brands (Allingham, 2008; Raahauge, 2008). The competition among and between places, some scholars argue, is mainly due to a neo-liberal competitive environment developed in the past twenty years (Rantisi & Leslie, 2006). Thus, branding can be seen as a generally adopted strategy to catch-up with the competitive environment (Kornberger & Carter, 2010).

Place-brand manifestations are constituted of different types of elements. Those manifestations are most of the time channeled in activities, techniques strategies such as marketing and promotional campaigns, PR strategies, city brand usage, awareness campaigns, appropriative action, etc. In addition, places are composed of different types of users, audiences, dwellers and stakeholders. Inside and outside the territorial and legal borders of places (such as cities and municipalities) different types of organizations, activities and entities are, on different levels, spatially linked to the place brand. Those organizations, activities and entities (e.g. festivals, city suburbs, city communities, tribes, private corporations, museums, bridges, and personalities) are, most of the time, brands in their own terms. Those brands (brands in the places) act in different contexts according to different spatial and temporal contexts. At the same time, they are both the producer and the product of the brand. Place brands and their manifestations (in form of branding activities, efforts, organizations, events, etc.) can thus be better conceptualized as a kaleidoscopic dynamic process in which different local brands are constituting of a very fuzzy and unbounded space, characterized by multi-modal and multi-contextual relationships, namely the place brandscape.

The co-branding approach is an established approach to branding that has been generally employed in studies focusing on products, services and corporations. However, recently co-branding has been applied also to places. There are, for example, studies which analyze the relationship between city brand and sport/event organizations (Xing & Chalip, 2006), the city brand and artifacts/buildings in terms of city flagship, such as shopping malls (Warnaby & Bennison, 2006), the city brand and cultural institutions (Evans, 2003) and, finally, the relationship between place and corporate brands as a base of strategic resources (Mateo & Seisdedos, 2010). The embracement of the co-branding concept to analyze the involvement of brands in the place brandscape opens up for studies of different brands involved in the place-branding process, since it allow to sheds light on the process of appropriating, re-elaborating and co-creating the place brandscapes.

However, when translating a co-branding approach, extreme cautions have to be taken because the co-branding in places, if applied, should and could be done only by a precise contemplation of characterizing features. Both the general co-branding literature and the particular co-branding places literature have a tendency to conceive co-branding as something positive that creates add-on value for all the brands involved. However, part of the literature on place branding maintains that a positive add-on value for every participant of the process is not always the case (Evans, 2003; Richards & Wilson, 2004; Smith, 2005). Co-branding for places thus maintains that place "brand equity" could also turn negative or uneven and the added value for the participants is not likely to be the norm.

One of the main reasons is linked to the diverse characteristics of places and corporations as well as the diverse characteristics of place brands and corporate, service and product brands. In this sense, it could argued that not only is it important to be cautious in dealing with place branding, but also that by studying place brands it automatically broadens the concept of brand as known in branding and marketing literature. Places thus can and should be seen as brands only if one depart from the traditional way of conceptualizing a brand, namely in its corporate, service and product form. Much of the literature, as pointed out in different ways by Pasquinelli(2010) and Lucarelli(2011), adopting those approaches and theories renders a static rather than a dynamic understanding of place brands. The dynamic understanding of place branding argues that place brands are something very complex and difficult to catch and measure, but also that it is almost unimportant to try to understand and discover the essence of the brand, because of its contingency in the particular spatial-temporal context. The extent to which place brands are seen as dynamic processes differs in the place-branding literature (Doel & Hubbard, 2002; Giovanardi, 2011; Hankinson, 2004; Pasquinelli, 2010; Pryor & Grossbart, 2007). According to the dynamic-appropriative perspective thus, place brads are a political and aesthetic on-going multi-layered spatial and timely contextual process in which multi-leveled interactions are processed among brands in form of different types of audiences.

Methodology

The study tends to build an alternative conceptual understanding of place brand and its manifestations. For this purpose, the historical Italian region of Romagna (Balzani, 2001) is analyzed in order to get a deeper and wider understanding of the phenomena included in a singular setting (Yin, 2003) and to be able to apply the framework to other cases in a comparative manner. In this paper, the interactions of the various regional brand organizations and the general brand "Romagna" are examined by studying the way several regional brands are interacting. The study is based firstly on an analysis of organization websites and secondly on four open-ended face-to-face interviews with key persons of various regional organizations. The choice of interviewee follows a simple rule: the organization must have purposefully endowed the regional brand and the person interviewed is the key person. By focusing only on key persons, important information about other modalities and reasons spread at other levels inside and outside the organization is missed. In spite of this, it can be argued that 1) we are now not interested in researching relationships at grassroots level of place branding; 2) the particular hierarchical cultural context in which the study is performed allows us to believe the key speakers are ideal for our scope; and 3) since our understanding of brand is a purposive embodiment, the organizations selected are the ones that purposefully appropriate the brand.

Conclusions

The paper offers a theoretical framework that conceptualizes place brands and their manifestations as being constitutive of different brands engaged across spatio-temporal interactions in relation to each other and in relation to a particular contextual environment. The way of interaction, motivations, intentionality and relational modalities though which different brands are engaged are characterized by political, spatial and meaning factors. The contextual environment can be seen as a (co-branding) process in a constant dynamic on-going process state of flux in which different types of brands are interplaying, constructing the place brandscapes. The paper further elucidates that by thinking of place brand and place branding as a co-branding process based on mutual reciprocity between and among different types of brands located in a particular brandscape allows researchers and practitioners to better understand the characteristics of the place brand, its activities, efforts and elements and the conditions under which these activities, efforts and element are constituted. However, the type of co-branding process described in this study does not necessarily create a linear positive add-on value for all parts involved. Rather, the co-branding process here is fragmented, dynamic, and multi-contextual. Instead of being considered a fixed regional brand, Romagna should be considered a regional space with several brands acting within the regional brandscape, because of the several brands and actors relating to it for their own different purposes.

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Haft and *Sord* Factors in Place Branding: Between Functionalism and Representationalism

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1. Introduction

There appears to be a general agreement that cities and places can be thought of (and marketed) as if they were brands among practitioners (Anholt, 2007), marketing scholars (i.e. Hankinson, 2001; Hankinson, 2004; Trueman and Cornelius, 2006) and partially also within the planning studies (i.e. Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005). Even though the theoretical and methodological issues to be clarified are not few (Vicari Haddock, 2010), the debate on the translation of this strategic approach from the world of companies into that of places is engaging and can be improved through the collaboration of scholars coming from different scientific backgrounds.

This conceptual paper contends that the contemporary place branding perspective implies to understand place attraction (and place brands themselves) in terms of *haft* and *sord* factors, by updating the "old" distinction between hard and soft factors which characterized the traditional discourses of place marketing. Moreover, it seeks to refine the Brand Box Model (De Chernatony & McWilliam, 1990) as it has been applied to places by Caldwell and Freire (2004), by paying attention to the distinction between the internal and external orientation of place branding.

The advantages offered by these conceptualizations are explored in respect to some issues within the place brand literature which still require to be fully understood, like the need to rearticulate the functional/physical and representational/symbolic dimensions in city branding.

2. Theoretical Backgound

Over the past thirty years cities around the world have invested in strategies of place marketing and branding aimed at attracting investment, economic activities, skilled workforce, talented creative workers, tourists and at strengthening local community pride and identity. Within the discourses produced among the academic community and the practitioners, it is possible to distinguish two views, each of which has at some time dominated the discipline. The first one is the place marketing discourse, which ruled the field during the Eighties and the Nineties and can be considered the first step in the effort of translating the application of marketing techniques to the realm of territories (i.e. Kotler, Rein & Haider, 1993; Kotler, Asplund, Rein & Haider, 1999). Since about the beginning of the new millennium, however, we have been witnessing the emergence of a different paradigm, that of place branding, which nowadays is understood as the most correct and effective way for marketing cities, regions and nations (Kavaratzis, 2004; Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005).

The marketing paradigm usually focused on cities and city regions as business locations, addressing private companies as the main targets of the strategic treatment. This body of literature has already acknowledged that shaping an appropriate place identity and image is a very important element of a place marketing strategy (Ashworth & Voogd, 1990; Kotler et al. 1993; Hubbard & Hall, 1998; Rainisto, 2003) .

With the shift from "city marketing" to "city branding" (Kavaratzis, 2004), scholars recognised further the pivotal role played by emotional assets and mental representations in the process of enhancing places' distinctivness. Since "encounters with the city take place through perceptions and images, thus the object of city marketing is not the city 'itself', but its image" (Kavaratzis, 2004: 62), and at the same time, "it is not the city but the image that has to be planned" (Vermuelen, 2002 as cited in Kavaratzis, 2004, p. 63). This conceptualization, furthermore, strongly benefits from the notion of corporate branding, which is considered an inspiring stimulus in terms of "useful lessons to be drawn" (Hankinson, 2007) given the evident similarities between the two forms of branding (Kavaratzis, 2009, 2010).

3. Preliminary remarks: hard and soft factors in place marketing

Adopting the formulation proposed by Kotler et al. (1999) within a place marketing perspective, place attraction factors can be divided into hard factors (i.e. economic stability, communication infrastructure, costs) and soft factors (i.e. quality of life, culture, knowledge). This distinction is particularly meaningful in respect to the marketing actions targeting private companies, but it is possible to extend it to cover an ample set of targets and situations. In this view, which could be valid also for destination management perspective, place attraction is determined by a mixture of hard and soft factors. "Hard attraction factors alone like infrastructure will no longer be able to build a unique competition advantage" (Rainisto, 2003, p. 72) and the sophistication of the place package urges place managers to draw on soft factors to build a favourable image.

It is worth noting that the "geographical marketing mix" such as those described by Ashworth and Voogd (1990) and Kotler et al. (1999) encompasses a combination of hard and soft elements, which appear to be quite balanced. The emerging of place branding, however, has brought to completion an imaginative turn which sees in culture and imagery the key drivers to guide places in the mounting interurban competition, with the hard and functional dimensions gradually being left out of the main focus of the research agenda. The time has come to reconsider this issue more carefully.

4. The Framework: *Haft* and *Sord* Factors in Place Branding

My framework is based on the assumption that hard factors and soft factors can be seen as corresponding respectively to the functional and the representational dimensions coexisting in every brand and characterizing, in a similar vein, also the place brands, as has been showed by Caldwell and Freire (2004) in relation to destination branding. While hard factors deal much more with the functional characteristics of the place, soft factors are more suitable to be exploited in order to develop representational, value-expressing aspects of territories.

Indeed, cities and territories appear to be by definition not only a mixture of simple organizational and spatial forms and patterns, but also a collection of symbols which have been consolidated with the passing of time (Mela, 2006, p. 187). The peculiarity of city brands lies thus in this symbiotic assemblage of functional and representational dimensions. This argument, which is taken into consideration although not further stressed by Caldwell and Freire (2004), is, in actual fact, inherent in the nature of the urban experience.

To render more effectively the idea of the pervasive intertwining of these two facets in cities and city branding processes, I choose to adopt the two portmanteau adjectives *haft* and *sord*. The expression *haft factors* implies that hard factors can have "soft implications". The suffix "-ft" hence refers to the communicative and representational value of urban tangible and functional elements, such as transportation infrastructure, built environment, the cost of the real estate and renting market and so on. On the other hand, *sord factors* indicate the functional implications we can ascribe to intangible elements such as culture, knowledge and traditions and the way in which they impact on the tangible and utilitarian elements of the urban fabric.

[fig. 1]

With regard to the haft factors, their essence lies in the assumption that everything happening within a city does have a semiotic effect which its audiences can grasp. We can therefore extend the first axiom of communication (Watzlavick, Beavin & Jackson, 1967) and affirm that "a place cannot not communicate". Some of the haft factors are quite controllable by city stakeholders: let us think for example of the positive symbolic value portrayed by the construction of a new modern underground. Architecture, indeed, should encompass by definition a certain level of harmony between functionality and representationality. Other typologies of haft factors, instead, are not so easily predictable, such as the real estate market value in Berlin, a structural mechanism of urban functioning which in turn has a strong impact in moulding the fresh and charming "aura" (Savage & Warde, 1993) of the city. In this perspective, it is a kind of *symbolic functionalism* that we are dealing with.

The idea of *sord factors* hints at the functional and tangible implications caused by official and unofficial moments of urban representations. The local cultural repertoires, for example, could be transformed into festivals and events that not only contribute to a city's imaging (see the notion of "Ephemera" by Schuster, 2001), but also have practical consequences on local economic productivity and spatial organization. As the Landor Managing director states in relation to companies, "the more we turn into service- and knowledge-led industries and societies – the more what we believed to be soft factors become real hard factors" (Stoeckl, 2009). In this respect, *symbolism* thus becomes *functional*.

Furthermore, my reinterpretation of De Chernatony and McWilliam's framework (1990) encapsulates the distinction between the two orientations characterizing place branding, namely internal and external orientation (Kavaratzis, 2004; Colomb & Kalandides, 2010). This implies that haft and sord factors could play different roles for each of the audiences living in and using the city, such as dwellers, tourists, commuters and so on. Are, for example, internal place consumers more likely to draw on brands mainly as haft factors rather than external ones? This is just one of the questions to be included in the main research agenda.

5. Conclusions

This paper illustrates that while within the place marketing perspective territorial attractiveness was understood in terms of hard and soft factors, in the current place branding perspective it should be thought of in terms of *haft* and *sord* factors. This updated conceptualization proves to be a valuable resource with regard to the following issues:

- by underlining the intimate interconnectedness between these two layers of urban life, I intend to provide an insightful underpinning for discussing the relationship between functional and representational dimensions in place branding, building upon some recent contributions (Caldwell & Freire, 2004; Lloyd & Peel, 2008).

- responding to recent suggestions in the literature (Kavaratzis, 2010, p. 47) the framework suggests that both the dimensions should be addressed in the place branding mix, and that "a more holistic undertaking that views communication and product development as two mutually supporting processes" (Therkelsen, Halkier & Jensen, 2010, p. 137) is required, thus providing practical implications for place managers.

Finally, my re-elaboration of De Chernatony and McWilliam's Brand Box Model (1990), as applied to places by Caldwell and Freire (2004), is sensitive to the presence of internal and external audiences in the place branding process. The time has come to apply this framework not only to places as destinations, but also as dwellings, and to compare the particular evaluation of the "functional-representational mix" made by each group of place consumers.

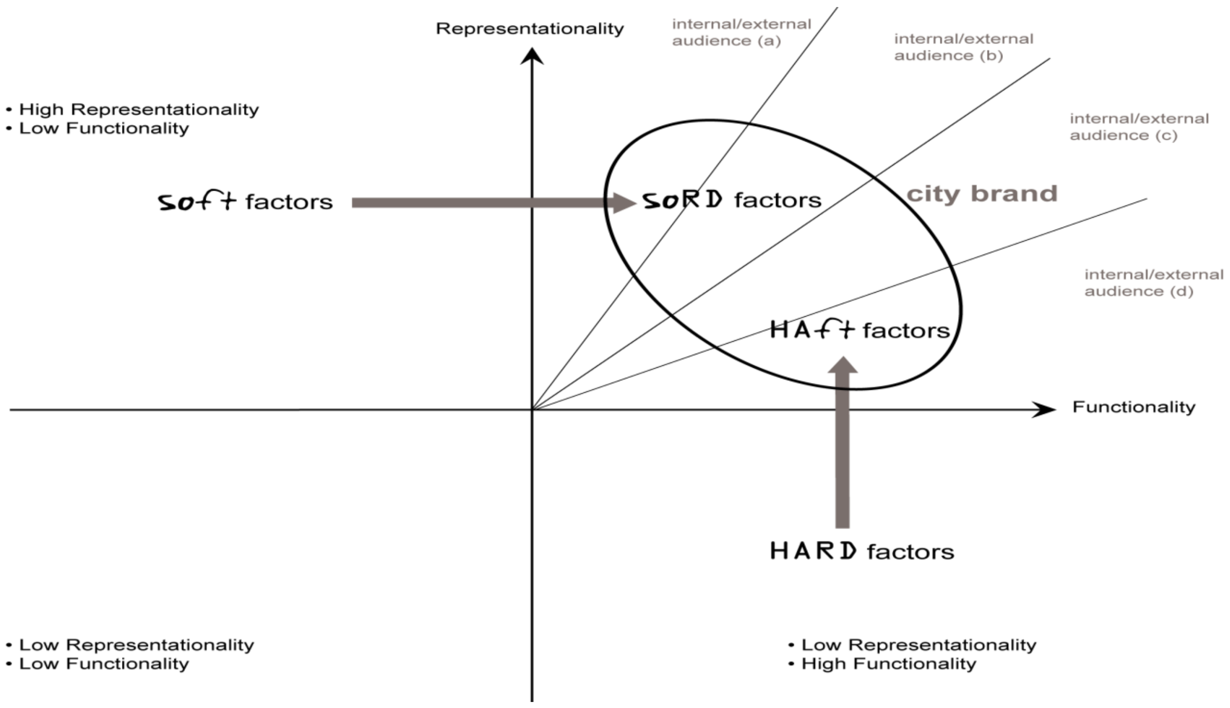

Fig. 1: my re-elaboration of De Chernatony and McWilliam's Brand Box Model (1990)

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Session 3.4

Innovation and Entrepreneurial Branding of Ethnic Products in Malaysia: The Case of Sabah Ethnic Batik

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Country-of-Origin Effects on Brand Equity – Accounting for Valence of Association

Mikael Andéhn, Stockholm University, Sweden

Marketing The Malaysian Brand of Higher Education: Does Country Image Matter?

Norjaya Mohd Yasin, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Malaysia
Aliah Hanim Mohd Salleh, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Malaysia
Ahmad Azmi Ariffin, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Malaysia
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Do Generation Z Understand Brands Differently? A Cross-Disciplinary Review

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Innovation and Entrepreneurial Branding of Ethnic Products in Malaysia: The Case of Sabah Ethnic Batik

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Introduction

In Malaysia, one of the latest trends is to promote ethnic batik and branding in the tourism industry. Batik has developed its own niche markets among the locals and international collectors. However, brand dominance and identity are still lacking especially in Sabah. Sabah, a Malaysian state in the Borneo Island is blessed with unmatched cultural assets and heritage of its more than 30 ethnic groups. The three largest groups are now known as Kadazandusun Murut (KDM). Other dominant natives include Bajau, Bisaya, Kedayan, Bugis, Iranun and Suluk. The Bajau people are divided by geographical areas, living on both the West and the East coast of Sabah. The groups differ in their dialects and cultures; the Western Bajau prefers farming and agricultural while the Eastern Bajau live as fishermen and known as 'sea gypsies'. The cultural diversity in Sabah offers wide benefits to the business world by stimulating unique products and experiences, opening new markets and creating different challenges for ethnic entrepreneurs.

Batik production is a traditional tourism-based activity in the Peninsular Malaysia. Many different cultures, especially Javanese, Indian and Japanese contributed to the development of Malaysian batik. From the early 1900s until the late 1920s, wooden blocks were used to make batik before copper blocks were introduced. Block printing and hand-painting are two main types of batik making. In block printing which is a cheaper form, wax is stamped directly on fabrics using copper or zinc blocks to produce patterns. The hand painting technique is often associated with premium and higher-end aesthetic expressions than the block prints. Batik materials, colors and mixtures used for hand-painted technique are also more expensive than for block-prints. Examples of silk fabric used include crepe, satin, rayon, voile and jacquard.

Purpose

Cui (1997) and Penaloza and Gilly (1999) document the growth of size and purchasing power of ethnic minority as well as increase awareness of political, cultural and ethnic pride. Recently, ethnic diversity in Malaysia and ethnic motifs start to receive increasing attention. Ethnic entrepreneurs begin to develop and implement different marketing styles and practices. To date, literature on various aspects of ethnicity and tourism is available worldwide. However, in Malaysia, research on the ethnic minority entrepreneurs is still at its infancy. Similarly, entrepreneurship opportunity in the Malaysian ethnic batik industry is not well-publicised. The main objectives of this research are to examine the issues of innovation from an ethnic entrepreneur perspective, discuss brand-building, highlight the meanings of selected ethnic motifs and their innovative applications, and add the Malaysian dimension of ethnic entrepreneurs to the existing literature which is mostly of Western applications.

Literature Review

Malaysian hand-drawn batik which started in the 1960s now takes the centre-stage in branding Malaysia in the global tourism market. The Malaysian batik industry is expected to experience high growth potential in both the domestic and international markets. The limited batik designs at present create opportunities and challenges for new designs and product innovations. Sabah, with its exotic natural setting and heritage has the potential to contribute positively in developing distinguished batik designs. With its very large indigenous groups and diverse cultural assets, Sabah presents highly unusual, natural and unique perspectives for enhancing products and the landscape of ethnic tourism. Ethnic batik provides a unique opportunity for the ethnic entrepreneurs to create and serve a niche market and the unique needs of ethnic clients (see, for example, Iver & Shapiro, 1999; Ram, 1994; Waldinger, Aldrich & Ward, 1990).

Ethnic businesses are usually owner-operated. Among others, Iver & Shapiro (1999), Khan (1988), Kotkin (1992), Robinson (1988) & Waldinger et al. (1990) report that ethnic enterprises tend to be family-owned and employ ethnic minority in their community. They take advantage of their networks of extended family to provide a ready and relatively inexpensive source of capital and labor. According to Aldrich and Waldinger (1990), Barrett, Jones & McEvoy (1996), Iver & Shapiro (1999), and Ram (1994), large retailers may ignore the ethnic niche market due to low and unstable demand and thus, low economies of scales. Barrett et al. (1996) and Iver and Shapiro (1999) report that the ethnic entrepreneurs are typically hard-working, focus on business growth and engage in food and clothing retailing or manufacturing. According to Iver and Shapiro (1999), ethnic entrepreneurs contribute to the economy by offering low priced and high value products and services. Further, they provide resources and create employment opportunities, knowledge and training for fellow ethnic members. The co-ethnic employees in return, help promote goodwill or branding for the ethnic firm within the community.

Methodology

This research applies the qualitative method to achieve its objectives. A case study was conducted of an ethnic batik entrepreneur in the city of Kota Kinabalu, Sabah. The business was established on 18 November 2007 by a woman from a KDM background. Participant observation, face-to-face in-depth interviews and informal observations were engaged. A total of seven interviews were conducted with the owner within a period of 12 months from November 2009 until October 2010. Open-ended questions were used during the interviews which were all conducted in the business outlet.

The interviews were conducted in the national Malay language and translated immediately following the sessions. Discussions were on informal basis and arranged in the evenings between 7:00 pm to 9:00 pm to avoid peak hours of the business. The owner and her husband were present and participated in each interview. As much as possible, questions were asked to trigger responses on the motivations to start the ethnic business, the marketing practice, product innovations and branding, and the ethnic business environment. Detailed notes were taken and verified during the interviews. Photographs were also taken during each visit to the business outlet and were used together with the notes during data interpretation.

Research Findings

The ethnic batik business is owned by Justina Dusing who is in her late forties. The idea to establish the business was mostly out of her concern for the preservation of ethnic cultural values and assets. She considers it as partly the duty of the ethnic communities to educate the mainstream consumers of their distinct and unique cultures through product designs and innovation. According to Justina, her initial intention was to create an opportunity to market the important part of her culture and treasures inherited mostly from the KDM ethnic as well as Rungus, Bajau and Iranun ethnics groups. Prior to starting the business, the owner spent about seven years undertaking research to understand ethnic motifs, their history and origins, and mastering the art of batik making. Since batik business in Sabah was still at its early stage when Justina entered the market, she decided to integrate it with a cafeteria business. The batik business occupies an area of about 15 square metres inside the cafeteria which is also managed by Justina. The cafeteria focuses on ethnic food, drinks and authentic cuisines. Its interior decorations highlight the ethnic batik fabrics, fashion designs and soft furnishing. Such a business combination was uncommon in Sabah when they first started. The fashion house in a cafeteria provides a convenient and relaxing atmosphere for her customers to make their selections in one comfortable place.

The application of ethnic motifs in designing the Malaysian batik was not new when the business first started. However, Justina was uncomfortable to find that some of the motifs were misrepresented in the form of design combinations. Some ethnic motifs carry sensitive meanings which are considered taboo and to be presented only in specific manners. Ignorance of the meanings may result in unintended insults or damages to the consumers and the affected ethnic communities. Thus, Justina, with the support of her family, was determined to educate the public by engaging in the batik making. Batik fabrics offered by Olumis are characterised by unique combinations of ethnic motifs combined with exclusive flora and fauna using exquisite selection of colours. The business owner claims that *Olumis* now takes the centre-stage of ethnic batik category among the local producers in Sabah. Olumis also caters to the tourist market by integrating ethnic motifs with contemporary ideologies and trends. This is produced in pictorial arts and hand-painted T-shirts. The ethnic motifs are presented as creative images to create uniqueness in the designs. Geometrical patterns are sometimes combined with plants, animals and other natural resources. Unlike traditional batik entrepreneurs, *Olumis* invests on creating brand awareness for her batik fabrics by participating in local and international contemporary fashion shows and also in government sponsored cultural activities. Among the ethnic consumers, however, emotional attachment and ethnic pride seem to add to the brand loyalty and commitment. When deciding to establish the brand for her batik, Justina insisted on using an ethnic term. She was very keen to promote the ethnic culture and lifestyles while at the same time attempted to educate her broad-based customers including international tourists. According to the owner, 'there is a story behind every ethnic motif'. The word *Olumis*, according to Justina, brings luck and prosperity to her business.

Conclusion

In Malaysia, the limited batik designs at present create opportunities and challenges for new innovations. Considering the growth of ethnic community and their cultural strength, ethnic branding may be the way forward for Malaysian entrepreneurs. With Sabah batik industry at its beginning, its ethnic motifs provide a fresh addition to the tourism industry. The exotic natural setting and diverse cultural background contribute to the development of distinguished batik designs. This study shows that it is the brand name rather than the product features that attracts the niche customers and thus, the business success at the initial stage. This could also be an indication of increased confidence by the ethnic community of their growth in size and acceptance into the mainstream. In addition, the paper presents selected ethnic motifs and their underlying meanings. Even though the findings are rather context-specific the results highlight several issues that merit further research to promote global understanding of ethnic branding.

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Country-of-Origin Effects on Brand Equity – Accounting for Valence of Association

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Introduction

The infancy of the third millennium has been characterized by the onset of globalization perhaps more than any other change in society overall. A defining characteristic of globalization is the convergence of markets, which have brought with it an accelerated rate of competition between multinational corporations. This accelerating competitiveness serves to make the means of which a firm can differentiate itself to its potential customers increasingly relevant. In the information overflow of the 21st century establishing a brand reputation has become a more and more costly, difficult and volatile affair, making any means of a positive reputational differentiation worthy of consideration. One characteristic that can serve as a path to a reputational differentiation identified in the research literature is the country-of-origin of the offering of the firm, be it a commodity (Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Peterson & Jolibert, 1995), service (Javalgi et al, 2001) or even the brand of the firm (Steenkamp et al, 2003; Paswan & Sharma, 2004).

Recent contributions to the country-of-origin effect research area have stressed that the *perceived* association to a country is the key determinant of what county the effect is derived from (Samiee, 1994; Li et al, 2000; O'Shaughnessy & O'Shaughnessy, 2000; Josiassen & Harzing, 2008). The "country" construct itself becoming relevant as a "country-image" which serves as a potent carrier of associations (Nagashima, 1970). This more consumer perception-oriented turn in country-of-origin research appears reasonable as well as overdue since the country-of-origin effect arguably always has been a phenomenon that takes place on the level of consumer perception. This development has also heightened the importance of the firm-brand in the context of the country-of-origin effect. Since the country-of-association (from which the country-of-origin effect is derived) is often the same as the perceived country-of-brand or the country the brand is perceived to "belong to" (Lim & O'Cass, 2001; Ulgado, 2002; Thakor & Lavack, 2003; Srinivasan et al, 2004). Changing the logic of how the country-of-origin effect is sourced from a "physical locus of manufacture"-based view to a "perceived country-of-brand"-view.

Conceptualization

In this vein of adjusting the effect to a perceptual logic the present paper will approach the country-of-origin effect in terms of consumer-based brand equity (Keller, 1993), conceptualizing the effect as being due to a brand triggering an association to a country. Addressing a previously overlooked issue; that the intensity or valence of the connection between a country-image and a brand can varies by degree. A highly systematic review of the literature of country-of-origin effects, featuring 147 peer-reviewed articles from the last 10 years, revealed that the potential of variability of association has not been taken into account at this point in time. Accounting for the perceived intensity of the connection between a country-image and a firm-brand may help explain situations like why for instance Audi is less likely to evoke a country-of-origin effect from the country-image of Germany than would Volkswagen. Or put differently; to capture that perceived origin varies by degree.

The idea that consumers use brands to infer knowledge about products via associations triggered by the brand is a well established concept (Keller, 1993; Henderson et al, 2002; Roedder et al, 2006). This conceptualization approaches the brand as a node that can be linked to other nodes representing various characteristics and concepts in a network-like structure based on the idea of associative learning (Mitchell et al, 2009). In a hypothetical network of nodes representing concepts and characteristics what determines which "path" through the network an evaluation process takes is determined by the presence and valence of the links between concepts (Krishna, 1996). A country-node would play a special role in the network of most consumers since countries are particularly charged concepts which would enjoy a large number of links to concept and characteristics, and would therefore transfer a large number of secondary association onto the brands associated with them (Keller, 1993; Pappu et al, 2006). Since countries play a vital part in how human beings categorize and make sense of the world (Jaworski & Fosher, 2003), countries can even be described as "super-brands" citing their exceptional salience as concepts (Kaynak et al, 2000) and the richness of associations they can trigger.

This conceptualisation of brands as a node in a network of associations invites a view of the country-of-origin effect as a brand being given access to a large number of salient associations by way of an association to a country. Figure 1 is a simplified representation of how the country-of-origin effect can be thought to work in terms of associative learning. In this case the firm-brand is associated with the characteristic "x" not by being directly associated with the characteristic, but by the characteristic being attributed to the firm-brand via the firm-brands association to a country, which in turn is directly associated to the characteristic "x".

Figure 1 Here

The "intensity" or "valence" of the connection between the firm-brand and the country becomes relevant in two ways in this conceptualisation. First, one may conceive intensity of connection as being the determinant of the likelihood of the association to trigger on exposure to the firm-brand. Secondly, intensity could be construed as determine how readily a characteristic would transfer from a country to a firm-brand.

The present study will test this proposition operationalized as the following two hypothesizes:

*H1a***:** The perceived equity of a country-Image influences the perceived equity of a firm-brand when a consumer associates one with the other.

*H1b***:** The perceived intensity of the connection between the country and the firm-brand will determine how readily, or directly, country-image equity transfers to a firm-brand.

Methodology

In order to test intensity as a potential moderator of the country-of-origin effect a study was carried out in two steps, first 10 university students of various disciplines were subjected to semi-structured interviews. The respondents were asked to name a number of firm-brands they perceived as having a strong relation to a country as well as firm-brands lacking such a relation. This provided a rich sample of country- and firm-brand-pairs representing a vast spectrum of different levels of intensity of perceived country-image to firm-brand connection. In the second part of the study 63 university students were subjected to a survey which measured perceived firm-brand equity, perceived country-image equity, firm-brand familiarity and the intensity of the connection between a firm-brand and a country image. The number of completed surveys (60) was sufficient for regression testing using 3 independent variables (Hair et al, 2009).

The familiarity-variable was not included in the final analysis but rather served as a control for the potential of familiarity acting a confounder in the data. Colinearity-testing showed that no correlation of considerable strength exist between familiarity and any of the other variables included in the analysis. The variables were also found to conform to the demands of regression testing in terms of distribution. A second well-known moderator of the country-of-origin effect, the product-country fit (Roth & Romeo, 1992; Usunier & Cestre, 2007; Zeugner-Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009) was dealt with by including a large number of different brands for evaluation (22) representing a variety of product categories so that the potential impact of product category would be diluted to the point where it would no longer be a significant confounder.

Findings

Regression analysis indicated that the interaction-term "country-equity x connection intensity" emerges as a significant contributor of explained variance in this model, suggesting that connection intensity does play a role in how much consumers are influenced by a "country-image" when evaluating a firm-brand.

Table 1 Here

This result suggests that not only can the perceived country-image equity influence firm-brand evaluation but that this influence is moderated by the perceived intensity of the connection between the country and the firm-brand.

The low level of explained variance (12.5%) is due the semantic complexity of brands where perceived country-of-association is an important component, but ultimately just a part of what determine perceived brand-equity. The model shows that country-image does transfer to firm-brand in the data rejecting the null hypothesis for *H1a*, furthermore the interaction-term based on brand-equity and the connection-strength between country-image and firm-brand emerges as significant; indicating that it ads to the explained variance of the model which means that the null hypothesis for *H1b* is also rejected.

Conclusions

The results indicate that country-images have the potential to transfer their equity onto firm-brands that are perceived as being associated with; a notion that is generally accepted in contemporary research on the topic of country-of-origin effects (Pappu et al, 2006). The results also suggest that this association varies by degree - a finding which adds a new dimension to the idea of country-of-origin effects. This can be taken to means that in order to generate a beneficial country-of-origin effect for a firm-brand the brand must first be perceived as being associated with a country with a positive country-image equity and secondly that this association must be strong enough for the positive country-image equity to transfer onto the firm-brand. This means that firm-brands must not only be managed with diligence paid to *which* country they are associated to but also how *intense* this association is perceived to be by the target audience.

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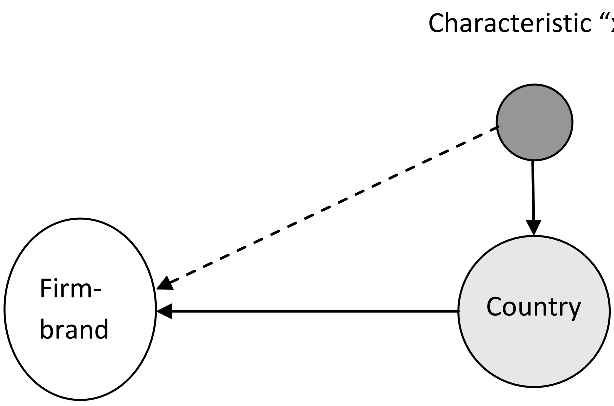

Figure 1. The firm-brand is perceived as being associated to the characteristic "x" (indicated by the dotted line) by what is actually a second order association (full lines) taking the path via an association to its perceived country-of-origin which in turn carries a "primary" association to the characteristic "x".

Table 1. Regression model summary. Dependent variable: Firm-brand equity (y).

$y = k + ax_1 + bx_2 + c(x_1 * x_2) + e; R^2 = 0.125$

Variable	B	β	Sig.
Constant (k)	3.182	-	0.000
Country-image $a(x_1)$	0.188	0.182	0.005
Connection Intensity $b(x_2)$	-0.005	-0.007	0.930
Interaction Term $c(x_1 * x_2)$	0.025	0.213	0.044

Marketing The Malaysian Brand of Higher Education: Does Country Image Matter?

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Introduction

Malaysia, aspiring to be a developed nation by 2020 (using the slogan: "Malaysia – Truly Asia" as its positioning statement in the tourism market), confronts a big challenge to effectively target and execute its strategy to market its country brand, when it aspires to become a higher education hub in the East Asian region. By showing empirical evidence, this paper illustrates the need to understand the inter-twining role of 'country image' with the process of developing the country's unique education 'brand'.

As an industry, education branding in Malaysia is still at its infant stage. Malaysia is a young international education provider and exporter besides Australia, US and UK which have been the key players for a long time. To reinforce the attractiveness of Malaysia as a destination for higher education, there is a critical need to thoroughly understand how the selection process of host country is actually made (Siti Falindah, 2006), what are the underlying factors influencing the process and how Malaysia is actually doing or performing on those factors.

Purpose of Study

How do foreign nationals perceive Malaysian higher education in terms of four identified brand dimensions – country image, institution, education system and personal aspects? How do they perceive Malaysia's 'country image', relative to the other three brand dimensions? What attributes do these foreign nationals rate highly under the 'country image' dimension, that favor Malaysia as a study destination of their choice? This paper reports a recent large-scale research commissioned by the Malaysian Higher Education Ministry, to seek answers to these interesting research questions. The case of Indonesian nationals (alumni, students currently studying in Malaysia and prospective students) as our sample respondents becomes the object of this study. The primary goal of this study is to explore and to gain an in-depth understanding on the brand equity of Malaysian higher education from the context of the three different groups of Indonesian respondents. Specifically, this study attempts to identify the brand index dimensions (country, institution, education system and personal aspect) and the main items that might exert more influence in creating a positive image of Malaysia as a country destination of study among Indonesian current students and alumni.

There has been a gradual increase in the number of Indonesian international students enrolled in Malaysian public and private institutions. Indonesia was selected as the focus of this study because of its vast potential market for Malaysian higher education. In 2006 to 2008, students from Indonesia accounted for the highest foreign students' enrolment in public and private higher institutions in Malaysia (9,538 students in 2008), with the nearest contender China (7,977 students in 2008). In 2009, it fell into the second place with 9,812 students, trailing closely behind Iran with 10,932 students (Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia [MOHE], 2010).

Methodology

This study employs both quantitative and qualitative methods to complement each other's findings thus would result in richer analysis of the discussions and stronger strategic implications for marketing of the Malaysian Higher Education brand. A questionnaire (conceptually-driven) was developed to survey the two sub-samples of (a) Indonesian students currently studying in tertiary institutions in Malaysia and (b) Indonesian alumni, that is, those who have graduated from a Malaysian tertiary institution. This questionnaire was amended to render it relevant for a second questionnaire for the prospective Indonesian students.

Data was first gathered through two focus group discussions with 11 foreign students commencing April 2009. Then 19 people (Indonesian lecturers, students' parents and recruitment agents) were interviewed face-to-face in Jakarta and Bandung. For sub-sample (a) a list of public and private higher education institution with high numbers of foreign students became the sampling plan. To identify potential alumni respondents, UKM's alumni in Indonesia were contacted and they assisted in distributing the questionnaires and gathering the completed ones. Some of the alumni responses were obtained through on-line communications (each of them however, contacted personally by enumerators). Overall, judgmental and convenience sampling were used. Anonymity of responses was assured. Prospective students were identified from several high schools/tertiary institutions in Jakarta, Medan, Pekan Baru, Acheh and Padang. Enumerators personally contacted them and personally collected the completed questionnaires from the 3 sub-samples. Each questionnaire was attached with a small gift as a token of appreciation for completing the questionnaire. All items were self-assessed by the respondents after briefings by the enumerators. This had favourably resulted in high response rate – 1628 out of 1700 questionnaires were gathered and usable for data analysis, comprising 989 Indonesians currently studying in Malaysian higher educational institutions ('MHEI's) at the time of the survey, 416 prospective Indonesian students, and 252 Indonesians who have graduated from MHEI's ('Indonesian alumni'). The distribution and collection of completed questionnaires were done within October 2009 to May 2010.

Results

The demographic profile indicates that the majority of respondents from the current students' category are pursuing their studies in the first degree (59.04%). However, the majority of the alumni (58.33%) who responded have completed their studies in the first degree. Similarly, most of the prospective students intend to further their studies at Master's level (36.78%). Accordingly, the age categories for the three groups of students also differ, where the majority of the current students are in the 20-30 years old with 64.51%, 46.03% of the alumni are in the 30-35 years old whereas 64.90% of the prospective students are below 20 years old.

Most of the respondents are single with 83.11% of the current students, and a vast majority of 95.43% of the prospective students. However, in accordance with their age group, the majority of the alumni are married (62.70%). The ratios of male and female respondents are almost balanced except in the alumni category, where the male (58.73%) almost double the female (38.49%) respondents. Majority of the alumni respondents are Muslims (93.25) and they also form the majority in the other two categories of current students and prospective (68.86% and 76.92% respectively).

The most popular program among all the three categories of students is Business, with 33.67% (current students) and 23.41% (alumni). 37.50% of the prospective students also intend to pursue their studies in the same course. Most of the respondents are self funded (71.49% for the current students and 63.49% for alumni). Most of the prospective students on the other hand intend to source for scholarship/grant for their intended study (48.32%).

Findings and Discussions

Findings show that the Indonesian students form Malaysia's second highest foreign student enrolment (overtaken by Iranian students) in 2009. The MHE brand index score is 76.11 and 70.78, as perceived by Indonesian alumni and current Indonesian student sub-samples, respectively. This is considerably higher than the overall means of 71.69 and 68.30 perceived by *all* foreign students of MHEI's in aggregate. This indicates that MOHE should continue to prioritise Indonesia over other countries, as a leading source for foreign students for MHEI's. Also, Indonesian alumni ranked Malaysia third place as a preferred country to study abroad after the United States of America (USA) and United Kingdom (UK). For the performance of MHE, Indonesian alumni also gave a *higher* brand index score than what their counterparts currently studying here perceived. In fact, Indonesian alumni considered Malaysia's 'education systems' and the 'institution' dimension as the two most important brand dimensions. However, the Indonesian alumni perceived the 'country' dimension followed by the 'education systems' dimension and 'institution' dimension to be *performing better* than the 'personal aspects' items. But the 'institution' dimension is found to highly predict MHE brand equity among Indonesian alumni.

We found that the top ten (out of 55) attributes perceived by Indonesian alumni that favored Malaysia as their study destination, comprised seven 'country image' attributes. These seven attributes are namely, *free to practice any religion, conducive environment to study, safe place to study, value for money, affordable place to live*, *comfortable climate* and *politically stable*. The highest score in terms of country dimension for both current students and alumni are *free to practice any religion* with a mean of 5.28, followed by *conducive environment to study* (5.18). For the perceived performance on MHE institution among the current students, item '*many international students'* scored the highest with a mean of 5.16 followed '*highly qualified lecturers'* (5.02) and '*strong academic reputation'* (5.02). Indonesian alumni have slightly different perceived performances compared to current students. Among the most important items are '*conducive environment to study'* (5.71), '*reasonable tuition fee'* (5.61), '*many international students'* (5.61), '*accredited programme'* (5.56), '*marketable graduate'* (5.46) and '*good research infrastructure'* (5.44). This paper also discusses plausible reasons why the current Indonesian students and prospective students sampled in the survey, in contrast to the Indonesian alumni sampled, rated the 'education system' factor as higher than 'the country image' factor. We also found evidence suggesting that their favourable perception of our country brand improved after they have actually graduated and experienced the learning impact on their careers. However, to attract Indonesian students to study in Malaysia for the first time, 'personal aspects' and 'country' factors are the two most important dimensions to be highlighted. The findings also suggest that even among Indonesians, each market segment values different brand attributes. Target audiences should also be differentiated in MOHE's promotion of the MHE brand. At the strategic level, developing this country brand is proposed to comprise the four brand performance dimensions (institution, educational system, country, and personal aspects) already identified, plus infusing them on Islamic ethical values, to leverage on what Indonesians value in Malaysia as an Islamic country. This is vital for this strong differentiating element in our MHE country brand to be realised fully. Certainly this requires further detailed study on how to develop this unique brand that we can take great pride in. Details of our recommendations for MOHE's development and marketing of this unique brand, as well as future research suggestions, are included at the end of this paper.

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Do Generation Z Understand Brands Differently?
A Cross-Disciplinary Review

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Introduction

This paper focuses on the online experience of 'Generation Z' children, broadly defined as those born since 1995. This generation is often assumed to have a different orientation to the world to previous generations of children because of the degree of their engagement with digital, and especially online, communication media. Questions about the experience of this generation and how it influences their worldview and socialisation are important for social policy and brand strategy issues. This paper reviews literature from diverse disciplines to elaborate on this question and to generate insights which could inform future studies. The findings suggest that this generation of children have proved highly adaptive to a digital and online world in ways which have profound implications for their understanding of brands and branding. In particular, their experience of passing between the online and offline worlds in a fluid and seamless way means that they may develop different cognitive and social strategies to previous generations, and therefore need to be reached and understood in new ways.

The Experience of Generation Z

This study focuses on the group that marketing agencies often know as Generation Z. Other terms identifying this generation include The Post Millenials (Oblinger & Oblinger, 2005), The New Silent Generation (Saldik, 2007), Digital natives (Prensky, 2001), Generation M (Roberts et al., 2005), and the Net Generation (Tapscott, 2009) among many others. Researchers from various disciplines have tried to identify this age group and the characteristics that set it apart from the previous generations (Strauss & Howe, 2006; Lancaster & Stillman, 2003; Martin & Tullgan, 2001; Zemke et al 1999). The general consensus about this generation, is that it consists of those children born, roughly, from 1995 onwards (Saldik, 2007).

Recently, attention from social scientists, marketing and media agencies has been channelled to this generation since it is widely considered to be exposed to commercial and social influences which previous generations did not experience, at least not to the same degree (Berk, 2009). Specifically, Generation Z is the first generation of children to have access on a wide scale to online, interactive computer games in their own homes; they are said to be "born with a chip" (Berk, 2009; Abram and Luther, 2004). Not only this, but there is a sense that profound cultural shifts are being seen around the conduct and experience of this age group. For example, unlike earlier generations, they are considered by the marketing industry to have a high degree of autonomy as consumers (Ekström, 2007): they are regarded as having considerable influence in family consumer decision making (Thomson et al, 2007; Tinson & Nancarrow, 2005): they are more socially isolated in the sense that they have less autonomy than previous generations to play away from adult supervision out of doors (Weir et al, 2006) and therefore spend more time in their home playing on video and computer games and watching TV or communicating with friends via mobile devices (Burdette & Whitaker, 2005); finally, and importantly, their psychology may be different to previous generations because, since they interact so much with games or through virtual communication, they have a strong urge for immediate gratification: they are known as the 'now' kids (McNeal, 1999). This implies that Generation Z may have a different form of socialisation to previous generations and that their experience of life and responses to it may be different since their behaviours are framed within a social and technological environment which is, in some ways, distinctive to this generation (Ekström, 2007).

Many of these possibilities are not grounded in robust social research but are regarded as common knowledge in marketing trade press and popular psychology (e.g. "Kidfluence" Sutherland & Thomson, 2003; "Brandchild" Lindstorm & Seybold, 2003; "Born to Buy" Juliet Schor, 2004; etc). Nonetheless, they have wide credence even though it is difficult to support such assertions conclusively. What cannot be doubted is that knowledge about Generation Z is still relatively under-developed given the fact that they are the first generation to have online gaming as a regular part of their daily routine as a substitute for the traditional outdoor play (Weir et al, 2006). More speculatively, their ownership of mobile devices, access to the internet and the exposure to an influx of information from online and offline adult media (Gunter et al, 2005) seems to be different, and in particular more, than any previous generation.

Living in a Virtual World- a negative or positive influence?

Some educators have suggested that Generation Z has a shorter attention span, and there is some evidence that there is a rise in instances of ADHD and related developmental psychological conditions (Hill, 2006; Chan & Rabinowitz, 2006). It is a matter of speculation as to whether such conditions are related to the lifestyle of Generation Z. A first step would be to discover more about the subjective experience of Generation Z and in particular with regard to their virtual lives, by which is meant their online experiences of games, communication and consumerism. Not all the assumptions about Generation Z are negative. As Beastall (2008) states, this generation has an advanced relationship with technology. For example, according to Childwise, a leading UK research specialist on children and their families, in 2009, half of the UK children aged between 5 and 10 were reported to have mobile phones compared to 95% of those aged between 11 and 16, while all children in the UK aged between 5 and 16 have access to a PC at home, with half of them owning their own (Childwise Trend Report 2009). One in five children aged between 0 and 4 access the internet and 40% of these

use games consoles (Childwise, 2001). This access to digital technology has the effect of exposing children to brand communications on an unprecedented scale. Arguably, it may have the concomitant effect of empowering them as consumers.
Websites like Mickey Mouse Clubhouse, Club Penguin, and other Disney games are developed to appeal to the under 4s, beginning the process of consumerism. At least 37% of children aged between 5 and 16 have researched or bought products online (Greenfield, 2004). In the anecdotal experience of one of the authors, the true figure is probably far higher, given the use his children and their friends make of the internet as a source of purchasing information. So what we are currently facing is a digitally savvy generation who grew up with an influx of technology exposure that they tend to master at a much younger age than the previous generations. This phenomenon has resulted in the children being more commercially aware. In fact, they believe that they are smarter consumers than their elder counterparts (Haynes et al, 2002; Tinson & Nancarrow, 2005). Generation Z children have even been reported to have developed a cynical attitude towards advertising and they view it as a mean to be used, which they can control, for their own benefit (Childwise 2003). The influence that these technological advances have brought about to the world cannot be neglected. It has been argued that the PCs and the internet are playing a vital part in the shaping of today's children, evolving their knowledge and empowering them (Sutherland & Thompson, 2003). Previously, market researchers have assumed that children developed an understanding of the commercial intent of advertising at about age ten. This may be changing, although some marketing agencies may be exaggerating the self-awareness of Generation Z- witness the PhD agency's viral video warning the marketing industry of these precocious consumers[5], and, in particular, the sceptical comments that have been posted.

Generation Z and Brands

It is argued that Generation Z are acquiring extensive brand knowledge and forming strong brand preferences at a younger age than ever before (Achenreiner & John, 2003). It has been acknowledged that the "new" media, which refers mainly to the internet, has radically shaped children of generation Z's experience and understanding of brands and influenced the way they think and learn (Greenfield, 2004; Narin et al., 2008). Historically, this knowledge has been attained by direct experience of products and services which accrues over time (Achenreiner & John, 2003). Access to the internet has radically accelerated this process and detached it from direct product experience because of the presence of opinion-forming blogs and internet comment. What this means for brands, of course, is that engagement with brand presence on the internet and mobile media can result in a strong negative or positive preference being formed by a very early age, perhaps long before the ability to critically appraise commercial messages has developed.
Previous research has suggested that children go through a number of stages in their commercial awareness. They have been said to recognize brands as young as 3 or 4 years old (Chaplin & John, 2005; Derscheid et al., 1996), and to develop an evoked set of preferred brands within familiar product categories by age 7-8 (John, 1999). At a later stage of development, children's views on brands develop from being perceptual and concrete to being conceptual in that they start forming symbolic brand associations and linking the brand with their sense of self identity (Chaplin & John, 2005; Achenreiner & John, 2003). Generation Z's access to the internet and their subsequent accelerated development as consumers has meant that now children as young as 8 years old realize that having the right brands are the quickest way to acceptance by reference groups (Kantrowitz & Wingert, 1999; Chaplin & John, 2005; Lindstorm and Seybold, 2003). In their awareness of brand symbolism and its implications for self identity and group membership, Generation Z may be exhibiting commercial awareness that is more like that of adults.

Concluding comment

This research suggests tentatively that Generation Z childrens' online experience may be having the effect of making them more like adults in their understanding of and interaction with brands. This general trend may have some negative social consequences, such as the fracture of traditional family power relations (McDermott et al, 2006; Ekström, 2007) asw children become more asserting consumers. From a brand management perspective, it is important to better understand both the positive and less positive changes in childrens' socialisation in order to address the new order of children's online experience and brand consciousness.

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Plenary Session 2

Brand Performance: The Coalescence of Consumer Choices & Institutional Structures

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Brand Performance: The Coalescence of Consumer Choices & Institutional Structures

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Abstract

Brand performance is routinely described in terms of measures of brand size, loyalty and switching (i.e. Brand Performance Measures or BPMs) (Ehrenberg, Uncles & Goodhardt 2004). BPMs describe predictable patterns of buyer behaviour and market structures. Supporting evidence for these claims has been available for Western markets for several decades and now exists for emergent markets such as urban China (Uncles & Kwok 2008, 2009; Uncles, Wang & Kwok 2010). The conclusion is drawn that patterns of buyer behaviour and the structure of markets are uncannily similar across product markets and countries. The purpose here is to examine why these conclusions hold true and then draw implications for our understanding of brand management.

As conventionally portrayed, brand success is seen as the outcome of the aggregation of consumer choices. Individual consumers strive to maximise utility by choosing those brands whose attributes and features best meet their needs. The exercise of consumer free-will is of the upmost significance in this process of seeking to maximise utility. The consumer-focus in marketing emphasises and reinforces this viewpoint (as with the notion of Consumer-Based Brand Equity or CBBE) (Keller 2008). But, in practice, consumer choice is constrained by both consumer characteristics (e.g. purchasing power) and the institutional structures in which brands are embedded and operate (e.g. retail and regulatory systems). Arguably, insufficient attention has been paid to institutional structures as influences on, and shapers of, brand performance.

A further consideration is the evolution of consumer choice and institutional structures. For instance, there is much discussion about the way digital technologies and social media enable consumers to exercise choice in novel ways. But these developments need to be considered against changing institutional landscapes. In established markets, waves of de-regulation, liberalisation and privatisation have had profound implications for the way brands are presented to consumers, including an impact on the capacity of consumers to adopt and use digital technologies and social media. In emerging markets institutional changes have been even more dramatic; noticeably the rapid growth of marketing infrastructures (e.g. MNC retailers, advertising agencies and research companies) and the proliferation of consumer-brand touch-points (Wang 2008).

With greater attention being paid to the nature and evolution of institutional structures it becomes much easier to understand the realities of brand performance than if the focus is simply on the choices of free-willed consumers. Similarities across product markets and countries are explicable as much because of converging marketing infrastructures as because of any realignment of consumer choices. This inference is particularly significant in the context of understanding buyer behaviour and market structures in emergent markets.

The unfolding story of brands in China provides a pertinent example. Consumers are now faced with an array of branded goods and services that was inconceivable before the era of Economic Reform. Highly visible signs of consumers exercising choice are to be seen throughout urban China and, to a lesser extent, in the hinterland. But these changes have not occurred in a structural vacuum (Tacconelli & Wrigley 2009; Uncles 2009). When the non-branded world of traditional wet markets is replaced by the heavily-branded world of Lianhua and Hualian supermarkets and Carrefour and Wal-Mart superstores we see the coming together of forces of urban renewal, market development, marketing infrastructures and consumer choice. It is only with an appreciation of this coalesce that the realities of brand performance become explicable.

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Session 7.1

Brand Management Framework
Empirical study of the UK Pharmaceutical Industry

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Coneptualising Branding in Indian Pharma Sector

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A Practice Approach to Implementing a Corporate Brand in Multinational Corporations

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"There was a Cockroach in my Room" – an Analysis of Customer Feedback on Hotel Booking Websites as an Example of Co-creation of Meaning

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The role of branding in the commercial success of the organization varies from industry to industry. Brand is every aspect of the product/service that provides an identity in the market place. The fundamental competitiveness of the business depends on its identification among the competitive alternatives. In the pharmaceutical industry brand is the identity of the medicine but the market performance of the medicine and result effectiveness is based on the research & development (R & D) quality. In many other industries R&D plays a support role in the commercial success while branding and promotion of brands is primary source of profitability. The aim of this research is to explore the comparative prioritization in the allocation of financial resources for R&D and Branding/promotion activities. The focus of the research is on the empirical study for the brand development, financial valuation, legal protection and management of Brands in the pharmaceutical sector.

The adopted research philosophy for this project is based on Realism; the selected approach for studying the role of branding in the commercial success is linked with mixed theoretical approach deduction and induction. The selected research strategy is an empirical investigation; furthermore the collection of the data is through audited annual financial reports. Analysis and interpretation of the financial data and market share is analysed from quantitative aspects to propose a model of Brand Management. The devised research methodology is considerate to the tenacity, authoritativeness, and authenticity of knowledge in regard of the research conducted within the domain of marketing management.

In the pharmaceutical industry the anticipated knowledge for brand managers and practitioner's demands in depth awareness of intellectual property rights (IPR).The development of IPR is a result of the organizational efforts on R&D initiatives. The proposed model for the brand management "Brand Management Framework" incorporates this demand along with the consideration of financial outcome of the branding/promotional activities. The proposed model of this research depicts an approach for the management of brands by taking in account, the market perception/performance, financial measurement and legal protection through Intellectual property rights (IPR).

The brand management framework is the proposed model for this research project. The structure of this model is not presenting a newly developed ground breaking development. Rather this model of brand management attempt to manage the corporate brand portfolio with the inclusion of measuring financial returns on branding and R&D pipeline (IPR).

Measuring financial return on marketing and branding is a significant aspect of brand management. The importance of measuring financial returns on branding is an important component of this brand management framework. Financial statements present the past or present performance of the organization in a sense of totality. Based on the financial figures the brand managers can use this in forecasting the future financial investment for the advertising and promotion of brands in the market to build or extend brand performance. The allocation of resources to further support the R&D pipeline can also be based on the financial or commercial performance. The overall long term performance of the brands is not just based on the advertising and promotion; rather it is more dependent on the R&D investment by the company on the improvement or development of new products/medicines. It is evident that the best performing brands invest significant proportion of revenues of R&D initiatives. This further includes discovering new chemical entities (NCE) in the pharmaceutical sector and using these NCE in the drug manufacturing. It is important to note that IPR includes patents , that are applicable to the discovery of new engineered development, copy rights that are applicable to the marketing and other promotional literature related with the product, design law that are applicable to the process design and trademarks , the legal word to demonstrate branding. R&D requires IPR protection in the marketplace to capitalize the investment initiatives on innovation.

In the pharmaceutical industry the brand is the name or identity of the medicine. For patented medicine the brand is legally protected through intellectual property rights (IPR). A patent is awarded for a specific medicine if the new chemical entity (NCE) is discovered by the manufacturer. The duration of the patent life depends on the nature of the NCE that formulates the medicine. When the patented life of the NCE expires the competing firms are allowed to manufacture the medicine. This opens the competition through generic medicine. A generic medicine is a medicine for which no patent is provided to any manufacturer. In the short term scenario the patent holder doesn't require to build a brand but in the long run, when the patent expires, it is the brand name that boosts the sale and protects the market share for the medicine. Leading organizations in the medicine trade, sell the license for manufacturing when the patent is about to expire. The valuation of the brand is one of the key concerns when these transactions for the sale of the patent are initiated. Due to very high degree of regularity in the medicine trade, the anticipated sales of a particular brand are available through the prescription databases maintained by the healthcare system. In the UK pharmaceutical scenario the medicine manufacturers are not allowed to promote the products as openly as it is in the USA or in other capitalistic free markets. The communication about medicine and the availability of the prescription medicine is fully controlled by the department of Health and other regulatory bodies.

The process of building and managing brands in the pharmaceutical sector is a bit different to many other trades. If compared with the fashion industry, the patents are not protecting for 15 to 20 years. While in the pharmaceutical industry the patent protection usually last in between 12 to 20 years, depending upon the individual patent case in its own detail. Despite this fact, the pharmaceutical companies spend considerable amount of their sales revenues on building and promotion of brands. One of the key logic behind this is the fact that the life of patent is 20 years (maximum) while the life of a developed brand is much more than this. For Instance Listerine is a brand of Pfizer, it is not patented but due to the brand name it is one of the star selling products for Pfizer. This means that the significance of branding in the pharmaceutical sector remains as high as in any other sector. These observations are the empirical realism as it contains logical defence through financial data while it is also considerate to the environment of the market. The Proposed Brand Management Framework is a model that proposes the development and management of brands with the inclusion of financial measurement and R&D activities.

Branding is one of the key responsibilities for the marketing function. It is a responsibility of the marketing department to develop and manage the brands of the products/services and the organization. The identity of the products/services is called product brand while the identity of the organization is called corporate brand. In an overall philosophical sense brand is the trust of the consumer about the product and manufacturer regarding the quality and its overall sense of deliverable function. The initial contact between the consumer and the product is brand the functional performance will come after the brand is purchased.

Brand Development and brand management are interconnected terms but somewhat different to each other. Brand development refers to the creation and development of brand in a market. This is an initial work of development. Brand management is a much more broad term that includes the promotional, extension, expansion, diversification, enrichment, harvest and divestment of the brand. Brand management framework is a proposed model for the development and management of brands. The new contribution of this model is the inclusion of financial measures, Intellectual property rights, R&D initiatives, and core of brand performance for managing a corporate brand portfolio.

The foundation for the proposed hypothesize is based on financial measures. For public limited companies the audited annual accounts and financial statements are the most credible source for financial data. This is even more authentic than primary collection of data through interviews. The reason is the legal obligations placed on the corporations by the financial regulatory authorities to declare the accurate information about the financial conditions of the business. The use of secondary data is fully justified in this research project. In a case where hypothesis are based on measuring the brand perception of consumers than the primary collection of data through questionnaires would be of more significant value. The testing of data in this research project is through quantitative data analysis to deal with the hypothetical options. The data analysis is according to the hypothesis requirement. The statistical data analysis for determine the comparative brand equity requires more in depth application of the statistical tools. For this research project the hypothesis are aimed at finding the significance of marketing expenditures, R&D expenditures and proportional of intangible assets on the overall commercial performance of an enterprise. The findings are used in the development of brand management framework as a model for developing and managing the corporate brand portfolio.

The epistemological stance for this research is towards realism philosophy. Realism has the inclusion of logical thinking along with the viewpoint that environment is an important issue to consider that effects the situation and circumstances. The use of theory is based on mixed methods that include deduction with induction. The hypothesis is developed by reviewing the existing theoretical literature and revised by the research findings to present the brand management framework. This outcome of this research is a proposed model with the empirical observation in the pharmaceutical sector. This is a case of mixed approach on the account of deduction and induction. The Research strategy is based on the empirical study of the Pharmaceutical industry. The analysis of data collected from secondary sources is from quantitative perspective. The adopted research methodology is in reflection of the aims, questions, hypothesis and the involved variables for this research project.

Key words: *Branding, Brand management framework, Brand Performance, Brand Equity, Financial measurement of brands, Intellectual property rights (IPR), Research& Development (R&D) pipelines, corporate brand portfolio, UK Pharmaceutical industry.*

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Coneptualising Branding in Indian Pharma Sector

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Introduction

Since marketing is a complex, competitive phenomenon, influenced by culture, business environment, consumer behavior and other factors, a standardised global approach of branding may not always be applicable for a brand's local competitiveness. The role of global marketing and maximising products' commercial and therapeutic value to increase branding and efficiency are still limited to pharmaceutical companies (Delagneau, 2004).

Branding appears to be a tool that can differentiate between the products. But, in the pharmaceutical industry, marketers believe that a product will become a brand by simply giving it a name. The major assets of a pharma company are its products and companies invest heavily on them. Although there is a lack of focus on brands in pharma industry, according to Schuiling and Moss (2004), a pharmaceutical product has all the elements to become an effective brand. It possesses different tangibles and intangible benefits in consumers' minds, e.g. apart from efficacy (tangible), it also offers additional values such as trust (intangible) (Moss, 2007).

The research addresses (1) how the concept of branding itself exists in Indian pharmaceutical sector and (2) to identify how this branding technique might be modified to optimise the benefit the marketing of branded generics in India. The study was conducted using qualitative interviews with two sets of respondents in Kolkata city, India- first, senior managers of five renowned pharmaceutical companies of India and second, physicians of different categories. This research will be based on branded generic drugs, since Indian pharma companies have been marketing generics or off-patent drugs as branded generics. Most of the big pharma brands in India are branded generics. These branded generics are usually given a brand name but the trend in the generic name is primarily focused as a brand name (Sharma, Kumar, Pahwa, & Sharma, 2009).

Background Study and Literature Review

a) The Pharmaceutical Industry and Indian Pharmaceutical Industry

The Indian pharmaceutical industry has shown excellent progress in terms of infrastructure development, technology base and product use. It has shown domestic sales of US $ 4 billion and exports of over US $ 3 billion, during the fiscal year 2004-05, according to the Economic Survey 2004-05. The industry produces bulk drugs belonging to all major therapeutic groups requiring complicated manufacturing processes and has developed good manufacturing practices (GMP) compliant facilities for the production of different dosage forms (Ghatak, 2008).

In developed countries, generics are those drugs which do not have patent protection and the originator brand's competitors can copy them without facing any legal problems. In India, very few drugs are patent-protected and most of the drugs are 'generic' as per international standard. However, Indian pharmaceutical companies have been marketing these generics drugs as branded generics by giving different proprietary names. Most of the big pharma brands in India are branded generics.
The Indian pharma market still has a number of pharma brands, including products for many whose patents have expired and yet the branded drug is being sold. Most of these medicines are innovative products developed after extensive R & D. There are very few Indian brands available in highly regulated markets, mainly in the US.

b) Pharmaceutical Branding

Psychological theories allow us to show how trust in brands develops in the minds of the consumers over time. The concept of trust is very relevant to symbolic brands, having high involvement because of high perceptions of purchase risk (Elliot & Percy, 2007). Symbolic brands with high perceived risk essentially need to provide trust that can be achieved by developing perceptions of "consumer-brand intimacy and emotional investment" (Elliot & Percy, 2007). Since pharma product brands are trusted and physicians and patients have their faith, brands add a greater sense of purpose to the medication (Lim, Melewar, & Sorensen, 2010).

Pharmaceutical companies have not worked proactively in identifying a branding strategy that includes brand identity for their product brands. In course of time the brand image has been created by itself (Moss, 2007). Branding of prescription drugs has often been perceived as giving a convenient name of a product. But in fact, building a clearly communicated brand gives differential advantage in crowded therapy areas necessarily because physicians need those resources for their decision making process (Moss, 2007). This, in turn, increases the sustainable competitive advantage. According to Corstjens and Carpenter (2000), competition is increasing between drugs. To achieve a competitive advantage in this highly complex arena, comprehensive branding strategy is absolutely necessary.

In India, because of the highly fragmented nature of the pharma market and presence of a huge number of items in a particular drug category, necessity of a sustained branding process is evident. It is true that there are signs of presence of high value pharmaceutical product brands in the Indian market but if we look at the top five Indian brands, we will find that no brand has even crossed the Rs.500 crore (US$ 112 million) figure when it comes to annual sales revenue. But the pharmaceutical industry has grown at the rate of 5.5% over 2008.

c) Corporate Branding in Pharmaceuticals

According to Schroff (2003), since pharmaceutical industry is currently maintaining a bad image, pharmaceutical corporate branding is likely to be non-beneficial. He has also clarified that a patient will rarely ask the physician about the drug manufacturer and its record of providing safety and efficacy. But, the value of corporate brand is expected to increase by ethical performance, value maintenance and high credibility along with product quality and R & D (Bednarik, 2005). A strong product brand can be leveraged when launching new product brands globally by projecting heritage and relevant therapeutic efficacy (Moss, 2007).

To the best of the knowledge of the authors, no scholarly article has yet been published which explains the concept and necessity of any comprehensive branding strategy in Indian pharmaceutical industry. The present study is expected to narrow this gap.

Research Methodology

The study was conducted using qualitative interviews with two sets of respondents in Kolkata city, India- first, senior managers of five renowned pharmaceutical companies of India and second, physicians of different categories. We interviewed 20 managers and 20 physicians of different categories. This research work will be based on branded generic drugs, since Indian pharma companies have been marketing generics or off-patent drugs as branded generics.

In their scholarly article of establishing clinical trial in pharmaceuticals as a branding opportunity, Lim et al. (2010) has used qualitative research design emphasising on five different areas. Along the similar line, in this particular study, researchers have prepared the questionnaire consisting of three areas out of five discussed by Lim et al. (2010). These are (a) importance of product branding, (b) importance of corporate branding and (c) importance of opinion leaders as communicators of brand. The present researchers have included two other under researched area in pharma branding, i.e. (d) importance of customers' perceptions and need achievement and (e) importance of pharma brand age in brand awareness.

During this research work, no objective of quantification of data was made, but observational technique was used to gather opinions of the respondents to fulfil research objectives.

Major Findings

a) Importance of product branding

When the statements in favour of product branding strategy in pharmaceuticals along with relevant examples were put before the respondents, all members of the two groups agreed with the statements. It is noteworthy that physicians took a special interest in this regard.

b) Importance of corporate branding

Corporate image and branding strategy may be considered as an effective branding strategy in pharmaceutical market. Most of the respondents agreed with the fact that corporate branding was important but three physicians. They opined that product branding was more important than corporate branding, as they considered that giving extra emphasis to corporate would not make any special difference with their prescription support.

c) Importance of opinion leaders as communicators of brand

It is well established that pharmaceutical companies direct their new drugs promotions at the most influential physicians first - the 'thought leaders' in the profession; if they are persuaded, their opinions have an impact upon the new product's acceptance by others in the field. Thus opinion leaders extend the influence of the mass media. Respondents, especially managers fully agreed with this statement. Five physicians commented that they had trust and faith in their opinion but they did not depend on opinion leaders' assurance in efficacy and/or tolerability of particular drugs.

d) Importance of customers' perceptions and need achievement

In this item customer's perception about a pharma brand has been explained through brand personality traits. We have argued that effective market segmentation and communication strategies would be possible if brand personality characteristics could be zeroed upon with specific pharmaceutical market traits and other individual physician's psychometric characteristics. We have pointed out that need fulfillment by a brand depend on the relationship between brand and consumer personality and understanding the relationships between brand and consumer personality would prove most important, as personality constructs, are considered stable over a longer period of time. All respondents agreed with the statements given by us in this regard.

e) Importance of pharma brand age in brand awareness

It is a fact that more the brand becomes mature more increases the awareness of the brand among the consumers. All respondents agreed that pharma brand age is definitely responsible for better brand awareness, but to make it fulfilled, proper marketing communication is necessary.

Conclusion

We have thus received information on different aspects of branding in Indian perspective. It becomes evident that the concept of branding itself exists in Indian pharmaceutical sector but in a premature stage. All respondents agreed with our statements that marketers must be more cautious and focused in product branding and corporate branding. Since Indian pharma market is mainly dealing with branded generics and very high degree of fragmentation exists in this industry, modification of branding techniques becomes highly necessary. In identifying the ways to modify branding techniques to optimise the benefit the marketing of branded generics in India, it has been observed that respondents accepted the proposal of brand personality and related segmentation and positioning technique, which is equally applicable to understand the relationship between brand age and brand awareness. Opinion leaders enhance the brand values and disseminate the communication mix to different levels. We shall finally develop a strategic business model incorporating the relationship between different traits discussed here and consumer aspirations to define a comprehensive branding strategy in Indian pharmaceutical sector.

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A Practice Approach to Implementing a Corporate Brand in Multinational Corporations

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'Corporate branding is one of those things that everyone believes is important, yet there is very little consensus as to what it means' stated Nicholas Ind in 1997 (Ind, 1997, p. 2). Even today this seems to be the case (cf. Mukherjee & Balmer, 2008). It is still unclear how to effectively develop and use corporate brands (Kay, 2006), and how to manage them in an international context (cf. Wong & Merrilees, 2007). Despite the growing consensus about the benefits of corporate brand management, there is still considerable uncertainty of what it means in practice, and how the phenomenon should be studied (Knox & Bickerton, 2003).

Corporate branding refers to the process of constructing and implementing a corporate brand. It involves communicating the uniqueness of the company in a coherent way to all stakeholders (cf. Mukherjee & Balmer, 2008) upon which the organisation's success is dependent (Cornelissen, 2004). It is a systematically planned and implemented process of creating and maintaining coherent corporate images and a favorable reputation of the company in the minds of its stakeholders by managing behavior, communication and symbolism (Einwiller & Will, 2002). As a separate managerial process, it involves the whole organization and requires the company to consider what it stands for (the values and identity of the company), what it aims at (the strategic vision and objectives) and how to communicate them in a coherent way (cf. Mukherjee & Balmer, 2008). At the same time, corporate branding is a continuous process, which takes into consideration the fact that the meaning of the brand as interpreted by different stakeholders evolves constantly as a result of the organization's own activities as well as those of competing brands (Leitch & Richardson, 2003).

For a multinational company (MNC) corporate branding involves decisions, for instance, on the 'exportability' of the brand essence (i.e. the core meaning) across cultural and national boarders (see Cayla & Arnoud, 2008) as well as on the need for standardisation/adaptation of activities, practices and processes (cf. Gabrielsson & Gabrielsson, 2004; Van Raaij, 1997). In many cases, the structure of a multinational company is complex and multi-layered, and operations of the company may cover several business lines, time zones and cultures (e.g. Argenti & Haley, 2007). This makes the managerial challenge of implementing a corporate brand very demanding. Varying interests of head office and subsidiary managers (e.g. Clark & Geppert, 2010; Ghoshal & Bartlett, 1990), and differences in organisational cultures and identities between units, especially if the MNC has grown considerably through mergers and acquisitions, complicate the task even further.

The existing corporate brand management models (e.g. Knox & Bickerton, 2003; de Chernatony, 2001; Aaker, 1996) follow the dominant models of implementing strategy. These models are based on a rational approach, according to which the process of constructing a strategy proceeds in a linear manner from planning to implementation (Vaara & Laine, 2007; see also Barrett, Thomas & Hocevar, 1995). They regard managers as the primary creators of strategy (Vaara & Laine, 2007) and assume that managers are capable of achieving rational adaptation to the environmental demands for change (Barrett et al., 1995). Lately, this planning- and implementation-oriented view of 'strategy' has been criticised for neglecting the social, cultural and political aspects of strategising, for conceptualising strategy work 'as teleological activity where intentions guide organisational action', for not being able to distinguish between the level of ideas and talk and the level of action and practice (i.e. organisational reality) in strategising, etc. (see Vaara, Kleymann, & Seristö, 2004). These models also fail to capture the ongoing nature of corporate branding process and the fact that corporate brand is being constantly constructed and reconstructed in the everyday interactions between the organisation's internal and external stakeholders.

In this paper, an alternative approach to corporate brand implementation in multinational corporations is proposed, an approach drawing upon practice research (e.g. Jarzabkowski, 2005; Johnson et al., 2003; Whittington, 2003) as well as literature on organisational learning in international contexts (Becker-Ritterspach, Saka-Helmhout & Hotho, 2010; Saka-Helmhout, 2010). It is believed that analyzing corporate branding from a practice perspective provides better insights into the critical issues within the branding process, which influence the MNC's ability to implement its corporate brand, and to communicate the brand promise to external stakeholders.

The practice approach conceptualises strategy as being constituted by the micro-level social practices, that is, the actual, everyday work that people do within the organisational processes (Whittington, 2003). According to this perspective, strategy is not just something organisations have (i.e. organisational property), but essentially something that people do (e.g. Whittington, 2006; Jarzabkowski, 2004) highlighting the influence of *human agency* in the construction and enactment of strategy (Jarzabkowski, Balogun, & Seidl, 2007). From this perspective, the process of constructing and implementing a corporate brand in an MNC can be seen as *an ongoing, goal-oriented and socially accomplished activity* (cf. Jarzabkowski et al., 2007). Within this process, brand meaning is being constructed, maintained and reconstructed in people's relatedness with each other (Barrett et al., 1995). Accordingly, the focus turns to various communicative activities and established practices and procedures, by which the meaning of the corporate brand is mediated within and across different cultural and institutional boundaries to the personnel of an MNC (see Jarzabkowski, 2005 for a typology of strategising practices).

Concentrating on the actual practices and routines in bringing about a desired change gets support also from the literature on organisational learning in international contexts. Saka-Helmhout (2010) conceptualises organisational learning in international contexts as consisting of two dimensions: i) the acquisition of knowledge and ii) the enactment of knowledge. According to this perspective, organisational learning should be manifested in a perceivable change in the actual routines taking place in a particular context, instead of being a matter of pure knowledge transfer (Saka-Helmhout, 2010). Hence, the brand needs to be enacted (Arvidsson, 2005) in order to stay alive. Through the enactment of the brand it also becomes contextualised and embedded in different cultural and institutional settings of an MNC (cf. Saka-Helmhout, 2010). Hence, practices communicating the brand essence need to be translated to the local languages and meaning systems of different subsidiaries, in order for them to become accepted and institutionalised among local actors (Becker-Ritterspach et al., 2010).

Despite the distributed nature of corporate brand strategising, managers hold a central place in guiding organisational activity towards the desired goals (Jarzabkowski, 2005). However, to succeed in transferring certain practices requires also active participation of the local actors, who act as translators of the 'global practices', and in that way assist in integrating the new practices into their particular social context (Becker-Ritterspach et al., 2010). It is only through the enactment of the desired practices that the brand essence becomes embedded in the every-day activities of employees in different parts of an MNC.

To conclude, the transfer of brand meaning in multinational corporations should be seen not only as a communication process through which the personnel is to acknowledge and internalise the proposed brand meaning and values[6], but also, and perhaps more essentially, as a process of aligning the prevailing practices and routines with the essence of the corporate brand, and contextualising them in foreign subsidiaries with the help of local actors. Values and meanings ascribed to the brand are strongly influenced by the meaning-making context (Pike, 2009; see also Kay, 2006), and hence, by integrating the brand in the local practices and routines it is more likely that the local actors are able to develop desired interpretations of the brand and to communicate the brand essence to external stakeholders.

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[6] The extent to which a centrally 'dictated' brand meaning even can be transferred has been strongly questioned in recent literature (see e.g. Schröder 2009; Holt 2002).

"There was a Cockroach in my Room" – an Analysis of Customer Feedback on Hotel Booking Websites as an Example of Co-creation of Meaning

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Introduction

The tourism industry has undergone fundamental changes in the way that customers obtain information and the way that they book their holidays. Providing information about destinations, flights and hotels via the Internet is now considered standard practice. Most hotels have a website that promotes their property and provides information about the amenities that are offered, in most cases augmented by the display of photos, downloadable brochures and videos. The accommodation providers range from multinationals to SMEs and micro businesses. Branding and reputation can be considered a key resource for SMEs (Abimbola & Kocak, 2007). Most hotel sites offer customers also the possibility to book online and to communicate via email. Customers have relied in their decision making on the reputation of the hotel brand, on the information that hotels provide and some reviews that may have been undertaken by third parties such as travel guidebooks like the Michelin guide books or Lonely Planet.

Purpose of the Paper

The paper shows how the emergence of Web2.0 has changed the nature of the interaction between hotels and consumers and explores how word of mouth is amplified via new intermediaries. Consumers are now able to not only communicate via email with tourism providers but are able to share views and experiences with other consumers via Twitter and Facebook. Consumers now trust their peers more than they do trust the information provided by corporations. The increasing amount of user-generated content in marketing websites changes the way that decisions are made and in this context the impact of trust buyer-seller relationship has been discussed in marketing as well as in organisational studies (Chang & Chen, 2008; Ganesan & Hess, 1997; Kim, Chung, & Lee, 2010; Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Zhu & Zhang, 2010). The expectation of customers is that information provided by peers is more trustworthy. A study by Forrester Research showed that reviews/ratings are considered to have the highest share of influence (32%) followed by discussion forums (29%), blog comments (24%) and blog posts (16%). Facebook is considered to have the highest share of influence (62%) of all social networking sites (Forrester Research, 2010).
Word of mouth has long been considered one of the most trusted sources of information and marketers in the hospitality and tourism management sector are looking at strategies to manage and influence user-generated content social media as part of integrated marketing communication strategies (Litvin, Goldsmith, & Pan, 2008; McConnell & Huba, 2007; Xiang & Gretzel, 2010).

Consumers are increasingly looking for information to aid decision making from their peers and no longer rely on promotional material provided by the company. This changing behaviour is having an impact of how customers are targeted depending on their engagement within social networks (Nielsen, 2009). Shao (2009) examines the appeal of user generated media and concludes that consumers perceive as one of the core benefits the obtaining of information, but also points out that there is an element of entertainment included in the experience while consumers engage in blogging, twitting, document sharing and posting of information. All these Internet activities enable consumers to obtain a collective intelligence (Litvin et al., 2008). While individual comments may be somewhat helpful the sum of the comments provides a broad spectrum of opinions, aided by information about the provider of the feedback. Different sites provide varying background information on the contributors, categorised as business traveller, couples, families with children and country of origin of the traveller. The rapid growth of hotel feedback sites is increasingly important in international hotel marketing, as potential visitors are more and more using these web-sites as their main source of information (Buhalis, 2003).
Positive comments tend to be viewed by customers as more helpful when compared to negative comments when deciding to book accommodation (Black & Kelley, 2009). The expertise of the reviewer, familiarity with the hotel brand and the sentiment of the review (positive or negative in nature) referred to by Vermeulen and Seegers (2009) as review valence have been shown in an experimental study to have an influence on consumer choices, which is not surprising, but the interesting fact was that both positive and negative reviews had an influence on consumers considering a particular hotel (Vermeulen & Seegers, 2009). There is some evidence that shows the impact of customer feedback on room occupancy rates which has been explored in a regression model of a Chinese travel site by Ye, Law and Gu (2009). The study showed that positive feedback had a positive impact on room sales, which again could be expected. However the study did not have access to actual room sales data, but provides, by using proxies, some interesting insights into the effects of online feedback on hotel bookings.

A number of studies (Bonn, Furr, & Susskind, 1998; Weber & Roehl, 1999) examined the demographic characteristics of online booking customers and they found that online customers have higher education levels and are between 25 and 55 years of age. This finding has been supported by data obtained from Alexa.com in 2010. Murphy et al. have been one of the early researchers that examined the factors that were more likely to lead to bookings on online hotel booking sites (Murphy, Forrest, Wotring, & Byrmer, 1996). Kim and Kim (2004) investigated the factors that make online

booking attractive in greater detail. Yoon conducted an experimental study that explored factors such as navigation and layout and its impact on satisfaction (Yoon, 2002).
The emergence of web-based hotel ratings has introduced new intermediaries in the tourism industry. Internet sites such as Tripadvisor.com, Hotels.com, Wotif.com.au, Expedia.com and others provide information mainly sourced from the hotel operators and now in increasing numbers ratings and comments from people who have stayed at the hotels. Hotels are adjusting their marketing to take account of this new situation. An example of this is the decision by the Accor Group, owners of well known brands such as Novotel and Mercure, to provide a link on their website to allow customers to access feedback from Tripadvisor conveniently. This offers the aided advantage that customers do not need to switch to the Tripadvisor site in order to get the comments, with the risk that the potential customer may be enticed to look at offerings from other hotels. The emergence ofOther initiatives are linked to social online-networks such as Twitter.com, Youtube.com and Facebook.com with both hotel booking sites and hotels developing corporate sites on these social networking sites to engage with customers. Prahalad introduced the concept of co-creation of value and meaning, which outlines how brands and products are no longer solely created by organisations, but in a symbiotic process between customers and providers (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004). In this paper we show how this symbiotic relationship is developing in the tourism industry.

Design/Methodology

In order to determine the most popular sites for hotel feedback we have used two different methods. The first one was to look at Google rankings for hotel booking sites. We used two search words, hotel ranking and hotel rating, and used both singular and plural for those. This list included both sponsored research results as well as natural results. Based on this list we used the web analysis tool Alexa to determine which sites were the most popular and most visited ones. Alexa provides, based on web crawls and user installed toolbars, the ability to assess the popularity of websites (alexa.com). We complemented this data with data obtained from Experian Hitwise (hitwise.com).
Alexa also provides information about the kind of traffic that the sites receive and we have incorporated this information in our research.
We then examined those companies further and looked at their ownership structure, annual reports and financial data, using the MINT Global database (mintglobal.bvdep.com). We decided to explore the five most popular sites, Tripadvisor.com, Expedia.com, Priceline.com, Bookings.com and Orbitz.com in detail and analysed the top 5 rated hotels in Sydney on all five sites. We chose for each hotel the most recent 50 comments, as research suggests that customers rarely view comments beyond the first 3 pages (Pavlou & Dimoka, 2006). For this reason we deemed it best to concentrate on more recent comments, which the systems lists first (no older than 6 months), to provide a fair comparison.

We then analysed those comments using an analysis tool called Leximancer that enables us to perform a conceptual text analysis. We modelled on content analysis and seeded concept classifiers (Smith, 2003; Smith & Humphreys, 2006) to look at themes that were either specific to each hotel, or those that were universal and seemed important in the sum of feedback to provide an insight into the nature of comments by customers. Using software to identify the themes is a less subjective process than relying on human judgement and thus avoids the temptation by the coder to overrate some comments that trigger a strong emotional response, such as the presence of cockroaches in a hotel room.

Results

The Leximancer analysis has revealed the key themes that contribute to positive and negative reviews. We hypothesise that conventions are emerging in terms of who can rate, what items are rated and how the process will be moderated to weed out fraud. Other industry sectors will benefit from these developments to enable them to provide robust feedback to customers.

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Session 7.2

Brand Personification and Consumer Personality: what is the relationship?

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**Importance of Country Image to Mega-event Sponsorship Brands:
Comparison of Vancouver Winter Olympics and South Africa FIFA World Cup**

John Nadeau, Nipissing University, Canada
Louise Heslop, Carleton University, Canada
Norm O’Reilly, University of Ottawa, Canada
Sonja Verwey, University of Johannesburg, South Africa
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To be Similar or Unique? Implications for Strategic Reference Groups

Rumina Dhalla, University of Guelph, Canada

Sense-Based Innovation And Brand Strategy: The Role Of Meanings And Relations

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Marco Paiola, University of Padua, Italy

Brand Personification and Consumer Personality: what is the relationship?

By Mike Bastin, Visiting Professor, China Agriculture University

This paper builds on previous work in the area of brand personality and personification by investigating any possible relationship between the consumer's personality and their perception of brand personification.

The brand personality and personification literature is reviewed in full, revealing little research into the reasons or causes behind consumer perception of these constructs. The hypothesis here, therefore, is that consumer personality is a major reason behind any perception of brand personality/personification.

The personality literature was, therefore, also reviewed in full. Given the fact that this is initial research into the relationship between consumer personality and brand personality/personification, the trait approach was chosen as the most suitable approach to personality measurement. Furthermore, a Chinese personality trait measurement test, Qingnian Zhongguo Personality Test (QZPS) was selected, given that Chinese university students were sampled.

A total of 101 Chinese university students took part in this research, all from a well known Chinese university.

A suitable time took place between sampling for personality measurement, using the QZPS scale, and sampling for brand personification, in an attempt to mask the intention of the research.

Analysis of research findings provide statistically significant evidence that consumer personality does indeed influence perception of brand personality/ personification. Moreover, certain personality traits appear to carry significantly more influence than others.

Finally, the paper provides detailed implications for further work in this area and brand building and positioning.

Importance of Country Image to Mega-event Sponsorship Brands: Comparison of Vancouver Winter Olympics and South Africa FIFA World Cup

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Introduction

Mega-events are an elite category of events that are characterized by the extraordinarily large presence, reach and audience of the event (Florek, Breitbarth and Conejo, 2008). For corporate sponsor/marketers they represent a communications channel to broadly engage customers and potential customers on the values and meanings of their brands. Indeed, mega-events sponsorship revenues indicate the perceived marketing value of the opportunity. For example, the Vancouver 2010 Winter Olympics generated CDN$756 million in sponsorship revenues (Seguin et al., 2010).

Beyond the sheer size and reach of mega-events, they are often described in the context of their host country. The rotational hosting nature of many of these events (e.g. Olympic Games, FIFA World Cup, Commonwealth Games, etc.) means that different countries create the backdrop for the event itself. A leading motivation for host locations is to enhance the image of the country at home and abroad (Heslop et al. 2010). While the views of residents of the host country towards mega-events have been investigated previously, little research appears to examine resident views at the intersection of host country, mega-events and sponsor images.

Attribution theory provides an explanation as to how people draw inferences about an actor based on character or situational information (Kelley and Michela, 1980). This theory can be applied to understand the evaluations that people make about an event based on their views of the host country and its people, even in the absence of direct or substantive experiences (e.g. stereotypes). Indeed, character-based information is often favoured over circumstance in influencing behaviour (Heine and Buchtel, 2009).

The purpose of this paper is to compare the pattern of relationships among the images that host country residents hold about the host country, the mega-event and a major sponsor for the event in the context of two different mega-events -- the Vancouver 2010 Winter Olympic Games and the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa. Comparing across mega-events may allow some initial insight into the variable of sponsor associations and branding opportunities arising from mega-event sponsorship.

Study 1 – Vancouver Winter Olympics

The Olympic Games are a premier athletic event where countries send their top athletes to participate in sporting competitions for national pride and personal ambition. The Summer and Winter Olympic Games alternate every two years. Both events meet the definition of a mega-event with sprawling facilities required to host the event, large number of participating countries, and enormous attention by spectators worldwide (Majid et al., 2007). This study explores the pattern of relationships among country, mega-event, and sponsor evaluative images in the context of the Winter Olympic Games that were hosted by Canada in Vancouver during 2010.

The data for this study was collected during the Vancouver Olympic Games and as part of a larger multi-wave, Canada-wide, panel-based study; therefore, only a portion of the data is reflected here. The questionnaire collected views about the host country, the Olympic Games and Coca-Cola as a TOP Olympic sponsor. The total sample size for this wave of data was 970 respondents, including 57.4% males with a median age in the 31-50 years range, and 55% having obtained a college diploma or less.

Respondents' evaluations on a scale of 1 (least favourable) to 7 (most favourable) for the host/home country and people, the Olympic Games, and the top sponsor are presented in Table 1. The highest evaluations were reported about the host country followed evaluations of the event itself and, finally, the evaluations of the event sponsor. It is not surprising that the evaluations of sponsor are lower than the mega-event or the host country evaluations given the prominence of the event and country and the associative nature of sponsorship.

To assess the patterns of relationships, a structural equation model (SEM) was tested using LISREL. The results are presented in Figure 1 and demonstrate a relational pathway exists whereby the image of the host country and people is related to the image evaluation of the mega-event sponsor through the evaluation of the mega-event itself. The model has marginally good fit with the data as demonstrated by some mixed results in the fit statistics. Some of the fit statistics illustrate a good fit through the application of some typical thresholds (e.g. CFI and NFI) and some indicate that the model is less of a good fit (e.g. X^2/d.f., RMSEA and GFI). However, an evaluation of an SEM model must be made holistically (Kline 2005) and not simplistically applying heuristic thresholds (Chen et al., 2008). Therefore, the good fit statistics do illustrate a reasonable fit for a simple model as indicated by the NFI statistic and when accounting for the large sample size as indicated by the CFI statistic. In addition, there is value to present a model of a relatively unexplored intersection of images in the Olympic Games context utilizing the same reflective items for the constructs as the subsequent model presented in this paper within the FIFA World Cup context.

Study 2 – FIFA World Cup in South Africa

The FIFA World Cup is a global sporting event that is hosted in a different country every four years. The FIFA 2010 World Cup was hosted in South Africa from June 11 to July 11 with teams from 32 countries representing six different continents. The event meets the definition of a mega-event because of its ability to draw a global audience and the country-wide presence that the event had in its 2010 host country. The purpose of this study is to replicate the investigation of the pattern of relationships among country, mega-event and sponsorship image in the context of the FIFA 2010 World Cup.

The data for this study was collected in South Africa electronically using a publicly available e-mailing list of local residents. The surveys were distributed and collected from June 18 to 30, 2010. The measurement instrument collected evaluative views about the host country, the World Cup and Coca-Cola as a leading sponsor. The sample size for this study was a total of 220 respondents with 52.1% males, a median age in the range of 31-50, and 44% obtaining a post secondary degree or less.

The evaluations that respondents made about the country and people of South Africa, the FIFA World Cup and of Coca-Cola are presented in Table 2. Respondents were asked to answer the items indicated on a scale of 1 to 5 where 1 was least favourable and 5 was most favourable. In this study, the highest evaluations were provided by respondents for the event itself, followed by the evaluations for the host country and its people, and the evaluations of an event sponsor. It is also is important to note that sponsorship evaluations are not significantly different from the midpoint of the scale.

The SEM results for the FIFA World Cup study are illustrated in Figure 1. The results from this analysis depict the pattern of relationships as limited to a two construct model where the host country context is important to the evaluation of the mega-event. However, the model does not support the relationship of these constructs with the evaluation of a leading World Cup sponsor. The model is considered as a good representation of the data as indicated by the goodness of fit statistics. For instance, GFI, CFI and NNFI are all well above the traditional .90 threshold of fit.

Discussion and Conclusions

The results of both studies provide clear support for a positive relationship between the host country and the mega-event images, reflecting the expectations of attribute theory that inferences about the mega-event maybe drawn from character-based information about the host country. In addition, both studies did not provide evidence to support a relationship directly between the host country and a mega-event leading sponsor. This is particularly interesting in the FIFA World Cup context due to the recent shift by the sporting event organization to emphasize the host country rather than focusing so heavily on the sport of football (a.k.a. soccer) as it has in the past. This promotional change may be the reason we see such a strong, positive relationship between the host country and mega-event evaluations. The association is also strong and positive for the Olympics which has traditionally made this association.

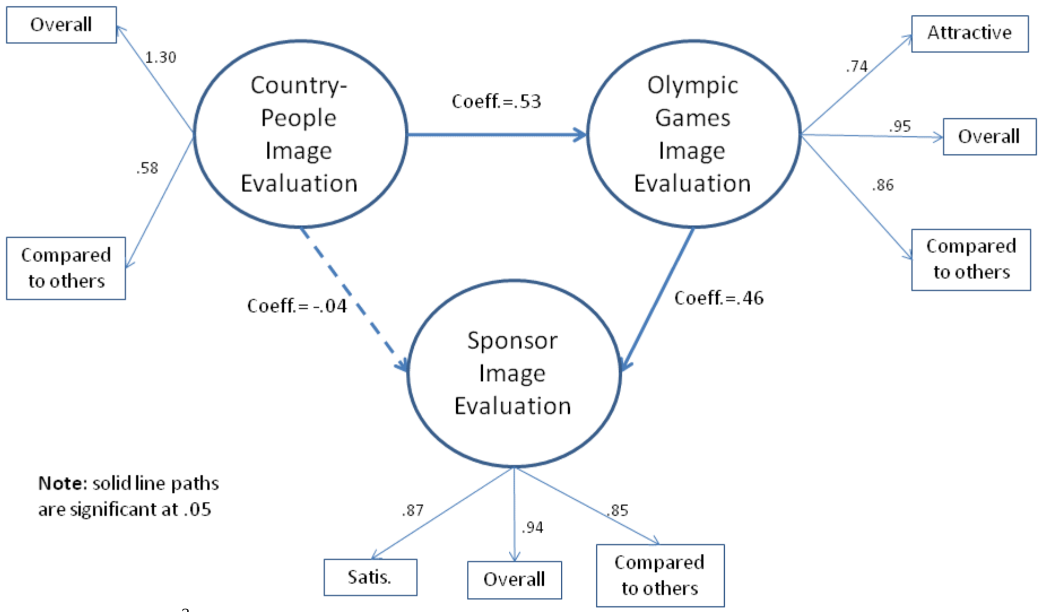
There is also a large difference in the model results that is worth discussing. In the Olympic Games context, there was strong and significant support for a positive relationship between the mega-event image and the evaluation of a leading sponsor. However, this relationship was not supported in the World Cup context. This may have occurred because FIFA World Cup only recently began to focus strategically on sponsorship and now mimics the TOP Sponsor Program of the Olympic Games. Therefore, the effects of this change in sponsorship orientation may take more time before results of the positive association are apparent. This finding suggests that much work needs to be done for FIFA and sponsors in creating the value of the branding opportunities.

Table 1: Evaluative Responses for the Host Country, the Games and a Major Sponsor

Construct	**Item**	**Mean**
Country and People Evaluation	Overall rating compared to other countries	6.29*
	Overall rating of Canada	6.18*
Olympic Games Evaluation	Rating of Olympic Games compared to competing events	5.67*
	Likeability	5.59*
	Attractive	5.59*
	Overall rating of the Olympic Games	5.56*
Sponsor Evaluation	Rating compared to competing products	5.17*
	Overall rating of Coca-Cola products	5.03*
	Overall satisfaction	4.62*
	Value for money	4.55*

* Denotes significance at <.05 from the scale midpoint of 4 using a single sample t-test

Figure 1: SEM Model Results for the Vancouver 2010 Olympic Games



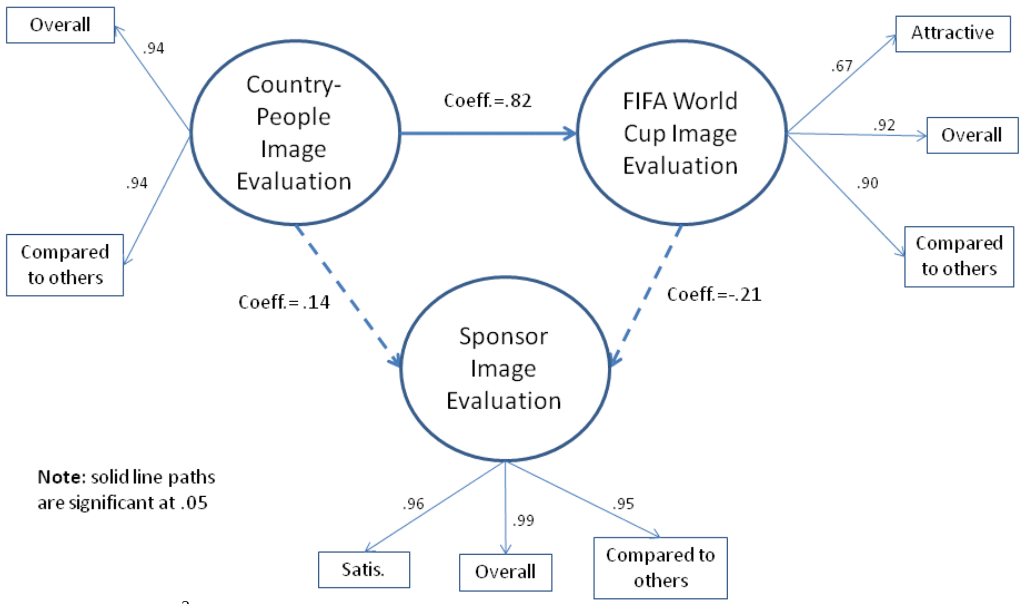
Fit Measures: X^2/d.f.=29; RMSEA=0.17, CFI=.90, NFI=.90, NNFI=.85, SRMR=.062, GFI=.88

Table 2: Evaluative Responses for the Host Country, the Games and a Major Sponsor

Construct	Item	Mean
Country and People Evaluation	Overall rating of South Africa	3.92*
	Overall rating compared to other countries	3.64*
FIFA World Cup Evaluation	Overall rating of the World Cup	4.12*
	Rating of the World Cup compared to competing events	4.09*
	Attractive	4.04*
	Likeability	4.00*
Sponsor Evaluation	Rating compared to competing products	3.00
	Overall rating of Coca-Cola products	2.98
	Value for money	2.91
	Overall satisfaction	2.86

* Denotes significance at <.05 from the scale midpoint of 3 using a single sample t-test

Figure 2: SEM Model Results for FIFA World Cup



Fit Measures: X^2/d.f.=1.0; RMSEA=0.012, CFI=1.00, NFI=.99, NNFI=1.00, SRMR=.023, GFI=.98

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To be Similar or Unique? Implications for Strategic Reference Groups

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Introduction

Much of the organisational literature concerned with corporate branding, reputation and identity focuses on the distinctiveness or uniqueness of an organisation. For example, organisational branding is described as a projection of distinctiveness and organisational positioning (Hatch & Schultz, 2003) by the organisation to distinguish itself from its competitors to gain favourable impressions (Forman & Argenti, 2005) and branding is how organisations express themselves discretely (Kowalczyk & Pawlish, 2002). Corporate brand is closely linked and interrelated to reputation and it has been suggested that reputation is "characterized as the result of corporate branding" (Schwaiger, 2004, p. 48). Reputation is generally defined as the cumulative perception and evaluation of organisations made by external constituents (Rindova & Fombrun, 1998). Studies of organisational reputation also emphasize the distinctiveness or uniqueness of an organisation, and suggest that well regarded organisations strive for uniqueness to gain prestige, status and fame (Fombrun, 1996). Mitra and Golder (2006) suggest that brands have a high reputation and a low reputation; high reputation brands are those that are highly ranked in brand orderings. Others suggest that corporate branding is the creation, maintenance and projection of a favourable and positive organisational reputation (van Riel & van Bruggen, 2002) and can improve an organisation's reputation and recognition (Hatch & Schultz, 2003).

Organisational uniqueness also preoccupies organisational identity scholars who argue that organisations are both different and similar to others (Deephouse, 1999). Much of the literature on organisational identity is based on the definition of organisational identity set forth by Albert and Whetten (1985) who explain identity as core characteristics of an organisation and address the three fundamental criteria of centrality, endurance and distinctiveness when the organisation is compared to others.

Organisations strive to stand out from others within their organisational field so that they can develop competitive advantage over others (Ferguson, Deephouse, & Ferguson, 2000). They need to be unique and distinct from others to enable their constituents to separate them from others, and uniqueness leads organisations to have a reputation that belongs solely to that organisation and allows it to be favourably viewed when compared to others (Whetten & Mackey, 2002). It is well established in literature that organisational uniqueness is an intangible organisational asset that is difficult for competitors to imitate or duplicate, and therefore contributes to barriers to entry and performance differences (Barney, 1991, 2001; Brown, Dacin, Pratt, & Whetten, 2006; Eisenhardt & Martin, 2000; Hall, 1992; Oliver, 1997; Rao, 1994; Rayner, 2003; Wernerfelt, 1984, 1995).

While the organisational benefits of being unique and distinct from competition are well accepted, what is less known are the implications for organisations who are similar to others and thus potentially indistinguishable, and therefore may not have a strong, unique and distinct corporate brand or reputation. In particular, what is less known is how organisations who are members of an isomorphic, dominant strategic reference group therefore having less identifiable individual identities, distinguishable brand or unique reputation gain advantages due to their similarity to other members in that strategic reference group.

Members of a strategic reference group have a strong shared identity and tend to be similar, and may be viewed as a group rather than on their individual uniqueness or distinctiveness. For example, Porter (1979) defines strategic groups as firms that pursue strategies similarly and "resemble one another closely" (p. 215). Glynn (2008) refers to the shared identity within an institutional environment as "claim similarity" (p. 419). In addition, the organisations selected for comparison against must be similar enough so that they are relevant for comparison (Labianca, Fairbank, Thomas, Gioia, & Umphress, 2001). This suggests that organisations within a strategic reference group are similar to others in that strategic reference group which allows them to compare themselves to each other and be recognized as members of that strategic reference group. We were also interested in the implications of uniqueness for organisations not part of the strategic reference group, thus not similar to dominant group, however, operating in that institutional field, in the presence of these strong and dominant members.

Research Methodology

Using a qualitative case study methodology (Eisenhardt, 1989), this research examines four cases in the Canadian banking industry. Canadian banks are well known and are well recognized for their comprehensive products and service offerings, extensive distribution networks, prominent presence in the public media, and their mainstay position in the Canadian stock market. This industry is dominated by a group of five big banks, generally referred to as the Big 5, and these banks possess considerable power and influence in that industry. Darroch and McMillan (2007) stressed the importance and dominance of the Big 5 and stated that "[t]o most people, Canada's financial system is the story of five large banks that have dominated the life of every city, town and village in the country" (p. 4). Three of the banks in this study were part of the dominant strategic reference group and one was not a member of this reference group.

Data were collected through 13 preliminary meetings and 29 in-depth interviews with bank executives and managers as well as banking industry association representatives and industry insiders. Archival data were collected from bank annual reports for ten fiscal years, social responsibility and public accountability statements for period of five years, and 1652 newspaper articles. Thematic analysis and coding of interviews and archival documents using methods suggested by Miles and Huberman (1984) and Eisenhardt (1989) was conducted. As is suggested for research using multi-cases, data were analyzed by first building individual cases and then comparing across cases to generate the conceptual framework (Eisenhardt, 1989).

Findings and Discussion

Findings in this study confirmed that the Canadian banking industry is dominated by a powerful strategic reference group, the Big 5, and that banks that were part of this strategic reference group strongly identified with that group, tended to be similar, generally compared themselves to other members of that group and described themselves indistinguishable from the other members. Bankers said that the big banks offered the same products and services and operated in the same markets, and that their strategies were similar to other Big 5 banks, because any action one bank took that would distinguish them or give them an advantage over the other big banks would likely increase the cost of business for all the other banks. Similarly, any mistakes one bank made would negatively impact the other banks. The bank outside the strategic reference group, however, emphasized its uniqueness and difference in comparison to the big banks. While not benefiting from the advantages of being part of the powerful dominant group, the smaller bank in this sample is successful in its core markets and has a positive reputation. Findings also show that that this bank, has a reputation of being smaller, unique and distinguishable from the Big 5 banks and not part of that group.

This research found that the firms that are part of the core, dominant, well recognized, and powerful strategic reference group tended to be isomorphic, implemented similar strategies, and strived to maintain their group's status in the industry. We suggest that the need to remain isomorphic is intended to protect the big banks' domination and power in the organisational field (McNamara, Deephouse, & Luce, 2003). The Big 5 banks are prominent in size and status, and rank high in reputation rankings (Financial Post, 2007; National Post, 2005). High status firms have prestige in an institutional environment, which yields benefits for the firms in this group (Sherer & Lee, 2002). Firms in this group tend to maintain their similarity in order to protect their privileged status (Caves & Porter, 1977; McNamara, et al., 2003), which is confirmed by the findings in this study.

Findings also suggest that firms outside the strategic reference group will tend to emphasize the characteristics that distinguish them from those in the strategic reference group. The bank outside of this reference group distinguished itself from the group and emphasized its distinctiveness and uniqueness. For example, while big banks in this sample identified themselves as large and market leaders, the smaller bank identified itself as a small bank that is different and unique. This bank tended to view its smaller size and differences compared to the Big 5 as a strategic strength and positioned itself as a niche player that serviced its niches specifically and successfully. It called itself small, unique and regional while emphasizing its ability to deliver the full range of products and services like big banks. It is likely that firms outside the strategic group understand the insurmountable barriers to gaining entry to the dominant strategic and respond by emphasizing their differences in comparison to the dominant reference group, while recognizing the need to maintain some similarity in order to be considered a member of the organisational field, that is, a player in that organisational field (Phillips & Zuckerman, 2001).

Contributions

This research contributes to the knowledge on how firms within a strategic reference group benefit from being similar to and emphasize this similarity, and suggests that firms outside the strategic reference group benefit from their uniqueness and emphasize this uniqueness. This research confirms the understanding that strategic reference groups tend to work cohesively with each other with similar strategies (Deephouse, 1999) to create favourable conditions for the strategic reference group and barriers to entry for firms not considered part of the reference group (McNamara, et al., 2003). This research suggests that firms who are members of a dominant strategic reference group within an institutional field tend to highlight their similarity to maintain their status and power which yield organisational benefits for members of that reference group. Firms who are not members of that dominant reference group, however, emphasize and benefit from their uniqueness and distinctiveness from the dominant strategic reference group.

This research contributes to the understanding of how firms mobilize their similarity or uniqueness to gain advantages. While much of the current literature focuses on the advantages of uniqueness of the corporate brand and reputation, this research explores conditions under which being 'similar to others' may also benefit organisations. Furthermore, this research confirms the importance of uniqueness for those firms who are in industries with a dominant and powerful strategic reference group.

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Sense-Based Innovation And Brand Strategy: The Role Of Meanings And Relations

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Introduction

The paper is devoted to explore how firms can gain competitive advantage in the production of superior market values founded on sensemaking. More specifically, we consider the sensemaking process as an innovative activity in which brand management has a fundamental role. From a literature point of view, little effort has been undertaken in order to describe the brand management as a specific process that support the intangible type of innovation, where the core of the innovation output is sensemaking. In our opinion, this is an important endeavor, since a lot of innovation success is nowadays due to non-technological intervention on the offering system (Normann, 2001; Krippendorf & Butter, 1984). Moreover, much of the intangible innovation process related takes place outside the firm, in the contexts of consumption (von Hippel, 2005). From this perspective, customers are not passive receivers of brands, but they can always participate in the brand creation and management, such as in the case of brand communities (Muniz & O'Guinn, 2001). We argue that the roles of meanings and relations are becoming critical in building a sustainable competitiveness for firms in the framework of soft innovation (Sebastiani & Paiola, 2010; Stoneman, 2010).

The intangible dimension of innovation

Recent research streams on innovation have highlighted the progressive growth of importance of non-technological elements in innovation management. Stoneman defined soft innovation as

> *"innovation in goods and services that primarily impacts upon sensory perception, aesthetic appeal or intellectual appeal rather than functional performance." (Stoneman, 2009, p. 21)*

Modern innovation refer increasingly to the social dynamics of the demand and to the way meanings related to products, services and their uses are created, transmitted and modified by the users (Sternberg, 1999; Dalli & Romani, 2007; Di Maria & Finotto, 2008). As many scholars pointed out (Schmitt, 1999; Silverstein & Fiske, 2003; Postrel, 2003; Ravasi & Lojacono, 2005), purchasing processes are increasingly based on immaterial features such as aesthetics, design and the many meanings that they are able to transmit. Products can be seen as parts of hedonic consumption processes and means to obtain emotional responses (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982). Or, as post-modernity scholars have well described, they can be perceived as "linking objects" (Cova, 1997), that is semiotic elements capable to link people as belonging to the same community or sharing similar identities.

Other studies, focused on lead users, tribes and communities of consumptions, emphasized the role of relations in modern innovation management in terms of connections between the firm and the consumption side, as well as among customers (i.e. Franke & Shah, 2003; Cova et al., 2007; Kozinets et al. 2008; Sawhney & Prandelli, 2000). Those contributions emphasize the collective action that supports the firm's innovation process where the relational dimension is important to allow customers' experience and knowledge sharing.

Hence, innovation is a process that should primarily take into account, on the one hand, the development of new meanings and the administration of existing ones and, on the other hand, the management of relationships with customers and suppliers able to sustain such processes of sensemaking.

We argue that brand strategy and brand management can positively support sense-based innovation in firms, enhancing the creation of new meanings to be offered to customers as well as the interactive relationships between the firm and its customers as well as among customers. While on the one hand, brand are semiotic tools able to create and drive meanings to the market (Semprini, 1992), on the other hand meaning attached to brands are more and more built on an interactive basis with customers (Schau et al., 2009).

The role of brand in soft innovation: creating meanings

Sensemaking is an increasingly important driver in marketing strategies as it consists, on a broad perspective, in the process of making sense of the firm's offering. From this point of view sensemaking contributes also to the non-technical dimension of the innovation and it becomes a process a firm should be able to manage properly.

Firms recognize this condition when they rank the brand as their first source of sensemaking. In effect, in terms of symbolic values of the offer, the activity of sensemaking is mainly driven by the work the firm does on the brand and its identity (Aaker, 1996; Schmitt & Simonson, 1997). Brands can represent major semiotic elements that provide a given meaning and sense to products and services. They must be fed by organized, structured and voluntary work (Semprini, 1992; Klaus & Maklan, 2007).

A brand-driven strategy oriented to support innovation through sensemaking is to build a valuable brand image, constructing and communicating the meaning of the product provided to customers: product value is linked to the signs and images that accompany it, with a work related to brand construction and the communication of the brand discourse that belongs to the traditional core of marketing strategy and that is continuously renovating (Aaker, 1996; Holt, 2002; Semprini, 1992). However, such process can also include customers. Customers are more and more involved in the process of communication, brand development and construction of meaning (Ladwein, 2007).

The role of brand in soft innovation: managing relationships
In the present competitive scenario consumption is characterized by participation and experience (Pine & Gilmore, 1999; Cova & Pace, 2006). The customer is an active player of consumption process. Consumption is also a communication activity, where the customer tells stories and defines her identity by building new connections with other similar customers (communities of customers) (Bagozzi & Dholakia, 2006; Kozinets et al., 2010). Through such approach, customers can help the firm in giving legitimacy to its brand proposition and become active players in the sensemaking process, independently from the business sphere (Fueller & Von Hippel, 2008) or aligned with its strategies (Ramaswamy, 2008).

The emerging collaborative dimension of innovation becomes the framework to depict new strategic challenges for firms. Such contributions can focus either on the functional dimension of product or on the intangible sphere of firm's offering, more specifically in actively supporting meaning creation and the making of sense attached to a product. This is the case, for instance, of brand communities (Muniz & O'Guinn, 2001; McAlexander et al., 2002) who can contribute to the definition of the meanings related to a brand, "based on a structured set of social relationships among admirers of a brand" (Muniz & O'Guinn, 2001, p. 412).

Empirical section: two case studies
In this section, two case studies are described to represent different paths of brand strategy within the soft innovation framework (see Table 1). Given the method used in their selection, the cases cannot permit any generalization. Nevertheless, consistently with the recent qualitative methodology developments (Siggelkow, 2007), we believe they can offer unique insights into innovative fields of research involving the exploration of new value territories.

The cases have been prepared basing on information gathered through different explorative methods. Primary data come from semi-structured interviews with CEOs and Marketing Managers during 2007 and 2008 as well as direct observation of the company organization and structures (showrooms). Integrative information comes from secondary documental sources, such as specialized publications, companies' sheets, newspapers and on-line information.

Bisazza: building sensemaking through design and brand

The firm is characterized by its focus on classic mosaic production (glass) and gold-leaf based mosaic. The upgrading transformation starts in 2000, when Piero Bisazza (the founder's son) becomes CEO. Piero Bisazza outlines a twofold strategy. On the one hand, the focus is on product extension: the mosaic should overcome the basic covering function, in order to become a fashionable product within furnishing applications. On the other hand, Bisazza's brand strategy is oriented to transform the meanings linked with the brand and move the product's positioning towards the luxury niche. Bisazza strategy is oriented to position its offering on fashion and luxury, through an upgrading process that involve design and culture as key assets of the new brand strategy.

Dainese: the protection as a valuable collective meaning
Dainese is a leading firm in the design and production of protection systems for the sports. An important transformation takes place in the 90's, when the management realizes that the knowledge and capabilities accumulated in years of work in the "protection" business, condensed in a worldwide known brand, could be transferred from the world of motorcycles to other related worlds. Thus the firm decides to initiate a delicate process of exploration of new businesses in which it can use its technological and its brand's potentials, paying an utmost attention at choosing the businesses that can conserve the brand value at his most potential level. The overall strategic mission that affects also marketing strategies is the aim of building a system composed of products and services, connected through an immaterial component, that is a common meaning that has to be communicated by the brand: human's protection from head to toes in dynamic sports. In this picture, co-creation experiences have a crucial role in current customer relationship marketing strategies (D-Club, the company's on-line community).

Discussion
As it emerges from the two case studies (Table 2), in the sense-based innovation framework developing meanings and managing relations at the core of brand strategy can be either approached separately or as parts of an integrated strategy. On the one hand, firms can develop and manage sensemaking internally, then drive meanings to the market with a top-down approach. On the other hand, however, sensemaking can also be nurtured through the development and

management of long-term relationships with lead users and communities of customers. In this case, users are not only a source of technical and functional feedbacks on products and services, but may effectively participate in the sensemaking process.

Conclusions and future research: the need for new capabilities

From a theoretical point of view, the paper aims at contributing to the debate on soft innovation by emphasizing the crucial role of brand in it. We posit that two relevant dimensions – meanings and relations – represent crucial drivers of non-technical innovation and that the firm has to carefully develop appropriate strategy to manage them. Specifically, the firm can approach brand strategy and management in order to support the creation and spread of distinctive meanings as well as to establish profitable relations with customers that help the firm nurturing and enriching such meanings and firm's offering in general.

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Table 1 – The case studies analyzed *Company name*	Bisazza	Dainese
Industry and products	Leading company in the glass mosaic and (gold leaf) decoration market	Leading company in the design and production of protection systems for the sports
Brand	Bisazza	Dainese
Headquarter	Alte (Vicenza)	Molvena (Vicenza)
Age Year of foundation	1956	1972
Size (turnover, employees)	100 Ml € 1096 employees	105 Ml € 250 employees
Productive sites	3 factories (Italy, India)	2 factories in Tunisia
Commercial networks	12 flagship stores 16 commercial branches and 6,000 points of sales	90 flagship franchisees and 20 direct points of sale all over the world

Source: authors' elaboration

Table 2 –Bisazza and Dainese: some important elements of the brand strategy as a driver of sense-based innovation.	Bisazza	Dainese
Meaning development	New product meaning: furnishing applications as fashion (from functionality to experience) Focus on design and art to create meaning (luxury products) and develop brand identity	New product meaning: "protection" from head-to-toe Investments to legitimate Dainese as a point of reference for biker communities in the "protection" domain
Relationship management	Involvement of opinion leaders (specialized journalists and interior designers) to support sense sharing and promotion Investment on internal and external designers network (Bisazza Design Studio) to develop and sustain meaning creation	Co-creation processes with customers (bikers) both at the functional technical and non-technical level: to beta test, to produce and distribute user-generated content (D-club) Collaboration with research centers, universities and designers for protection, ergonomics and style (protection + fashion)

Source: authors' elaboration

Session 7.3

A Framework for Public Sector Branding

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A Strategic Investigation into the Notion of Corporate Identity in the Non-profit Sector: a Case Study of Greenpeace Switzerland

T C Melewar, Brunel University, U.K.
Armin Ledergerber, Zurich University of Applied Sciences, Switzerland

The Role of Strong Organisational Identity to Cope Current Changes and Challenges of Regulations on Early Childhood Industry in Australia

Sene Gide, University of Sydney, Australia

Brand Hypocrisy

Sanne Frandsen, Copenhagen Business School, Denmark

A Framework for Public Sector Branding

Ramesh Venkat, Saint Mary's University, Canada

Introduction

Governments at all levels worldwide are faced with the challenge of improving effectiveness, having to deliver more services under resource constraints and satisfying citizens have greater expectations based on their experience in the private sector (Jordon, 2005; Martin 2010; Zampetakis & Moustakis, 2007). Greater responsiveness to citizen needs and accountability are at the heart of many public sector and governmental reforms (Aucoin & Davis, 2005; Pollit & Bouckaert, 2000; Thomas, 2007; Thompson, 1993).

As public sector organisations look to improve their performance and effectiveness they have turned to the marketing concept (Kotler & Lee, 2007; Whalen et al., 2010). We see evidence of marketing orientation in public sector organisations that have a trading or business orientation such as postal services, state or provincial liquor commissions and national airlines (e.g., Graham, 1995; Daniels, 2007). Yet, most public sector organizations lack formal marketing planning processes as well as a focus on client needs when developing or delivering services (CEPM, 2006). The American Customer Satisfaction Index rating for public sector in 2009 was about 68.7, whereas across all sectors the national index stood at approximately 76 (see www.theacsi.org), which suggests that public sector organisations have a long way to go in their pursuit of customer and market orientation.

Based on a review of relevant literature and a case study, this paper proposes a general framework for public sector branding. It is hoped this will assist public sector organisations as well as trigger scholarly interest in this topic.

Significance of Brand Building

The Context

The public sector context is quite different from the private sector, as outlined in Table 1. Given their monopoly, establishing the need for customer orientation or brand building can be a hard sell. Traditional definitions of brand (such as the AMA definition, which focuses on visual elements and differentiation from competition) make little sense to public sector executives. It is, therefore, proposed that the brand be defined as the *consumer's or citizen's perception of the overall reputation of the organization*. Everything that the organization does – how well it meets the needs of its customers, how well it treats its clients and the overall experience it provides – will determine this perception.

The view of brand as salience has been instrumental in establishing many of today's leading consumer brands, especially low-involvement brands (Miller & Berry, 1998; Romaniuk & Sharp, 2004). "Brand as image" perspective holds that consumers gravitate to brands that match their current or aspirational self-image (Aaker, 1996; Miller & Berry, 1998; Kuksov, 2007). This works for higher involvement products. A third perspective is that brand is nothing but reputation of the product or the firm (e.g., Chong, 2007; Milewicz & Herbig, 1994).

"Brand as a reputation" will require every part of the organization working together to deliver customer experience that is consistent with the brand promise. This will require an organization-wide effort, unlike the salience view which is largely communications driven. Salience and image building as the basis for brand building makes little sense in public sector, where competition and the need to differentiate do not exist. The three perspectives on brand are compared in Table 2.

Role of Brand in Public Sector

If differentiation or influencing choice is not the reason for building a brand, why should public sector organisations engage in brand building?

Criticism Regarding Accountability. Public sector organizations in many countries are undergoing changes to become more accountable (e.g., Aucoin & Davis, 2005; Jordon, 2005; OECD, 2002). They are also attempting to become more customer or citizen-centric (Chen, Yu & Chang, 2005; Whalen et al., 2010). The criticism faced by governmental agencies for being uncaring and wasteful is now leading them to be concerned with reputation management. A focus on brand can provide these organisations a process for managing reputation with key stakeholders.

Threat of Privatization. Many public sector organisations in domains such as utilities, telecommunications, postal services, health care, among others, have been privatized or face the threat of privatization. Organisations that lack customer orientation and a coherent brand strategy will be ill-prepared for such a scenario. Forward looking public sector organisations can use potential privatization as a motivation for bringing a strong brand orientation (cf. Landor 1999).

Building Customer or Citizen Relationships. For customers served by public sector organisations, the superior reputation of an organization can lead to greater trust. Trust in public sector may not be declining (Van de Walle, Van Roosbroek, & Bouckaert, 2008), but it remains low in industrialized countries (Edelman Trust Barometer 2010). Trust is a vital component of a long-term relationship between a service provider and the customer (e.g., Morgan & Hunt, 1994). Ability of public sector organizations to perform and satisfy its customers determines customer satisfaction and eventually the level of confidence and trust that customers/citizens have in their government (Heintzman & Marson, 2005). Trust in the public sector organization or brand can lead to favourable feelings, willingness to donate, support, volunteer and so on.

Attracting and Retaining Talent. Beyond the clients, public sector organisations all over the world are greatly concerned about their ability to attract and retain the best talent. In the US, a McKinsey report highlights this challenge (Dohrmann, Kennedy & Shenoy, 2008). Cutbacks, hiring freezes, lack of meritocracy and lower compensation are often cited as causes of declining employee morale in the public sector. Strong brand reputation not only will create closeness between the customers and the organization, but it will also make it easier for an organization to attract and retain talent. In today's social media driven world, brand reputation makes an organization attractive or unattractive to both customers and employers.

As evident from the service-profit chain literature, customer satisfaction is dependent on internal service quality and employee satisfaction (Heskett, Sasser & Schlesinger, 1997). However, unlike the private sector where profit is at the end of the service-profit chain, in the case of public sector it will be trust and confidence in government or public sector (Heintzman & Marson, 2005) or even a greater level of citizen engagement.

Framework for Public Sector Branding

The author's experience in helping a Canadian public sector agency with their brand building and stakeholder brand-engagement strategy forms the basis of this section. This organization is located in an eastern province in Canada, employs over 1000 people across more than 40 offices and serves nearly a million citizens.

Initial discussions with senior management, who expressed an interest in branding, revealed that not all of them had a common understanding of branding or why it was needed. After several discussions with senior management, consensus was reached and a model (which draws from the public-sector value-chain) was created to show how a strong brand can help the organization (see Figure 1). Then the following steps unfolded (see Figure 2).

Step 1: Discovery. Brand building requires knowledge of the organizational culture, employee perception of their organization and work, client perception of the organization, organizational mandate, resources, opportunities and challenges. This internal and external analysis is crucial to creating a brand that everyone can believe in and embrace. Focus groups and surveys of employees, focus groups with clients as well as analysis of strategic and business plans formed the discovery phase.

Step 2: Defining the Brand DNA and its Architecture. Having gained deep knowledge of the mindset and culture, Brand DNA was developed. This included articulation of brand values, purpose, brand value propositions and brand identity. Instead of defining the brand only from the point of view of the external customers, the relevance of the brand for employees was also defined through employee value propositions. This is based on the notion that building brand reputation will take whole-hearted support of employees. While all stakeholders provided input, brand DNA definition was developed mainly through facilitated sessions with senior management. However, to get feedback and ensure buy-in from middle managers, facilitated workshops were conducted.

A corporate branding architecture is more appropriate for public sector organisations that do not have individual products which are branded separately (cf. Whalen et al. 2010). In this specific organization, there are five unrelated service areas – each of which historically had its own unique name, identity and even service location. Citizens did not see these five entities as belonging to one organization or part of a single brand. This necessitated a master-brand - sub-brand structure, with the corporate brand serving as the master brand (Aaker, 2004).

Step 3: Brand Implementation. This step involved the following phases.

- Phase 1: Identification of brand steward (senior most official) and brand champions (all Managers) and their respective roles. The brand champions went through a training session which involved discussion of how adherence to the brand values and brand DNA will impact their work.
- Phase 2: The brand champions trained all employees in their domain. Employees developed a list of on-brand and off-brand behaviours.
- Phase 3: Employees received skills training required to provide meet service standards and provide superior customer experience. This included "soft" skills as well as subject matter (program knowledge) training.
- Phase 4: A redesigned customer-friendly web site was a major component of the new communication and brand engagement strategy. There was no mass media campaign. Consistency in brand logo was established.

Co-location of services (one-stop) and investments in information technology (to enhance customer experience) are currently underway.

Step 4: Stakeholder Brand-Engagement Initiative. Mechanisms for ongoing interaction of stakeholders and their involvement in the creation and delivery of services (co-creation in some areas) are being established. Guidelines for obtaining regular feedback from stakeholders have been established.

Conclusion

Public sector organisations are not likely to spend vast sums of money on advertising to build the brand nor is it essential to do. This means brand reputation is built through the delivery of consistently good employee and customer experience. In order the effectively implement such an experiential brand, aligning processes, training and motivating employees and securing commitment of senior executives becomes important. The proposed framework takes an inside-out branding approach. This internal branding emphasis was required to create the right cultural environment (Bergstrom et al. 2002). Customers will experience the brand over time through their direct experience rather than be bombarded with brand messages.

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Table 1: Differences between Private and Public Sectors in Brand Building

Factor	Private Sector	Public Sector
Competition and Need for Differentiation	Strong	Weak
Investment in brand symbols and design elements	Usually strong, depending on size of firm and industry	Low
Investment in brand oriented communication	Can be high in consumer products and services	Low
Marketing and brand building know-how	Depending on company size and industry, can be high	Low
Influence of brand on customer choice	Can be significantly positive	Monopoly – which makes brand irrelevant as driver of choice
Opportunities to leverage strong brands	Fairly high	No previous research or strong case studies exist

Table 2: Perspectives on Brand

Brand as Salience	Low involvement or FMCG products (e.g., soft drinks, toothpaste, soup)
Brand as Image	High involvement products (shoes, sun glasses, clothes)
Brand as Reputation	High involvement products, services, politicians, celebrities, charities and public sector

Figure 1: Linking Brand Values to Brand Equity

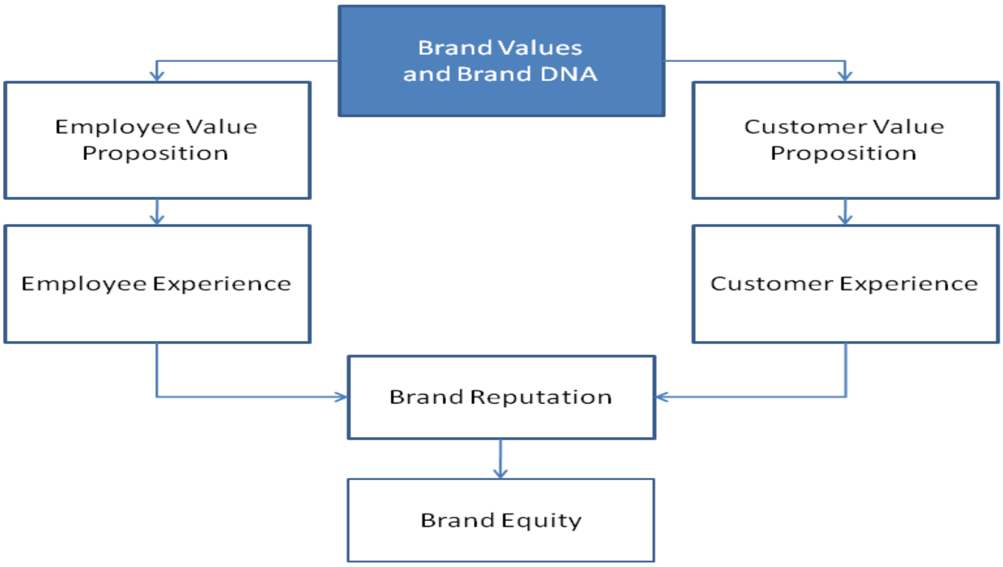
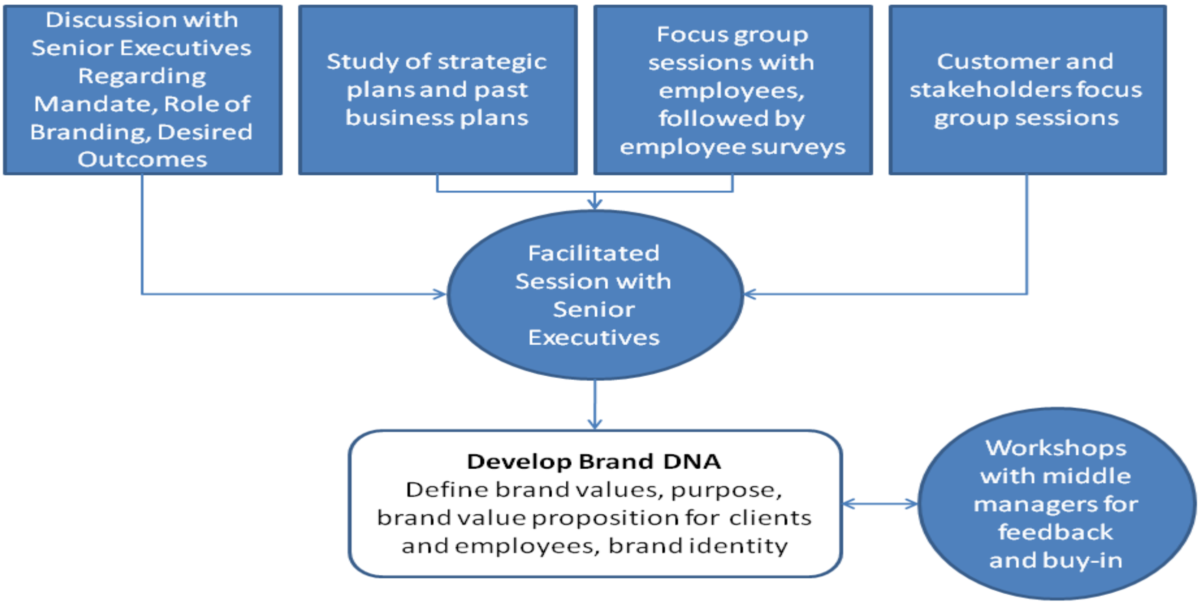


Figure 2: Discovery and Brand Definition



A strategic investigation into the notion of corporate identity in the non-profit sector: a case study of Greenpeace Switzerland

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In recent years the interest on corporate identity has significantly increased. Firms have realized the strategic value of a strong corporate identity and its importance for competitive advantage. Corporate identity can help companies align themselves with the marketplace, attract investment, motivate employees and it also serves as a means of differentiating their products and services from the competing brands (Melewar & Karaosmanoglu, 2006). Interestingly, non-governmental and non-profit organisations have became more aware of the management of their identity due to increased competition in this sector (Balmer & Gray, 2000). Melewar and Jenkins (2002) have developed the corporate identity model which consists of the constructs namely, communication and visual identity, behaviour, corporate culture and market conditions. The recategorisation of Melewar's corporate identity dimensions by Melewar and Karaosmanoglu (2006) lead to a concept with seven categories that is more comprehensive and thorough. This model will be used as a framework for analysing the role of corporate identity in the non-profit sector.

The main objective of this paper is to analyze issues of corporate identity within the context of the model presented by Melewar and Karaosmanoglu (2006) using Greenpeace Switzerland as a case study. Several secondary and primary sources were used to generate the data. The main secondary resource was company literature, including content from Greenpeace-related websites, the organisation's profile document and press releases. Primary research included discussions and personal interviews with Greenpeace management and staff.
Greenpeace was founded in 1971 in Vancouver. The Swiss office opened in 1984. Now, Greenpeace is present in more than 40 countries. The organisation exists to expose environmental criminals, to challenge government and corporations when they fail to live up to their mandate to safeguard the environment and the future (Greenpeace International, 2010; Greenpeace Switzerland, 2010).

Greenpeace Switzerland communicates over various channels with a wide range of media to all kind of stakeholders. Uncontrolled communications takes place by campaigns of their large support community or their local groups. The organisation encourages also their members to participate with their voice on the ongoing communication to relevant issues. Inspite of a stringent central command, the application of the communication and design guidelines is not possible. The brand recognition works due to the strong awareness level in Switzerland.

The worldwide shared fundamental values, beliefs and intentions as well as the common history are strong elements of the corporate culture and serve as a driving force for the cohesion between the mother organisation, the local offices and their numerous members. The corporate culture also influences the behaviour of the organisation and their members by following the credo of radical, non-violent and international coordinated actions. This cultural behaviour is often in contrast to other non-profit and non-governmental organisations acting in the same field. Greenpeace is different from those organisations by following the strategy of non-violent campaigning combined with public relations activities.
In conclusion, the case study about Greenpeace gives an insight into an organisation interacting heavily with its members and the public and shows how such an open system behaves in terms of the seven dimension of corporate identity.

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The Role of Strong Organisational Identity to Cope Current Changes and Challenges of Regulations on Early Childhood Industry in Australia

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Introduction

An organisation is more than the sum of its assets. Any company/organisation is made up of individuals, infrastructures, products and inventories. When all these physical components of the organisations combine, they form a pattern of aspiration and achievement that stretches back to the past and reaches for the future (Fekete & Keith, 2003). Organisations that develop a strong identity at the beginning and respect the core values they are established upon can face new changes and challenges without losing their identities and therefore may live for decades or longer.

In the last couple of years, Australian Early Childhood (EC) Services have been experiencing pressure from a number of sources including families and government that have led to EC services being more and more competitive resulting in a stressful working environment.

In many services due to recent changes in regulation and licensing rules the expectations from teachers/educators also changed. Employers, especially those with tied budgets or managers of the profit based services become more conscious about the expenditures and start implementing various strategies to balance the budget. These include:

- Cutting the professional development/staff training budget down: Most early childhood services have a very limited professional development budget or none at all. In many services this causes issues as educators feel they are all stuck; that there is no way to improve or change.
- Reducing the number of staff or having the minimum ratios of what regulation says: One teacher to look after ten preschool children or five babies is not as easy as it sounds. Yes, it is legal however, is it practical?
- Increasing educators' responsibilities: such as adding daily cleaning to their roles and responsibilities. In this way the services don't have to employ cleaners for five days. They may get a cleaner to come to the service once a week on the weekend to do a deep cleaning while the staff clean the centre at the end of each day.
- Increasing child care fees charged from families: This means that families who are already struggling with the recent economical crisis, changes in the workplace agreements, the new baby in the family, balancing family, work and children have another hit with the increase in child care fees.

The abovementioned strategies have negative effects on all educators in the service as well as families and most importantly young children who use these services.

Early Childhood Services with strong organisational identities work harder to keep their employees' morale as high as possible by not reflecting the issues directly to them. The research of this paper personally believes that the secret for having happy children and families in your service is keeping your educators/employees happy and satisfied which directly lead a strong organisational identity.

Research Aim and Methodology

The aim of this research is to clarify the effect of current changes and challenges of regulations on the Early Childhood industry and how an Early Childhood Service with a strong identity can cope with these challenges.

The non-participant observational research has been used to collect necessary data and information for this study. The observations of the educators, families, children and management of the case centre have been used for this research, along with the interaction between all the stakeholders. For certain research questions, observational research is clearly the most appropriate approach. Gay (1996) states that non-participant observation including both naturalistic observation and simulation observation, involves observation of human subject. Since understanding and analysing organisational identity requires understanding its employees, managers and leaders, this approach is the most suitable for this study.

What is Organisational Identity?

Organisations are autopoietic social systems that keep themselves alive by communication and decisions, always reproducing their boundaries and opportunities for connecting with other services. Organisational identity is the summation of what makes an organisation uniquely itself. It is a feeling upon walking through the doors into that service/centre and can last for decades passing from groups in its unwritten culture.

Like every other organisation, each individual early childhood service has its own identity (Bloom, 2005). Some services/centres have that homelike, warm feeling; smiling teachers that enjoy being there and doing what they are doing while the children are busy with many interesting activities in their environment. The way the teachers and children interact with each other is professional but still warm and respectful. In the community, the centre has respect from other professionals, and hence, has a good reputation.

In some other services/organisations tension can be felt from the moment you walk in. The communication is formal and limited. Confusion and complaints about staff roles, working conditions such as low payment and not enough recognition in society affects the mood of staff members. The interaction between teachers and children is limited as teachers are more in the mood of: 'cannot wait to finish the shift' (Bloom, 2005).

There are also some changes in terms of the relationship between employer and employees. The conventional psychological contract was characteristically relational, with mutual trust at the heart of the bond between employee and employer. According to this understanding, employees offered loyalty and commitment while employers conferred job security, career prospects, training, and professional development opportunities (Bhattacharya et al, 1995; Haslam, 2001). Due to new changes and extra pressure on the employers a new transactional relationship has emerged which is characterised by a withdrawal of an effective relationship between employee and employer. The academic literature argues that organisational identification is positively connected to trust, motivation, commitment, performance and the feeling of belonging (Bhattacharya et al, 1995; Haslam, 2001; Fekete & Keith, 2003). As a consequence, the lack of organisational identity may have very negative effect on the organisational performance of provided services.

The Factors Which Affect Organisational Identity in EC Services

Organisational identity is just like personal identity (Fekete & Keith, 2003). There are many influences and factors that shape identity. As a person our family, community, values, religion, education, friends, and genes shape our identity. In an organisation the individual people who work there, the way these individuals work as a group/team, the way they communicate and interact with each other, their personalities, the style of the leader/director, flexibility, dedication of the management (owner/board), mission of the organisation and the culture of the organisation shapes the identity of the organisation.

Culture of the Organisation/Service

Mayer (2000:72) defines culture as '…the enduring norms, values, customs and behavioural patterns common to a particular group of people'.

Culture is a pattern of shared basic values and beliefs that a group learns as it solves its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid, therefore to be thought to new members as the correct way to do things (Schein, 2004; Denison, 1990).

According to Martin (2002) culture in an early childhood service is a set of learned beliefs, values, attitudes and behaviours which regulate the day-to-day life of individuals in the organisation. It could sometimes be in harmony, and other times result in bitter conflict within groups. Culture in organisations tends to be shared by all or most members of the team; usually the older team members try to pass it on to new team members.

There are many factors affect organisational culture (see Figure 1)

Communication and Interaction

Communication is the key factor in establishing a team, working together with others, and passing the message to others as well as understanding what others try to say. The changing demographics of global society provide increasing opportunities for cross-cultural contacts within the community and work places, making effective intercultural communication a necessity.

Leadership and Team Work in the Organisation

According to Rodd (2004) effective leadership and team work are the most important factors to increase self-esteem, job satisfaction, and morale of the team members as well as reduce the stress level in the organisation. Therefore the leader/director should focus on team philosophies, team goals, team members' skills and interests, and management theories and styles. The leader should have a suitable management style for his or her organisation. Whatever the chosen style of leadership, the leader should encourage all stakeholders' involvement in the decision making process (Bloom, 2005). The theoretical knowledge of team approaches, structure and dynamic of the team and skills and knowledge of each individual team member is essential for a director in order to implement a team approach to assist in the provision of quality education for children and a positive work environment for all team members, which is essential for organisational identity.

Families and Children Who Uses the Services

With all the changes in the world including technological, economical and life style changes, the expectations of children's families from Early Childhood services also changes. The recent studies about child development (Greenman & Stonehouse, 1997) focus on the importance of the early years concerning the brain development of a young child which automatically leads to higher expectations from early childhood educators. The Early Childhood services were previously seen as baby-sitting clubs or playgroups, where as now they have been recognised as educational centres (very positive development for EC services and educators).

Management and Mission Statement

The management of the organisation should be strong in order to deliver the mission of the organisation. However, the main resource of organisations is human/people. Hence, the flexibility in terms of employees' needs, sacrifices made to keep the employees morale high, and job security are important points to focus on for management. The mission statement of the organisation should be realistic and achievable for all levels of employees.

Conclusion

The factors which affect organisational identity have been summarised briefly and the way in which they affect the educators, children and families that use the centre have been observed. The result of the study shows clearly that an organisation with a strong identity keeps up with the hard work, and provides a safe, secure, and fun educational environment for young children in their service during the changes. Most importantly, the mission of the centre "providing accessible and affordable service for all families" from the day it has been established 25 years ago is still being carried out. This centre/service has known with its high quality care and educational program and lowest childcare fees in its local area.

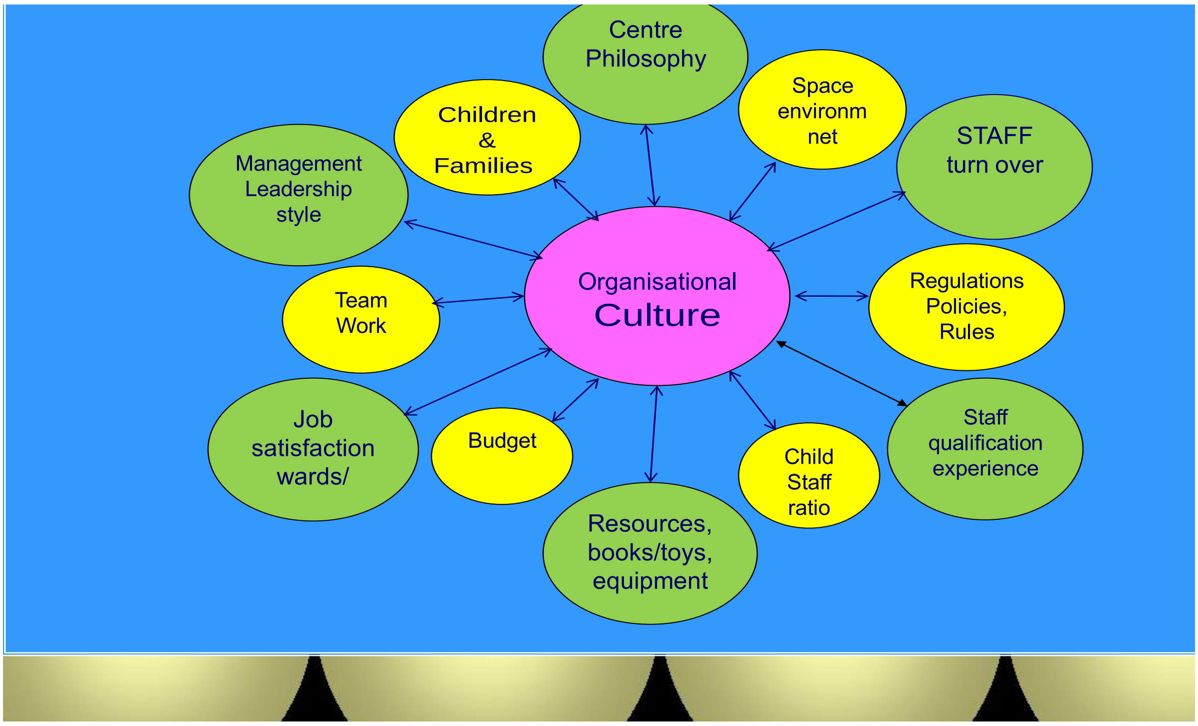

Figure 1: The Factors of Organisational Culture

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Brand Hypocrisy

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Conceptual Framework

The current corporate branding literature argues that brands gain their increasing symbolic power through consistency in the corporate brand management (Balmer, 2001, Balmer & Gray, 2003, de Chernatony, 2002; Hatch & Schultz, 2001; 2003; 2008; Ind, 2001; Schultz, 2005, Schultz & de Chernatony, 2002). This consistency is needed, as the brand would otherwise loose credibility in the interaction with multiple stakeholders. It is not surprising that the literature insists on consistency, as the corporate brand is said to represent the core, collective identity of the organisation, "who we are" (Balmer & Gray, 2003). Accordingly, consistency applies to various aspects of the corporate brand management in terms of both integrated planning, aligning employees and coherent brand experiences.

The concept of brand hypocrisy challenges the assumption of consistency. Hypocrisy is defined by Brunsson as, "signifying a difference between words and deeds, the eventuality that organizations may talk in one way, decide in another and act in a third" (Brunsson, 2003a, xiii). In a corporate branding context, hypocrisy questions whether brand ideas and brand talk are truly conveyed into organisational brand practices and brand actions. Brunsson (1993, 2003a, 2003b) argues that hypocrisy often occurs unintentionally, but suggests that it should be seen as part of the solution, not the problem. This is because, brand hypocrisy enables the organisation to respond to and foster legitimacy towards inconsistent interests in their environment, while still being efficient and produce goods or services, by decoupling brand talk and brand actions. Often external stakeholders have too little insight to the organisation to evaluate if the talk is in fact conveyed into action, therefore symbolic brand talk has value in it self as it reassures the external stakeholders that their interests are being considered and that the organisation is responsive to their demands

The outcome of such a gap between 'who we say we are' and 'who we really are' created by brand hypocrisy may have two different outcomes. From a positive perspective, Christensen, Morsing and colleagues argue that organisations sustain themselves through the idealised (brand) talk, as it is a way to announce an ideal self-image to the organisational environment, thus mobilising internally and externally 'what can be made true'. (Christensen, Morsing & Cheney, 2008; Christensen, Morsing & Thyssen, 2011). From a more negative angle Christensen, Morsing and Thyssen (2011), however, also point out that hypocrisy may have other more non-desirable consequences in terms cynism, in particular if it simply "paper[s] over" the realities of the firm's activities (Griffin, 2002, p. 232).

So far limited empirical work has demonstrated how corporate branding processes unfold and in particular how the practitioners adopt the theoretical ideal of consistency. Accordingly, this empirical study aims to contribute to the existing body of corporate branding literature by following a corporate re-branding process up close, as the management team together with a newly hired external marketing agency designs, launches and implements a new brand in response to a negative image among external stakeholders primarily the consumers and the press.

Data Generation and Analysis

I followed the process of management designing and launching a new corporate brand of MGP (Pseudonym), a European telecommunication company, from April to November, 2009 and subsequently its implementation among employees in MGP's call centres from November, 2009 to February, 2010. I analysed the data using interpretivistic principles of constructing empirical mysteries and breakdown as suggested by Alvesson and Kärreman (2007). They propose a reflexive, analytical process, in which empirical material is mobilised as a critical dialogue partner that challenges, rethinks and illustrates theory. It is a "systematic search for deviation from what would be expected, given established wisdom, in empirical contexts" (p. 1265), thus the empirical data is used to discover or create theory rather than justifying it. In this case, the empirical findings question the assumption of consistency represented in the corporate branding literature.

The empirical data was generated by using three types of sources to capture the planning process of the new corporate brand. First, interviews (Kvale & Brinckmann, 2001) were conducted with key figures in the branding process. The respondents were the director of the Marketing Communication (MarCom) department, the director of Corporate Communication (CorpCom) department and the director of Internal Communication (IntCom). The director of MGP Call Centres was also interviewed both before the launch of brand and after the 'implementation'. Second, active participant observation (Spradley, 1980) in the HR department, in particular in three meetings where the HR department, the MarCom department and the external agency (ExtAg) met in order to 'translate' the new corporate brand into brand actions towards the employees. Third, documents in form of strategic power point presentation were collected from the MarkCom department, the CorpCom department, the HR department and from the ExtAg.

The implementation of the corporate brand was examined by following a team of newly hired customer service employees through their introduction, training and work during their first three months of employment. I observed 13 full time call centre employees between 19 and 26 years of age. I began with moderate participant observations (Spradley, 1980) for week 1-3 during the training sessions. Then, interviews (Kvale & Brinckmann, 2001) were conducted in week 2-3. Finally, I individually shadowed (Czarniawska, 2003) 5 of the new staff members in order to explore how employees 'performed' the corporate brand. I also collected training material, newsletters from the upper-management and emails sent via the teams distribution list.

Findings and Contributions

An overview of the findings is presented in the table 1 below.

While theory adheres to the ideal of consistency, this empirical study shows that in practice consistency is difficult to obtain. Though MGP's management adopt the themes of integrated planning, aligning employees and coherent brand experiences in their rhetoric, the practices and consequences in reality show that the planning process is fragmented, the employees are positive but detached due to lack of knowledge and a cynical distanced front line stands in the way for coherency between brand promise and brand experience. Despite the lack of consistency between management's brand talk and brand action, which leads to a new brand decoupled from the organisational identity, the management still succeeds in reaching their corporate brand goal, namely changing the tainted image of MGP. In the press MGP is occasionally still accused of mis-treating their customers, being old fashion and bureaucratic, however now the management is armed with brand talk, a new vocabulary suitable for addressing the accusations. The management can and do always say, "we are working on it". Therefore the brand talk serves a purposeful function as brand hypocrisy.

The findings contribute to the extant corporate branding literature by challenges the assumption of consistency as the key to successful corporate branding (Balmer, 2001, Balmer & Gray, 2003, de Chernatony, 2002; Hatch & Schultz, 2001; 2003; 2008; Ind, 2001; Schultz, 2005, Schultz & de Chernatony, 2002). Even though the brand talk is not converted into brand actions, the brand talk has value in it self because it provides management with a new way of responding to angry customers or aggressive medias. The notion of brand hypocrisy supports Griffin's (2002) argument that the fundamental aim of the corporate brand are to respond to an uncertain environment, and the notion of consistency seem to be unable to embrace the diversity of stakeholders demands. This more political dimension of corporate branding is often overlooked. In the case of MGP the brand promise cannot be delivered by the organisation, because total customer orientation would be too costly. On the other hand is a lousy brand experience, due to cost cutting and employee reductions, difficult conveyed into a truthful brand promise. Then brand hypocrisy is a successful solution. Christensen, Morsing & Thyssen (2011) argue that discrepancies between desired identity and real identity may work to mobilise the organisation; this, however, seems not to be the case here. The desired identity simply seems too detached from the experienced reality. However, there is no real internal resistance or negative affects of the brand hypocrisy either, instead apathy seems to be the dominating response. Business continues as usual.

While these findings are based on a single case study and are thus contextual, situational and not necessarily generalizable, they do support previous empirical research on the internal implementation of branding, in particular Papasolomou-Daukais studies from the UK Bank sector. As she puts it, "Calling a tiger a sheep may not change its intrinsic nature, however well structured its disguise." (Papasolomou-Daukais & Kitchen, 2004).

Table 1: Empirical Findings

Theory	**Integrated planning**	**Aligning employees**	**Coherent brand experiences**
Rhetoric (management)	We take an holistic approach without any dividing lines between HR, Communication and Marketing	We need to change this from the inside	We need to deliver on our brand promise. Front line is responsible for giving our customers a coherent brand experience
Actions (organisation)	Marketing is given the budgets HR is cut down in personnel HR management show no interest in how MGP's identity is presented	Cascade communication via executives and middle managers Employee communication on the day of the launch	The Call Centers are not included in the process. They launch the new corporate brand and values as just another campaign.
Consequences (stakeholders)	New job ads are produced by HR to secure external consistency Internally the collaboration breaks down The CorpCom department is given the responsibility for internal mobilizing	Executives change the brand values in their cascade communication. Expectations are build among employees but only basic activities happen. Employees are disappointed and remain uninformed.	The brand is not integrated into the performance measurement systems. The employees are punished for performing according to the brand promise. The employees become cynical distanced
Empirical results	**Fragmented planning process**	**Detached employees**	**Cynical brand experiences**

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Session 7.4

Brand Governance in Social Networking Site Communities

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Geoff Simmons, University of Ulster, United Kingdom
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The Building of Brand Affective Equity
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Impact of Storytelling on Consumer Behavior:
The Case of Storytelling and Website's Stickiness

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Introduction

The continued growth of social networking sites has attracted considerable interest in both marketing research and practice. Marketers have proved eager to exploit the potential the sites offer (Helm & Jones, 2010). Foremost has been the prospect of leveraging the sites to engage with virtual communities of consumers (Jones, Temperley, & Lima, 2009). However the sites can present a host of challenges to brand managers. On the one hand virtual communities which champion brands have been identified (Cova & Pace, 2006). Others in contrast draw attention to activists or saboteurs, capable of creating brand uncertainty (Cova, Kozinets, & Shankar, 2007; Kucuk, 2008; Kucuk, 2010). Through social networking sites brands can be exposed to a wide audience increasing the coverage awarded to the brand. Additionally, through the selection and interpretation of brand events the sites can contribute to the framing of the brand in positive or negative terms. This framing can provide audiences with visible public approval or disapproval of brands and their associated actions. Importantly however, traditional brand management practices from previous operating environments may no longer be valid in the context of social networking sites. Overall, it is fair to say that the approaches and processes by which brand managers can *govern* the brand within its associated community on social networking sites are under-researched and under-theorised.

Purpose

It follows that the overall aim of this paper is to present a state-of-the-art review of the brand management literature. Specific objectives are to identify and define the conceptual bases for understanding brand governance in relation to social networking site communities. The case for investigating governance as a practice of brand management can be made from a synthesis of the literature. First, Helm & Jones (2010) present social networking technologies as a key risk factor to future brand equity that needs to be addressed. In an age of social networking firms need to implement procedures to mitigate the risks these platforms can present to their corporate reputation or brand image (Jones et al., 2009). However few studies examining branding have attempted to recognise the role of brand governance processes and the concomitant outcomes within social networking environments. Second, the marketing discipline has witnessed a transition from a transactional to a relational orientation (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). The result is an explicit recognition of the reciprocal co-creation of value between brands and networks of consumers. Within this context brands are presented as a platform for the exploration of power dynamics (Boyle, 2007; Hatch & Schultz, 2010). Third, the hegemony of consumer communities over brands on social networking platforms can interfere with brand values (Christodoulides, 2009). Arvidsson (2005) comments that brand management is not a disciplinarian practice and notes the absence of sanctions. However a number of authors call for brand management to take a prominent role in protecting brand equity (Helm & Jones, 2010; M'zungu, Merrilees, & Miller, 2010). Finally, extant studies of virtual communities of consumers display an orientation towards the consumer-to-consumer interactions and behaviours within the community. Subsequently such studies overlook interactions between the brand owner and the virtual community. This is despite the recognised challenge of interacting with the collective actor of community (Cova & Pace, 2006). Moreover it is acknowledged that brands provide the loci for relationships to develop between the consumer and the firm, with governance viewed as an endogenous relationships facet (Bello, Katsikeas, & Robson, 2010).

This paper begins to address the limitations of the existing brand literature by theorising the role of brand governance within social networking site communities. A review and synthesis of the brand, virtual community and governance literatures, enables the conceptual bases for understanding brand governance in social networking site communities to be identified and defined. A conceptual framework derived from this review is presented in Figure 1 and subsequently discussed.

Towards a Conceptualisation

Governance has been variably defined within the broader marketing and management disciplines. Palmer (1998) views it as the means of regulating relationships between a system's inter-related components. Anderson & Coughlan (2002) term governance as a set of frameworks designed 'to insure orderly pursuit of goals and resolution of conflict' (p. 224). Heide (1994) provides another, broader perspective encompassing all activities from relationship creation to termination. This range of activities includes the mechanisms required to structure and control the relationship. Subsequently, brand governance in social networking site communities is offered as a practice encompassing the structuring and maintenance of the relationship between the brand and the community, the aim of which is brand equity protection.

Determinants of brand governance A brand orientation is espoused by M'zungu et al. (2010) as a precursor of brand governance to protect brand equity. This resonates with Fournier, Sele, & Schögel (2005) who note those organisations with a strong brand orientation having an interest in gaining influence over brand communities. In addition research by Hankinson (2002) demonstrates how managerial style and approach are determined by the degree of brand orientation. A second determinant of the governance approach adopted by the organisation may be the presence of shared values between the brand owner and the community. Voss & Voss (1997) present the existence of mutual shared values as a determinant of relationship commitment. Such a commitment may subsequently impact how governance is enacted by the brand owner.

Brand governance approaches In developing a typology of inter-firm relationship governance strategies Heide (1994) elucidates how governance theory has developed along two divergent paths. These are the unilateral and bilateral governance forms, each representing a different approach to managing the relationship. The unilateral approach is characterised by a hierarchical and formal exercise of authoritarian control. In contrast the bilateral approach represents a socialised form of control predicated on relational norms. Relational norms refer to a consensus of what constitutes acceptable behaviour in the relationship and evoke rule-like status (Gilliland, Bello, & Gundlach, 2010). These governance forms are however second-order constructs which are manifest through governance processes which maintain the relationship (Heide, 1994).

Governance processes Gilliland et al. (2010) note that governance processes impact upon exchange partner behaviours and the outcomes of the relationship. Fournier et al. (2005) add that within a community context, the relationship between the brand and the community will be continually shaped by the actions of the brand.

Relationship partners have been found to be subject to *dual* control processes (Gilliland et al., 2010). That is, when attempting to manage the brand through exerting unilateral authority over their exchange partner, the corollary is that the firm will be subject to bilateral controls emanating from the social bond of the relationship. In the community context, the brand owner will therefore be subject to bilateral controls from the community. As Aggarwal (2009) has shown, relationships between brands and consumers are based on norms of behaviour. Subsequently both relationship parties are then expected to adhere to the norms of the relationship. This governance process resonates with bilateral governance where self-control is implicit.

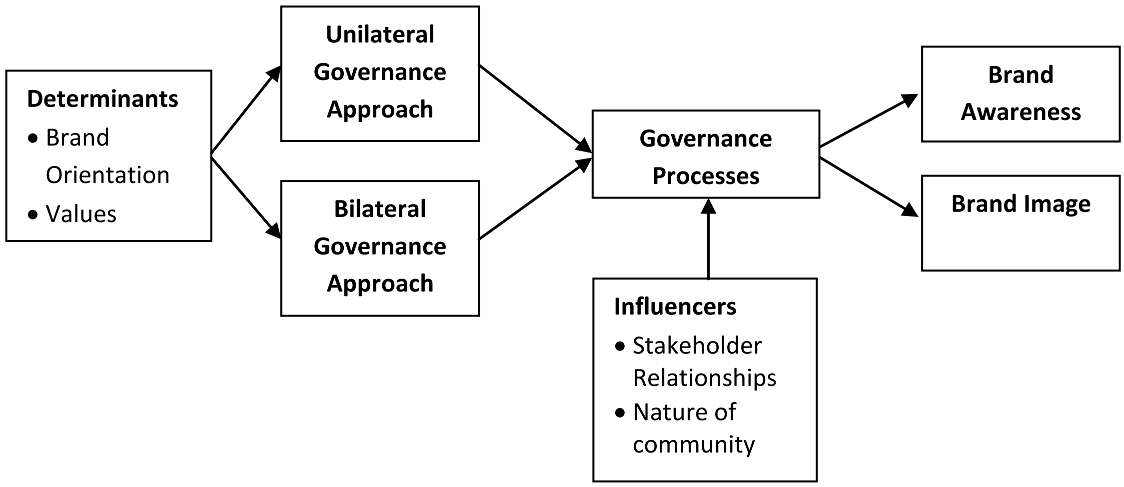
Influencers In discussing the practice of governance, Heide (1994) articulates how relationship dyads are situated within a network of other relationships. These relationships may themselves introduce additional implications for governance. Adopting a stakeholder theory approach, this relational network may consist of those relationships with other external stakeholders which impact how governance is enacted. In addition the brand's governance processes may also be influenced by the nature of the community and its inclination towards the brand.

Outcomes It is acknowledged that the value of a brand is determined by customers (Keller, 1993; Keller, 2009). This is manifest as Customer-Based Brand Equity (CBBE). Keller (1993) conceptualises CBBE as consisting of brand knowledge, a construct composed of brand awareness and brand image. Consequently CBBE accumulates when customers hold favourable opinions of the brand. However within the social networking site context it is observed that the managerial approach taken may create opportunities or threats for the brand (Jones et al., 2009). Brand awareness can be impacted as the sites expose brands to a wide audience. Brand image may be similarly impacted through the sites framing the brand in positive or negative terms in response to brand events, actions and experiences.

Summary

Through engagement with the broader literature this paper conceptually advances the idea of brand governance. The contributions of the paper reside in several areas. A conceptual framework of brand governance within social networking site communities is offered (Figure 1). This model offers an integration of unilateral and bilateral governance within brand management strategies in the social networking context. Factors capable of determining and influencing brand governance within the community context of social networking sites are identified. Finally the potential impact on brand equity of brand governance in social networking site communities is highlighted. Overall this paper responds to direct calls for brand management to play an active role in the protection of brand equity by attempting to conceptualise the various approaches to brand governance in social networking site communities.

Figure 1 Brand governance in social networking site communities



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The Building of Brand Affective Equity
How Do People Like Kiva and Zopa: An investigation into the social media?
Do people like not-for-profit brands more than lucrative brands?

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ABSTRACT
Two driving forces command the propriety of a new reflection on brand equity:
1) Fast growing and maturing industries motivate acquisitions and mergers, although for different reasons. The perspective of acquisition in any sector of activity requires a practical understanding of the brand valuation of the target firms. We will later explain how the valuation of acquired and merged firms is mainly based on intangible assets, and in particular in brands, rather than tangible assets.
2) The value of intangible assets in general and brand equity, especially, are progressively going out of control of the firms because of the massive introduction of the social and consumer-generated media (Edelman, 2010).
While the impact of the social media on branding has led to some studies (Assadi & Ashta 2009, Assadi & Ashta 2010), the above observation divulgates a field which is much less explored within the brand studies: Are there specific attitudinal patterns that the Internet users above about the brands and their representations which can be discerned from the direct and independent conversations and interactions between customers within the Web 2.0 media? Do they correspond to the official narratives conceived and disseminated by the firms?
Managers need to compare the stories told and retold by customers and individuals in the social media with those conceived by their own companies. Discrepancy can be fatal. Perhaps the key implication for marketers is managing to approach to the stories circulating on the Internet about their brands.
This paper studies the influence of people on brands and not brands (firms) on people ('s perception). We believe that the findings of the research go beyond the microfinance sector and present both practical and theoretical interests to all social organizers looking for funding from social investors.

When Individual Experience becomes Brand Communication: Influence of Dialogue Enabling Networks

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KEYWORDS
Brand management, Brand communication, Dialogue enabling networks, New branding model.

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the study is to investigate the influence of brand communication being influenced by the individuals experience that is communicated on social networks. There has been a paradigm shift in explanation of brand from as merely “A name, sign or symbol used to identify items or services of the seller(s) and to differentiate them from goods of competitors.”(John Pallister, 1990), a set of assets (or liabilities) linked to a brand's name and symbol that adds to (or subtracts from) the value provided by a product or service (Aaker, 1964), to a brand is a promise, by identifying and authenticating a product or service it delivers a pledge of satisfaction and quality.(Landor 2010)

The main point behind all definitions is that brands have a value to the businesses that own and run them that goes beyond what the layman would assume – especially when brand-building is considered to be merely advertising.

Over the last few decades, growing a brand is typically seen as the core job of the marketing department because a stronger brand leads to a stronger business. In this task, generally, their key ally is an advertising agency. This is because the tendency has been to equate branding with communication and to spend large amounts of money in the media. . The brand communication model, in short was a monologue (fig-1)

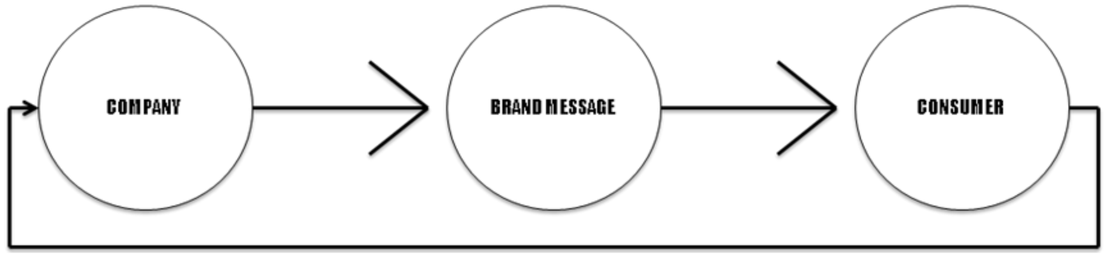

Fig-1 Brand Communication through media.

However, media has its limitations. All media messages are constructed, Media messages are constructed using a creative language with its own rules, Different people experience the same messages differently (Beth Lane, 2007).

A medium itself, not the content it carries, should be the focus, medium affects the society in which it plays a role not only by the content delivered over the medium, but also by the characteristics of the media itself (, McLuhan 1964)

The social networks or Consumer Generated Media (CGM0 is gaining importance. Social networks and the need to communicate are universal human conditions. A general assumption is that communication technologies help to increase and strengthen social ties. The Internet provides many social networking opportunities. people use social networking sites to expand their personal networks, to find people who have had similar experiences, to discuss a common hobby(Coyle, 2008).

Today, because most branding professionals and marketers are treating social media like traditional media, there is an issue of a far vaster universe of consumers who are consuming brands and creating brand communication about them.

The web and social networks have a construction that is more aptly described as an iceberg – ninety percent of it is below the surface and out of a marketer’s control.(Fig-2)

In fact, most of these areas of the net are only controlled by individual experience and so are the opinions and view expressed there.

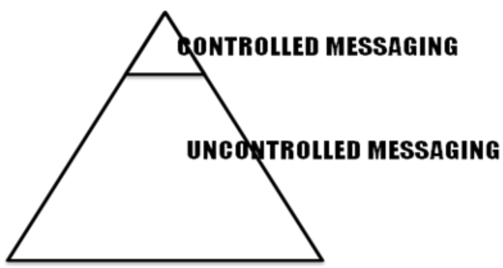

Fig-2 Control on web Communication

LITERATURE REVIEW

Brand experience is conceptualized as sensations, feelings, cognitions, and behavioral responses evoked by brand-related stimuli that are part of a brand’s design and identity, packaging, communications, and environments. Moreover, brand experience affects consumer satisfaction and loyalty directly and indirectly through brand personality associations (Josko, 2009), integrating marketing communications involves mixing and matching different communication options to establish the desired awareness and image in the minds of consumers. The versatility of on-line, interactive marketing communications to marketers in brand building is also addressed. (Kevin 2009). Consumer-generated communication processes have drawn increasing attention of marketers and researchers.

However, an under researched issue is that interpersonal communications are not always brand specific. Thus, a person can adopt a brand either as a result of communication with adopters of that brand (within-brand influence) or as a result of an interaction with adopters of competing brands (cross-brand influence), (Barak, 2009). When new products and brands are introduced into other cultures, the speed and extent of the product's acceptance are important concerns for marketers. The spread of positive word of mouth (WOM) and the lack of negative WOM about the product or brand by early adopter groups are critical to the product's successful diffusion in a population (Desmond, 2009). Brands have evolved to represent much more than the traditional markers of quality, trust and reliability to consumers. Brands have become embedded in the consumer psyche and offer consumers the opportunity for self-expression, self-realisation and self-identity (Angela, 2009).

METHODOLOGY

The paper is conceptual in nature. The authors designate the social networks influencing brands such as Facebook, Twitter, Orkut and other so-called social media as the Dialogue Enabling Networks (DEN), and test its influence on a brand by using 8 companies in India to arrive at a new brand communication model. The competition, company and the brand message as external factors and a company's ability/inability to control all its brand communication is studied. The study aims to find methods to prevent criticism on DENs.

THE NEW BRANDING ENVIRONMENT

The findings indicate that the new brand communication environment is that of a global village. You cannot communicate your way out of a product problem. It is the world of DENs. In other words, how the company should behave as a *brand.*

A new branding model

To match the requirements of the new paradigm a different branding model is developed by the authors. The model takes into account the way the competition is behaving, the environment and the consumer. The new communication model is a dialogue – not a monologue. It would have to be robust, yet malleable enough to change with the circumstances in a way that is in keeping with its core values and its soul.

DENs have made it possible for a person to influence thousands of others, instantly and effortlessly. The study identifies the influence of DEN on branding.

The paper offers an original and contemporary insight into the factors that constitute the new brand paradigm.

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Impact of Storytelling on Consumer Behavior: The Case of Storytelling and Website's Stickiness

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Abstract
Strong stories are told and retold. They become infectious. They are spread from employee to employee, from consumer to consumer, and, in some cases, from employee to consumer or consumer to employee. However, stories as assets are still under-employed. Research on storytelling, as a mode of communication, especially on the Internet, does not abound. To our knowledge, this is the one of the first papers which will compare the impact of storytelling on the Internet user behavior in comparison with the reason-based communication.
The online behavior that will be tested through experimentation is that of "stickiness". Stickiness means the amount of time spent at a website over a given period of time-typically in a time frame of 30 day. It is often measured in terms of the minutes that visitors spend and the number of page that they view on a website. When stickiness is calculated per month, a website's stickiness is considered to be a function of number of visits (repeat usage) and time spent per visit (session stickiness).In accordance with the novelty of the topic and the nature of the inquiry, our research methodology is based on experimentation. Three hypotheses are to be test through experimentation with regard to two alternative modes of message sending, storytelling and reason-based communication. A sample size of 40 students picked up by random selection on the college campus was selected for the study.
The findings of this study enable a deeper theoretical framework understanding of storytelling and facilitate a practical guide for using storytelling as a marketing or communication tool. It also highlights the impact of a specific type of communication on a website's stickiness that will consequently provide practical managerial implications. Our results will suggest ways by which organizations can increase stickiness on their Web sites.
Keywords
Storytelling, communication, Communication strategy, Positioning, Brand management, Emotions.

Session 8.1

The Role of Communication in Establishing Asian High Fashion Brands in the West

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Culture's Influence on Consumer Purchase Attitudes toward Luxury Fashion Brands over the Internet: Development of Conceptual Framework

Jaehee Jung, University of Delaware, U.S.A.

Validation of Brand Experience Instrument to measure Young Consumers Experience with Fashion Brands

Ahmed Rageh, Fayoum University, Egypt
T C Melewar, Brunel University, U.K.
Marc Fetscherin, Rollins College, USA

An Exploration of Own Brand Retailers' Perspectives on Sustainable Consumption of Clothing

Helen Goworek, Nottingham Trent University

**Is this Sponsor a Good Exemplar?
Investigating Sport Sponsorship as a Goal-Derived Category**

Peter Dickenson, Loughborough University, United Kingdom
Chanaka Jayawardhena, Loughborough University, United Kingdom

The Role of Communication in Establishing Asian High Fashion Brands in the West

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Introduction

This paper explores the role of communication in establishing an Asian high fashion brand in the West. It draws on a wider qualitative study of the internationalisation of South East Asian high fashion brands to focus on four leading Malaysian designer brands: Zang Toi, Bernard Chandran, Melinda Looi and Jimmy Choo. Findings suggest that key issues include choice of brand name, consumer perception of value and quality, English language competence and ability to adapt to local culture, clarity of communication with internal and external networks, excellent and innovative brand identity, and astute use of media, showbusiness and other integrated marketing communication channels. Limitations and future research directions are discussed.

Research in High Fashion Brand retailing

The relatively under-researched marketing area of global high fashion is deserving of serious attention from researchers, not least because it has sustained one of the highest annual growth rates of any industrial sector over the past ten years (Okonkwo, 2007). Hines and Bruce (2007) suggest that fashion mixes aesthetics, technology and business, and crosses boundaries between marketing and the cultural industries. There are many definitions of "Fashion" and each definition encompasses different aspects, such as garments, clothing, apparel, glamour, trend, style or an individual's distinctive identity (Remaury, 1999; Niessen et al, 2003; Easey, 1995; Bruce et al, 2004). The concept of fashion in this paper is predominantly focused on clothing, which becomes 'fashion' through branding. In particular, the study focuses not on mass market or high street fashion but on the establishment of ready-to-wear designer ranges by Haute Couture Houses (Sorenson, 1995), hence the 'high fashion' designation for this research. These categories are not unproblematic. In some cases, the fame of the ready-to-wear range means that the designer is then commissioned asked to make more couture. In other words, the process of brand building can occur in reverse, not from haute couture downwards, but from designer wear upwards. Giorgio Armani for example, decided in 2005 to begin showing haute couture for the first time (Tungate, 2005). High fashion designers establishing their brands typically have one prestige flagship retail store in a major capital city consistent with Jackson and Shaw's (2001) taxonomic category of the " 'Single Independent' store, and they typically rely heavily on the prestige of the key designer as a personified brand.

The branding of high fashion dates from the mid-nineteenth century in Paris when the couturier, Worth, branded his designs in order to discourage counterfeiting (De Marly, 1980). Western high fashion brands have enjoyed global success as Gucci, Louis Vuitton, Prada, Gianni Versace, Calvin Klein, Dolce & Gabanna among many others are now hugely popular in South East Asia. There have been some notable successes in the opposite direction with Asian high fashion brands becoming recognised in the West but these successes remain uneven in origin, exceptional and relatively small in number. Moore et al (2000) have highlighted that 'designer' brands has been a neglected area in the international retail branding literature. Among the Asian high fashion brands that have been successful in the West, most have historically been from Japan and Hong Kong (Niessen et al, 2003: 216; Pointer, 1998). Other successes include Andrew Gn from Singapore, Thakoon Panichgul and Nagara Sambandaraksa from Thailand, Zaldy Coco from Philippines, and Oscar Lawalata and Irsan from Indonesia (Chin, 2005, Niessen et al, 2003). However, it is surprising to discover that, among South East Asia, the internationalisation of Malaysia high fashion brands is at the forefront. The increased development of internationally successful Asian brands is clearly dependent on stronger branding (Roll 2006: Temporal, 2006) and this needs to take into account of many factors especially the consumers' sense of the uniqueness, value and quality of the brand identity (Chernatony and McDonald, 2003; Aaker, 1996). It is therefore interesting to take some leading Malaysian high fashion brands as exemplary cases of successful internationalisation in this competitive and growing field.

Method

Following Yin (1994), Hackley (2003) and Miles and Huberman (1994) this study deployed a qualitative case study approach in seeking rich contextual descriptions and insights in this previously under-researched area. Interviews were conducted between December 2006 and September 2008 in the interviewees' business premises in Kuala Lumpur, Singapore, London and New York, and were digitally recorded, transcribed and analysed according to qualitative data analytic principles of coding, thematic interpretation and triangulation through extensive secondary information about the companies' activities. Sampling was purposive and focused on leading Malaysian designers since these have been the most successful of all South East Asian brands in establishing in the West.

Findings: the value of publicity

High fashion branding is driven by publicity (Sorenson, 1995) which in turn generates word of mouth, but founded on strong brand values. Establishing a new high fashion brand normally entails heavy investment in a production facility and line of products, a flagship retail outlet, and presence at the right fashion shows. The catwalk shows are the main platform for designers and the goal is to get noticed by fashion journalists and other influential individuals. If successful, this creates momentum for the brand through publicity and, if the designer is lucky, celebrity endorsement if their brand is chosen to wear by stars at public occasions, generating even more publicity. Contacts and connection to industry networks are essential to facilitate the publicity. For example, Vogue magazine fashion editor Tamara Mellon took up the cause of Jimmy Choo shoes and did much to enhance their image. Princess Diana then began to favour

Jimmy Choo, and the brand also featured in the TV series Sex and the City. Bernard Chandran's designs have been worn by Estelle and Lady Gaga, English musician Little Boots and R&B singer Rihanna, not to mention the Royal families of Brunei and Malaysia as well as two former Miss Universes. In addition to incidental product placement, endorsement and publicity, fashion houses selectively use conventional advertising.

Brand values, brand name and quality

But the brands would not have been successful had not the designers been obsessive about the brand with regard to design, craft and quality. The brand values are established by the craft skills, personality and design flair of the designer, hence high fashion brands need to reflect these elements in every respect, from the choice of brand name through every step of the branding and marketing process. Chernatony and McDonald (2003: 103) suggest that idiosyncratic approaches to naming brands can lead to failure. Okonkwo (2007: 115) suggests that a brand name should be "short, simple and easy to spell and pronounce". As is conventional in high fashion, three of the four designers chosen for this study used their own family name with a Western nickname: Jimmy Choo, Bernard Chandran and Melinda Loi. Zang Toi's first name, though not English, is easy to remember and pronounce for Westerners. This fits with Bell (2008) and Hang's (2006) findings that Asian companies choose English-sounding names so that their brands can appear global to the consumers. The investment of the designer's individuality into the brand goes much further than the name. Each designer insisted on a private label since this enables the designer to keep maximum control over product design, quality and innovation (Levy and Weitz, 1998; Moore, 1995) and thereby to keep control of the holistic brand personality by controlling every point of interaction with consumers (Chernatony and McDonald, 2003). In addition, each designer has a Western fashion education and understands how to link to key networks, but each also knows the value of the uniquely Asian element in adding a sense of uniqueness and taste to the brand. Zang Toi, for example, promotes a distinctive East meets West design ethos which is very much inspired by the uniqueness of Asian cultural design. This sense of the aesthetic distinctiveness of the brand is informed by an obsessive desire to achieve the highest quality for the consumer. As Zang Toi explained, "*"Quality is the key. I choose the fabrics for my ladies very deliberately, and the quality must be the top", while Jimmy Choo concurred, "It is so much easier to just make beautiful shoes. But for me, I am passionate in making elegant and yet comfortable shoes. I use materials as soft as leather and also the right mould to minimise discomfort."*

Price communicates quality in high fashion, but even for high fashion designer brands, value for money can be important as well as quality and comfort. Each pair of couture shoes would typically take 2-3 weeks to make, and would cost around £200 to £500, despite being done by hand. Jimmy Choo explained *"I had to aim for this market", he said, "because women would not pay these prices for ready-to-wear shoes," stressed Choo (*interview in Hurst & Solovieva, 2006, p.34). This comment is revealing in that it demonstrates that high fashion is not immune from the considerations that face other sectors. Even an iconic brand like Jimmy Choo shoes cannot simply ignore the consumers' requirements for comfort, value and service.

Concluding comments

This paper has outlined some key findings which emerged from a detailed study of successful branding of Asian high fashion brands in the West. Communications issues are prominent: the high fashion brand business intersects showbusiness and celebrity culture, but it is founded on fundamental brand values of quality, service and value. The contribution of this study is that it offers contextual practical detail as to how these elements play out in a major global industry, with implications for future research and practice in branding, high fashion marketing and branding, and brand internationalisation.

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Culture's Influence on Consumer Purchase Attitudes Toward Luxury Fashion Brands Over the Internet: Development of Conceptual Framework

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Introduction

Consumers hesitate to buy luxury fashion products over the Internet despite the fact that e-commerce has been one of the important retail channels for companies around the world. Although the demand for luxury online sales is on the increase (Okonkwo, 2005), luxury brands face unique challenges of selling products online. Some have raised the issues of the compatibility of the Internet with luxury brands, while others have suggested that the Internet is purely a communication channel for luxury brands (Okonkwo, 2009). Given the fact that brand-related experiences are a core part of luxury brands (Atwal & Williams, 2009), there might be more fundamental issues for luxury brands, including many fashion products, as to why they have not been successful in transferring consumer demand over the Internet. Despite the increased consumer interest for luxury fashion brands and proclivity toward clicking a mouse to browse/purchase products over the Internet, particularly among younger demographics, little to no information is available on consumer attitudes toward purchasing luxury fashion brands over the Internet. In addition, there is no Information on how cultural characteristics would play a role in consumer purchasing behaviors toward luxury fashion brands over the Internet.

Purpose

The proposed study aims to develop a conceptual framework capturing culture's influence on consumer's purchase attitudes toward luxury fashion brands over the Internet in a cross-cultural context between the U.S. and China. As Chinese e-commerce is developing at a dazzling speed, one out of every three Chinese Internet users, or one out of 10 Chinese people is shopping online (Internet World Stats, 2010). However, luxury fashion brands are yet to offer their products to Chinese consumers over the Internet. Cultural orientations are believed to influence consumer perceptions toward luxury fashion brands, which in turn influence consumer behaviors over the Internet. Consumers in different regions have different cultural characteristics and these cultural characteristics are likely to influence consumer perceptions about luxury fashion brands and what they expect of them to be associated with their purchase and consumption. Similarly, consumers of different cultures may have different retail expectations about consumer products and expectations about luxury products may be a lot more specific and demanding given the fact that consumers have to pay the premium prices.

Top-Down Dynamic Between Luxury Brands and Consumers and Cultural Characteristics

Consumers look up to luxury brands and this relationship between consumers and luxury brands can be characterized as being 'top-down' as luxury brands cater to consumers who seek ostentatious consumption to stamp their superiority and maintain distance from the mass (Okonkwo, 2009). According to Hofstede's (1980, 1991) cultural dimensions, cultures with high Power Distance, mostly Eastern collectivistic countries such as China, understand that less powerful members of institutions and organizations accept that power is distributed unequally. In fact, Chinese consumers are known to be highly respective of authority (Lau, 1999) and they look for opinion leaders like celebrities when making purchase decisions. Because Chinese society is known to have a greater degree of collectivism and power distance than the U.S., it is presumed that the top-down dynamic between luxury brands and consumers to a large extent would be more suitable in the Chinese cultural context. This means that luxury brands of premium image should be well respected in China and consumers would be more willing to buy luxury products to emulate social class that is being pursued and respected within China. In addition, luxury fashion brands are often used to enhance one's social status via public display and because Chinese society considers social status and saving face by means of wealth important (Graham & Lam, 2004), luxury fashion brands should be more appealing to Chinese consumers than they are to U.S. consumers.

China is a group-oriented and Confucian-based culture where personal interaction has been a long tradition. Confucianism defines rules for interactions among people, as well as their roles and obligations to one another to maintain harmony among people who are not equal in power emphasizing hierarchical relationships. Despite the increased interest for Internet shopping, it is not clear to what extent buying products over the Internet would be suitable to this culture as Chinese consumers may view interactions with sales associates in a brick-and-mortar store more favorably over shopping in the virtual store when purchasing products. For products that consumers have to pay premium prices, the interaction between the customer and sales associates can be a symbol of social status in such as way that customers expect to be treated better by sales associates during their shopping experience. Therefore, consumers in China will be less willing to buy luxury fashion products over the Internet than consumers in the U.S.

Top-Down Dynamic and Use of Social Media

The top-down dynamic between luxury brands and consumers may influence not only the level of desire for luxury products, but may also impact the use of social media (e.g., facebook, twitter) by luxury fashion brands. While luxury brands can be characterized in terms such as exclusivity, being in control, and limit in access for the niche market, social media is perceived as a destination for the masses. A major challenge for luxury brands would be then how to maintain the level of desire and exclusivity on the Internet that is accessible by the mass consumer. More and more companies are utilizing the social media tools within companies' official websites as ways to understand about their consumers and to promote their products. Through the social media sites consumers get to evaluate product qualities and discuss 'likes' and 'dislikes' of which comments become immediately available without being censored. Despite the fact luxury brand companies are increasingly using advanced Internet technologies and its accompanying interactive tools such as social media, they have shown relatively low commitment for adopting them into their sites, perhaps due to the fear that they might lose control over their brand sites. According to Okonkwo (2009), "if the unique relationship that luxury has with its clients were to be replaced in the context of the Internet where the consumer is in total control and expects to be looked up to, it would likely lead to resistance, apprehension and anxiety from the top (the luxury brand); and confusion, surprise, and disappointment from the bottom (the luxury client) (p. 303). Because the Chinese culture provides an ideal environment for the top-down relationship between luxury brands and consumers, this process of getting feedback from consumers, i.e., bottom-up, regarding luxury products would be considered neither effective nor desirable in this cultural context. This leads to a premise that Chinese consumers will be less willing to use social media sites to input their opinions about luxury fashion brands than U.S. consumers.

Development of Hypotheses

Based on the conceptual framework for culture's influence on consumer purchase attitudes toward luxury fashion brands over the Internet in a cross-cultural context between the U.S. and China, the following hypotheses are proposed, which could be tested in empirical research:

H1: Chinese consumers will be more willing to buy luxury fashion products than U.S. consumers.

H2: Chinese consumers will be less willing to buy luxury fashion products over the Internet than are U.S. consumers.

H3: Chinese consumers will be less willing to use social media sites to input their opinions about luxury fashion products than U.S. consumers.

Conclusion

Proposed relationships among luxury fashion brands, cultural characteristics, and the Internet shopping, and use of social media are shown in Figure 1. The next step would be then to test the above hypotheses using empirical data collected through a cross-cultural study between the U.S. and China with respect to consumers' attitudes toward luxury fashion brands over the Internet. Although the development of conceptual framework was centered on cultural differences between the U.S. and China, this proposed model can be adapted into other cultural contexts given the unique characteristics of luxury fashion brands.

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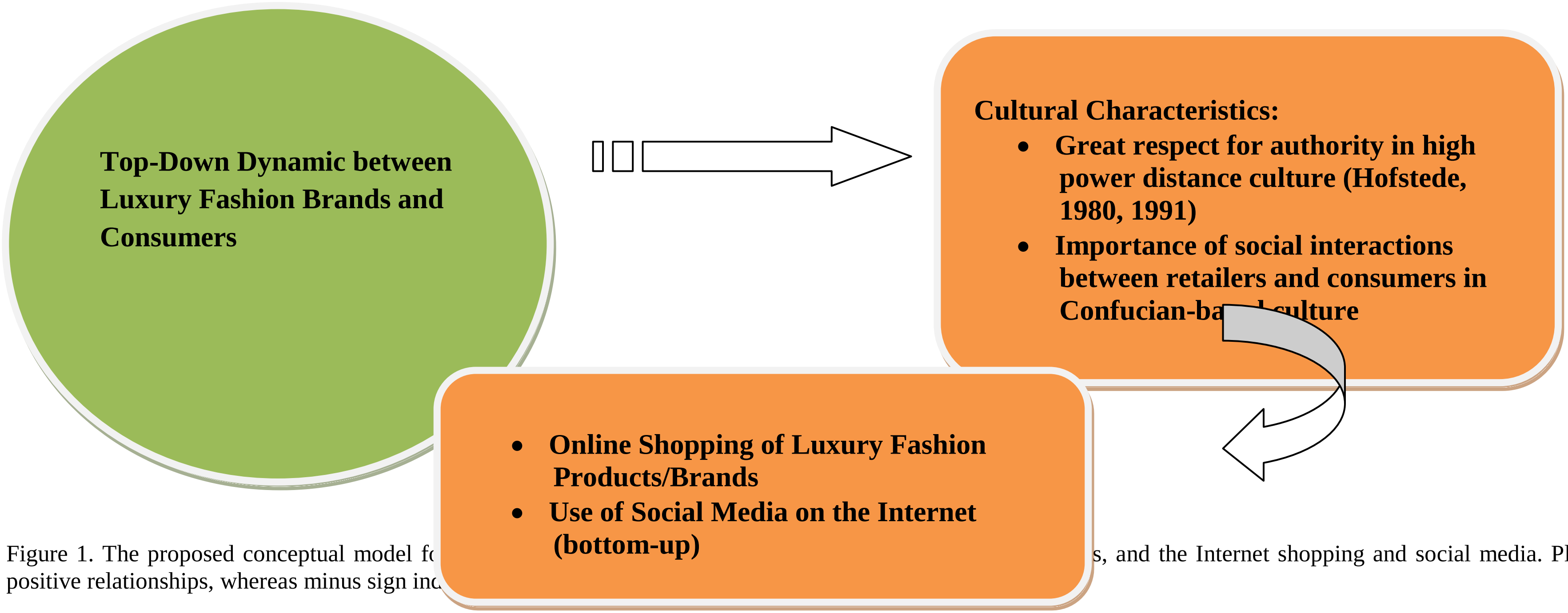

Figure 1. The proposed conceptual model f[…]s, and the Internet shopping and social media. Plus sign indicates positive relationships, whereas minus sign ind[…]

Validation of Brand Experience Instrument to measure Young Consumers Experience with Fashion Brands

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Abstract
Brand experience is a relatively new concept in the marketing literature. It has been considered and important element in understanding consumer behaviour. This study, through primary data collection and analysis, validates and extends a brand experience scale initially proposed by Brakus et al (2009) to the fashion industry. The results show that the scale should be modified to be relevant in the evaluation of fashion brands choices. The emerging fashion brand experience scale is the first step towards the conceptualisation of fashion brand experience and may be useful for practitioners when profiling purchasing customers.

Keywords: Brand experience, measurement, constructs validity, fashion brands.

Introduction
Pine and Gilmore (1999) describe the existing economy as 'the new experience economy' highlighting an increasing tendency towards delivering a configuration of unique, rewarding, and fulfilling (URF) experience to gain a competitive advantage. A careful review of the extant marketing literature revealed that there have been few attempts to define the concept of customer experience and its dimensions. In other words, the concept is poorly defined (Caru and Cova, 2003). A recent attempt by Brakus et al., (2009) has conceptualized brand experience as subjective, internal consumer responses (sensations, feelings, and cognitions) and behavioural responses evoked by brand-related stimuli that are part of a brand's design and identity, packaging, communications, and environments. To date no empirical studies have validated the brand experience scale proposed by Brakus et al (2009) and this work aims to fill such gap.

Dimensions of Brand Experience
The 'multi-aspect' conceptualization of experience can be traced back to Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) when they conceptualized the consumption experience under the heading of "Fantasies, feelings and fun". The experience dimensions are evoked by brand-related stimuli (e.g., colours, shapes, typefaces, designs, slogans, mascots, brand characters). There is no one-to-one correspondence, such that a certain stimulus type would trigger a certain experience dimension and only that dimension. For example, although colours, shapes, typefaces, and designs usually result in sensory experience, they may also result in emotions (e.g., red for Coca-Cola) or intellectual experiences (e.g., when designs use complex patterns). (Barakus et al., 2009, p.53)

The pioneers of the experience economy Pine and Gilmore (1999) claimed that experience consists of four dimensions: aesthetic, educational, entertaining, and escapist experiences. Additionally, Schmitt (1999) proposes five experiences: sense, feel, think, act, and relate. On the basis of the above literature, Brakus et al., (2009) developed a brand experience scale that captures the dimensions of brand experience. They employed a series of exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses for item reduction and confirmation of dimensions. the authors came up with four dimensions: sensory, affective, behavioural, and intellectual factors. They generated items for scale development along the five experience dimensions that were used in the current study.

This research is based on the observation that when consumers complete brand experience scales, some of the scales' items are not usually relevant, and that will depend on the brand being assessed. Additionally, it may be relevant to extend the current brand experience scale so as to encompass determinant factors that are specific of the product or of the industry under assessment.

Methods
Given the effort employed by fashion managers to develop fashion brads as to evoke a customer experience, this study has selected fashion brands as the application domain to ascertain the validation of the brad experience scale developed by Brakus et al (2009) Moreover, this study selected young consumers for the validation of the brand experience scale due to their interest in identifying themselves with the experience that the fashion brands they purchase can generate, rather than simply the clothes.

Brand experience scale developed by Brakus et al., (2009) is used in this study to assess consumer experience with their brands through four dimensions: sensory, affective, behavioural and intellectual. There are three items in each dimension; every item uses a 7-point Likert scale for measurement ranging from "1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree". The data collection was conducted in London among undergraduate students at Brunel University. Self-administered questionnaires were distributed among university students. A sample of 75 students was selected with ages between 16 and 22 years old. Respondents with age less than 16 years represent 1.3%, students with ages between 16 and less than 22 represents 74.7% and student with ages more than 22 represents 24% of the total sample. Students were from both genders (33.3% male and 66.7% female).

Analysis and results

We assessed the internal reliability of the four dimensions of brand experience by calculating a Chronbach's alpha for each dimension using the 12-item scale. De Vaus (2002) and Nunnally (1978) mentioned that the value of alpha equal to 0.70 or above indicates that the items make a reliable set. Reliability analysis was first used to remove items with low item-total correlations (<0.3) (Nunnally, 1978). All values were not satisfactory in the first assessment: the 3 sensory items = 0.49, the 3 affective items = 0.50, the 3 behavioural items = 0.21 and the 3 intellectual items = 0.43. As a result, all individual items that showed low item-to-total correlations were deleted to increase the levels of internal consistency.

The second assessment of the internal reliability showed satisfactory level; 2 sensory items = 0.68, 2 affective items = 0.78, 2 behavioural items = 0.72 and 2 intellectual items = 0.62. Nunnally (1978) suggests that a coefficient alpha of 0.5 or 0.6 is satisfactory in the early stages of research. Confirmatory factor analysis was performed using LISREL 8.80 to test whether the theoretically imposed structure of the underlying constructs exist in the observed data (Anderson and Gerbing, 1982). The sensory dimension was dropped because the loadings of the two items of sensory factor were 0.41 and 1.26. The first-order measurement model showed a satisfactory model fit, with a ratio of Chi-square to degree of freedom of 1.2 which considered a good fit (Marsh and Hovecar, 1985), RMSEA of 0.061, CFI of 0.95 (see figure 1).

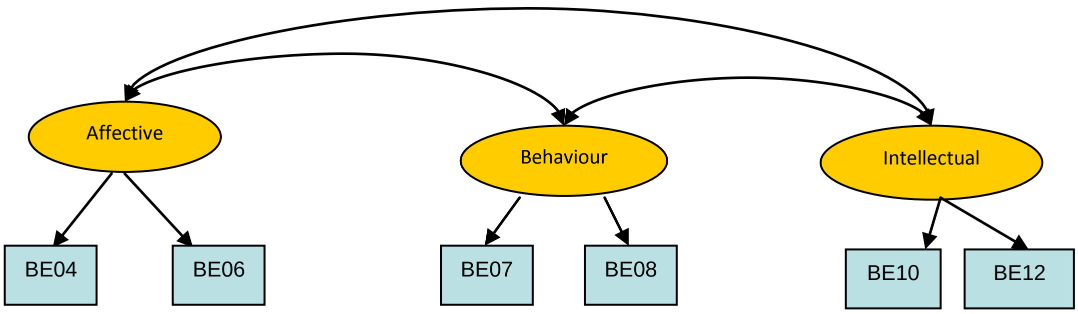

Fig. 1: The first-order measurement model Chi-square = 7.66; df = 6; P-value = 0.26437; CFI = 0.95; RMSEA = 0.061.

The table below shows that significant standardized loading, Chronbach α, average variance extracted, composite reliability are satisfactory in the first order three factor model. Because the average variances extracted were greater than 0.50, and composite reliability were greater than 0.70 (Hair et al., 2006).

Table 1: The results of confirmatory factor analysis

Factors and items	**loadings**	**CR**	**AVE**
Affective			
This brand induces feelings and sentiments	0.81	0.78	0.64
This brand is an emotional brand	0.78		
Behavioural			
I engage in physical actions and behaviours when I use this brand	0.66	0.74	0.59
This brand results in bodily experiences	0.86		
Intellectual			
I engage in a lot of thinking when I encounter this brand	0.59	0.56	0.47
This brand stimulates my curiosity and problem solving	0.77		

Next, discriminant validity was assessed for the three factors on the basis of criteria recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). CFA was run for each possible pair of constructs, first allowing for correlation between the two constructs and then fixing the correlation between the constructs at 1. In every case, the chi-square difference with one degree of freedom was greater than 3.841 for all models. Nonetheless, all models in which the correlation constrained to one showed bad fit; therefore, discriminant validity was confirmed (Bagozzi and Philips, 1982). The second-order model of brand experience scale also showed a good fit (see figure 2)

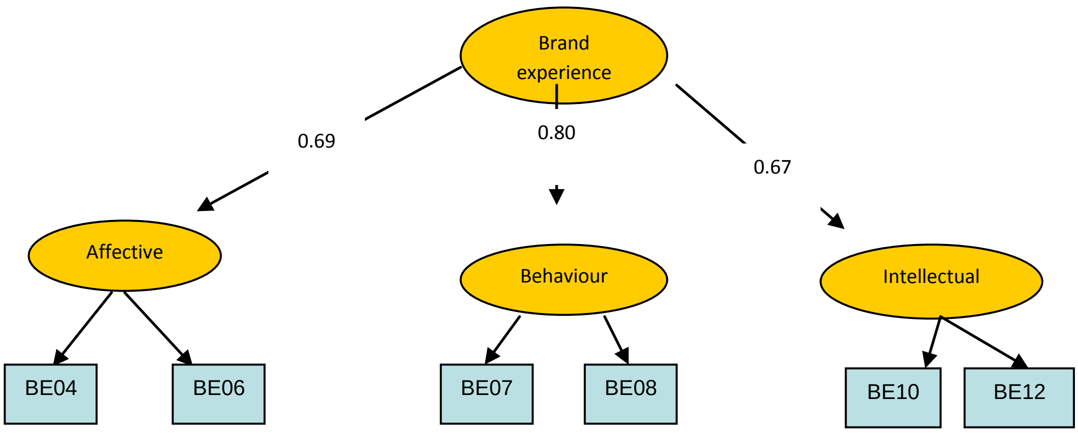

Fig. 2: The second-order measurement model Chi-square = 7.66; df = 6; P-value = 0.26437; CFI = 0.99; RMSEA = 0.061.
CR = 0.64 and VE = 0.52

Discussion

The purpose of this research was to validate the brand experience scale in the context of fashion. Brand experiences arise in a variety of settings when consumers search for, shop for, and consume brands. In the current study brand experience was conceptualized as subjective consumer responses that are evoked by fashion brand experiential attributes. Following the application of internal reliability and external validity tests onto the data collected, the resulting brand experience scale in the fashion industry results simplified. In the framework proposed here, the dimension of sensorial experience was eliminated and the results of the study demonstrated that fashion brand experience consisted of three dimensions (affective, intellectual, and behavioural). This pattern of findings suggests that while brand experience scale proposed by Brakus et al., (2009) taps four underlying dimensions of experience, the domain specific fashion brand experience taps only three factors. The validated scale will be useful not only in academic research but also in marketing practice. As marketers engage in projects to understand and improve the experience their brands provide for their customers, they can use the scale for assessment, planning, and tracking purposes.

Conclusion & recommendations

The result shows that the data fit the three-factor first-order model well, showing that the scale has a good construct validity. It means that the consumer assess their experience with fashion brands according to three basic dimensions of affective, behavioural and intellectual and the three dimensions are unified as a higher order factor brand experience. The scale can be used in measuring brand experience within consumer behaviour research. The validated brand experience scale in the current study serves a descriptive and diagnostic purpose for fashion brand marketers to better understand their brand experiences from the young consumer’s perspective and offers ways to improve customer experiences with their brands. First, intellectual dimension captures the intellectual experience with the brand. This information can be used to determine whether the brand stimulate thinking and creativity or not. Behavioural dimension of brand experience also specify whether the consumer will engage himself in some actions during wearing this brand. The brand experience scale can also serve as a segmentation tool that can categorise consumers according to their experiential needs allowing the profiling of consumers clusters according to the category they prioritise when shopping for fashion brands.

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An Exploration of Own Brand Retailers' Perspectives on Sustainable Consumption of Clothing

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Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to explore the views of own brand retailers regarding strategies to encourage sustainable consumption of clothing in the UK. Previous research has shown that UK retailers are expanding the range of sustainable clothing offered and that there is potential to widen this choice further to meet consumer demand. A study funded by the UK Government's Department for Environment, Farming and Rural Affairs (Defra) found that consumers were willing to change their patterns of behaviour in relation to clothing consumption if they were supplied with relevant knowledge on this issue and if sustainable clothing ranges were more widely available (Fisher, Cooper, Woodward, Hiller and Goworek, 2008). The aims of the research in this paper are to investigate the views of retailers on the findings of previous studies in relation to sustainable clothing and to encourage retailers to engage in more sustainable practices towards clothing consumption.

Conceptualisation

Environmental and social sustainability have become important issues for retailers in recent years, with increased demand from consumers for sustainable clothing (Wrigley 2008; Joergens 2006 and ASBCI 2006, Carrigan and Attalla 2001) evidenced by an increase of 93% in sales in this market in the UK between 2007 and 2008 (Co-operative Bank 2009). This paper defines sustainable clothing as incorporating one or more aspects of social or environmental sustainability, such as Fairtrade manufacturing or fabric containing organically-grown raw material. The Fairtrade label is used alongside the retailer's brand to guarantee that producers have received a fair price for their goods and a premium towards improving social sustainability in the locations where the manufacturers are based (Fairtrade Foundation 2010). Key sustainability issues in the clothing industry are: increasing sales of clothing; disposal of clothing; the use of pesticides in the production of raw materials; and employment rights (Bianchi and Birtwistle 2010; Birtwistle and Moore 2007; Pretious and Love 2006; Park and Stoel 2005).

Ethical consumerism and negative publicity in the media about the conditions in which certain clothing is manufactured (Jones, Temperley and Lima 2009; BBC 2008; Park and Lennon 2006; Shaw et al. 2006; Klein 2000) fuelled by pressure groups such as the Clean Clothes Campaign, is likely to have been a significant influence on the introduction of ranges of sustainable clothing sold by UK retailers. Such clothing ranges are frequently manufactured with Fairtrade accreditation or made from organic cotton. Alternative methods of improving the sustainability of clothing are through the use of fabric made from recycled bottles, fabric or yarn and selling second-hand 'vintage' clothing. Other sustainable approaches include the utilisation of post-industrial and pre-consumer waste material in the manufacture of clothing (Holmes, 2008), providing retailers with a range of viable methods for developing sustainable clothing.

UK consumers discard approximately one million tonnes of clothing per year much of which is unnecessarily disposed of in landfill sites, rather than being recycled (Defra 2009). Previous research revealed consumers' concern about the volume of waste produced by the disposal of clothing, but a lack of awareness of sustainable disposal procedures hindered them from acting more sustainably in this respect (Bianchi and Birtwistle 2010; Fisher et al 2008; Birtwistle and Moore 2007). Though retailers may not be considered directly responsible for situations which arise after the retail transactions have been considered, they could be considered liable for the increased production of clothing and accept some of the responsibility for addressing this issue.

It has become standard practice for companies to develop Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) policies or codes of conduct which can be implemented to improve retailers' sustainable practices (Cathcart 2006; Jones and Comfort 2005; Nichols 2002) often in conjunction with the appointment of an internal CSR manager by large retailers. Improvement of the retailer's brand image is one of the potential benefits of the development of a CSR policy. A link between CSR and enhanced business performance was identified by Wright and Heaton (2006) and Moon, Anastasiasis and Vigano (2009), though studies by Ellis and Higgins (2006) and Webley and Werner (2008) dispute the effectiveness of CSR policies in ensuring that companies behave ethically.

Despite the increase in demand for sustainable clothing, and interest in this topic from the Government, NGOs, academics and retailers, relatively few studies have been conducted on this topic (see for example, Allwood, Laursen, de Rodriguez and Bocken 2006; Rudell 2006; Iwanow, McEachern and Jeffrey 2005; Carrigan and Attalla 2001; Kim, Littrell and Paff Ogle 1999) none of which prioritise retailers' perspectives, thus indicating a requirement for further research in this area.

Methodology

Qualitative research with representatives from mass market own brand retailers, including some of the market leaders, are planned to be completed by February 2011. Semi-structured interviews will allow in-depth responses from the companies involved, with a degree of flexibility. Respondents will be offered the option of anonymity, as retailers have highly competitive strategies and therefore often seek to keep internal information confidential. CSR managers are being selected as interviewees because they are the key employees who help to shape retailers' CSR strategies and have a potentially significant impact on clothing retailers' sustainable practices. It is anticipated that there will be a positive response to participating in the study by several retailers, as some of the key retail brands (for example, the Arcadia Group and Tesco) participated in Defra's research into public understanding of sustainable clothing within stakeholder briefings (Fisher et al, 2008). 21 clothing retailers are members of the Ethical Trading Initiative (ETI) a voluntary industry body which seeks to improve ethical practice within the organisations concerned (ETI, 2010) demonstrating the active interest of retailers in ethical issues. The ETI has been approached to seek its support in requesting the participation of some of their members. The aim is to interview respondents from between six to ten UK retailers. The findings can therefore not be generalised across the whole market sector, but can be used as case studies.

Findings
Interviews will relate to environmental and social sustainability issues, including the use of materials which are organic or recycled and Fairtrade production of fabrics and clothing. Retailers' responses to consumers' views will be recorded. Findings will be shared with the participating companies. The findings of studies on the ethical fashion market and consumers' sustainable behaviour towards clothing (Hustvedt and Dickson, 2009; Fisher et al, 2008; Joergens, 2006; Iwanow, H., McEachern, M.G., and Jeffrey, A. 2005) have been evaluated in order to establish potential strategies which clothing retailers could adopt to improve the sustainability of their clothing ranges. These strategies could enable retailers to support customers to purchase, maintain and dispose of clothing more sustainably. Facilitating the implementation of such strategies will be discussed in the interviews. Possible barriers to implementing more sustainable strategies, such as financial, technical and practical aspects, in addition to conflict with existing corporate strategies, will also be explored. A key topic for discussion in the interviews will be choice editing retailers' ranges to limit their impact on the environment by offering more products which are produced by Fairtrade manufacturers or are made from environmentally and socially sustainable materials such as organic cotton or recycled fabric.

The interviews will also cover ways in which retailers can influence their customers' laundering, repair and disposal of clothes, which have a greater negative impact on the environment than clothing manufacture and distribution (Allwood, Laursen, Rodriguez and Bocken, 2006). Though these elements may be perceived as being outside of the remit of clothing retailers, stores could influence consumers by providing them with information about the maintenance and disposal via, for example, garment labelling and printed or online resources. Supplying this type of information and offering repair services could form part of the retailers' CSR strategies, rather than viewing them in terms of their profitability. The provision of recycling facilities in stores or shopping centres would enable retailers to provide a closed loop supply chain.

The sustainable strategies to be proposed to retailers in the interviews could meet with resistance due to the financial implications for the companies, though many could be implemented at limited expense, for example the dissemination of information about sustainability company websites and garment labels.

Original value
Consumer's views on sustainable clothing consumption have been explored in various previous studies but retailers' views have not yet been investigated in the literature. This research has value for retailers in general (not just limited to those involved in the study) and to academics in the fields of both retailing and sustainability.

Implications/limitations
The research outcomes could have implications for clothing retailers' CSR policies and practice, ultimately enabling consumers to adopt more sustainable practices towards clothing consumption. This study is limited to one retail sector in the UK and future research could cover a wider range of retailers at different market levels or in different countries.

Keywords: Sustainability, CSR, retail brands, clothing

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Is this Sponsor a Good Exemplar? Investigating Sport Sponsorship as a Goal-Derived Category

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Introduction

It is unclear why certain brands are assumed to be sponsors of sporting events even though they are not sponsors, while other brands, which are actually sponsors, are not associated at all. Previous studies examining this question have manipulated sponsor-sponsee relationships in such a way that it has limited one's understanding of sponsorship effects. Consequently, understanding how to capitalise or counteract these effects is inadequate, especially when marketing to specific consumers. The objective of this paper is to address this research question. In so doing we suggest a new approach.

Purpose

Due to the different suggested heuristics that are assumed to play a part in constructing sponsorship evaluations, it is proposed that sponsorship should in fact be investigated in terms of a goal-derived category, which consists of members (brands) that subjects think of when forming their consideration set. Goal-derived categories are defined as those categories created simply to achieve a particular goal where category members are taken from several taxonomic (product/service) categories and only become salient when relevant to the necessary goal (Barsalou, 1985). A consideration set is defined as "the set of brands that are brought to mind and scrutinized carefully at a particular choice occasion" (Suh, 2009). The graded structure of members distinguishes them from unordered sets (Rosch, Simpson and Miller, 1976). Graded structure refers to the "continuum of category representativeness, beginning with the most representative members of a category and continuing through its atypical members to those nonmembers least similar to category members" (Barsalou, 1985).

To the best of the authors' knowledge, 'sponsorship' per se has not been considered as a goal-derived category before. If such a category of 'sponsorship' can be found then it would suggest that particular factors would share unique correlations with member typicality. This is important because previous consumer-behaviour research has predominantly found a linear relationship between member typicality and brand evaluation measures (Loken, Barsalou and Joiner, 2008). It has also been suggested that the schema congruity effect, where moderate (in)congruity leads to greater evaluations compared to congruity conditions, may not occur in goal-derived categories (Noseworthy et al., 2010).

Methodology

Barsalou's (1985) methodology (study one) was closely followed, except only brand names were generated during the main part of the procedure. Unless otherwise stated, subjects were randomly chosen students from a large UK university, assigned to different conditions, where the research instrument had the appearance of a survey. Subjects in the first manipulation were asked to generate brands 'associated with the category: sponsorship' and were given a time period of 30 seconds for each category label. The brands which were mentioned by at least two separate subjects were included in the 'sponsorship' category. Output dominance scores were calculated by the number of times a brand was mentioned.

Subsequent subjects were either asked to rate 'exemplar goodness', 'ideals', 'frequency of instantiation' ('FoI') or 'central tendency' (a convenience sample was used for subjects completing the central tendency measures because of the considerable time needed to complete measures for this variable). If 'exemplar goodness' was being rated, subjects were told to circle a number on the 9-point scale, anchored by 'poor example' and 'excellent example'. If 'frequency of instantiation' was being rated, subjects were told to circle a number on the 9-point scale, anchored by 'not frequently at all' and 'very frequently'. If 'central tendency' was being investigated, subjects were asked to rate how similar they perceived each brand to be with the brand it was paired with when considering them together under the category of sponsorship. In total, there were 190 pairs of brands with anchors on the 9-point scale labelled 'not similar at all' and 'very similar'. If 'ideals' was being rated, subjects were told to circle a number on the 9-point scale, anchored by 'very low amount' and 'very high amount'. Unlike Barsalou (1985), they were not given a specific 'ideal' dimension. This is because subjects could perceive a number of 'ideals' that would make a brand a good sponsor. Brand ratings in each of these variables were averaged according to the procedure used by Barsalou (1985). Expertise was determined using a median split on an adapted version of Dickerson and Gentry's (1983) sports enthusiasm scale.

Results

Initially, correlation scores were calculated for all groups, before expert- and novice- groups were produced. Without an 'expertise split', all variables ('ideals', 'FoI', 'CT', 'exemplar goodness' and 'output dominance') appear to be significantly correlated with each other (correlations significant at at least the .05 level) apart from two – 'central tendency' and 'output dominance' and 'ideals' and 'output dominance'. Also, 'ideals' and 'exemplar goodness' and 'frequency of instantiation' and 'exemplar goodness' show the highest correlations, matching Barsalou's (1985) initial work, as well as suggesting 'FoI' and 'Ideals' could predict typicality of the 'sponsorship' category.

When investigating unique significant correlations (second-order partial correlations) between ‘FoI’, ‘ideals’ or ‘CT’ with typicality, we found that only ‘FoI’ displayed a significant unique correlation with ‘exemplar goodness’. There was also a marginally significant unique correlation between ‘FoI’ and ‘output dominance’ as well. ‘Ideals’ did not display unique significant correlation with ‘exemplar goodness’ or ‘output dominance’. ‘FoI’ being the most significantly correlated variable with ‘output dominance’ is also consistent with Barsalou (1985).

A regression analysis was performed on ‘exemplar goodness’ and ‘output dominance’ (dependent variables) and ‘FoI’ (independent variable). ‘FoI’ was found to make a significant, appreciable contribution to predicting ‘exemplar goodness’ and a significant, although not appreciable contribution to predicting ‘output dominance’.

Experts’ and Novices’ Results

Experts

‘FoI’ is the only variable which has a significant correlation with ‘exemplar goodness’. Although not significant, there is even a negative association between ‘output dominance’ and ‘ideals’. Second-order partial correlations reveal that ‘FoI’ is the only variable which has significant unique variance with ‘exemplar goodness’ and a marginally significant unique variance with ‘output dominance’.

Regression analysis was performed on ‘exemplar goodness’ and ‘output dominance’ (dependent variables) and ‘FoI’ (independent variable) for experts. ‘FoI’ was found to make a significant, appreciable, contribution to predicting ‘exemplar goodness’. However, it was not significant in the contribution to predicting ‘output dominance’.

Novices

Interestingly, ‘ideals’ is the only variable to have a significant correlation with ‘output dominance’ for novices. The lack of significant correlation of ‘output dominance’ with ‘FoI’ (frequency of instantiation) suggests novices may think of ‘ideal’ sponsors when generating the list (although what these ‘ideals’ are can only be speculated). ‘FoI’ and ‘central tendency’ are also significantly associated with ‘exemplar goodness’. Second-order partial correlations reveal that the only variable to have unique significant association with ‘exemplar goodness’ was ‘ideals’. It is also marginally significantly associated with ‘output dominance’.

Regression analysis was performed on ‘exemplar goodness’ and ‘output dominance’ (dependent variables) and ‘ideals’ (independent variable) for novices. ‘Ideals’ was found to make a significant, although not appreciable contribution to predicting ‘exemplar goodness’ and ‘output dominance’.

Generation of Members in the Category ‘Sponsorship’

A one-way ANOVA, using the median split for expertise, found there to be no significant difference between either group for the number of sponsors generated. Kendall’s coefficient of concordance also shows that there is a significant ranking agreement between novices, experts, and their combined scores. A one-way ANOVA was even computed on the original list, where experts and novices generated brands, which never made it to the final category of ‘sponsorship’. This too found there to be no significant difference between experts and novices.

Conclusions

This study suggests that a goal-derived category of ‘sponsorship’ exists and that sport expertise can be an important factor for the criteria chosen for sponsor typicality. ‘Ideals’ was found to have a significant unique correlation with typicality for novices but not experts. Assuming that novice subjects base their ‘ideal’ judgments of sponsors on some form of (relevancy) congruity basis (cf. Fleck and Quester, 2007), this would support previous sponsorship literature, which has found a positive relationship between constructs such as ‘match-ups’ or ‘fit’ and brand evaluations. This has previously led to academics and practitioners articulating ‘fit’ communication messages between the brand and the sponsee/event, which can often be a difficult task for many products. However, experts were found to judge typicality by ‘frequency of instantiation’ (FoI), which suggests that repeated (and long-term) exposure to the sponsoring brand will indeed produce more favourable typicality judgments for those consumers who follow sport more often, which is usually the target market a brand aims for when undertaking a sponsorship arrangement. Subjects’ responses to sponsorship usually involve long-term memory even though short-term responses are usually measured in a laboratory setting (Cornwell et al., 2000). The importance of ‘FoI’ for ‘experts’ in this study not only indicates that the measures used were appropriate but also suggests that long-term memory was accessed by some subjects, further contributing to our understanding of sponsorship research. The results should give both sponsoring brands and sports properties some confidence that, otherwise-incongruent brands can improve their sponsorship typicality ratings by taking a long-term view of the sponsorship deal. It also suggests that articulating a message about the length of time a brand has been associated with sponsorship could enhance the connection between the sponsor and sponsee/event, subsequently increasing sponsor typicality ratings. This is because consumers may start to believe a brand has been sponsoring a specific event for longer than it has because of specific communication about other previous sponsorships. Articulating this message is often a lot easier than a ‘fit’ or ‘match-up’ communication for many brands. Sponsorship residual effects should also be increase using this type of communication message as well.

This study casts also doubts over previous sponsorship methodologies. If 'FoI' is found to demonstrate an appreciable significant contribution to typicality, it suggests that previous research should also have considered brands subjects knew or were assumed to be sponsors and not just a (relevancy) congruity aspect.

Investigating sponsorship within a goal-derived category framework has much potential but there are still many areas which could be considered further. Future research could examine specific events or team sponsors or perhaps an alternative measure of 'expertise'. Finally, Fleck and Quester (2007) developed an expectancy-congruity and relevancy congruity scale for sponsorship. These two scales would appear to be closely linked to 'FoI' and 'ideals' respectively so it would seem appropriate to test this relationship as well.

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Session 8.2

Closing the Gaps – the Identity Struggle around GAP's Re-branding

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Dove Repositioning – 'The Dark Side'

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An Analysis of the Rebranding Opportunity against the Contemporary Challenges of Australian International Education Industry

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Segmenting McDonalds: Measuring Brand Map Attractiveness

Alan French, Loughborough University, UK
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Closing the Gaps – the Identity Struggle around GAP's Re-branding

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Introduction and Purpose

Even the most successful brands have to evolve by bringing their identities into a better correspondence with the changing consumer trends and competitive situations (de Chernatony, 1999; 2002). The re-branding campaigns are planned by managers while consumers often face the corporate change post-factum. In the era of Internet and increased influence of social media on consumer behavior, the corporate re-branding attempts cannot go unnoticed. On the contrary, they catch attention of internet community the minute a certain change occurs. Drawing on the recent episode of GAP's unsuccessful attempt to change its logo, this paper aims at exploring the reasons of the company's failure to re-brand itself by looking at the identity struggle that took place in the Internet directly after the re-branding move. The question I intend to answer is: *what is the impact of identity struggle between users and managers upon brand identity?* By looking at the individuals' identity struggle, I intend to increase our general understanding of the character of users-company interaction on the Internet and its impact upon brands. I purposefully talk about users and not consumers only, since the former combine different roles such as customers, employees, social stakeholders, marketing experts, etc, depending on the situation in which they act.

Methodology

The episode of Gap's rebranding has been studied with the usage of secondary sources (internet articles, forums, blogs, and corporate web-site). The texts taken from the corporate bulletins, internet magazines and twitter streams were analysed with the help of Weick's (1995; 2001) sense-making methodology. It allows developing a deeper understanding of the processes of organisational change by focusing on the ways in which its members construct frame, comprehend, construct meaning, interact and arrive at some mutual understanding of different events. Although the majority of actors under study were not members of the organisation, they represented a virtual community whose stakes in the company and its brand seemed to be as high as those of managers and employees. I have specifically studied the sense-making processes of customers (brand fans), designers, branding experts and top managers.

Conceptualisation

Conceptually, the paper integrates the literature on corporate branding, internet branding and sensemaking. It draws on the theories of corporate brand identity as represented by the mainstream marketing and organisational literature (Balmer 1995; Olins 2000; Balmer 2001 a, b; Hatch and Schultz, 2001; 2003; Urde, 2003; de Chernatony, 2002; Balmer and Gray, 2003; Balmer and Greyser, 2003; Kapferer, 2004; Balmer and Greyser, 2003). The paper has its starting point in the commonly held view of the corporate brand as "the face of the organisation" (Balmer and Gray, 2003; p. 991) since it captures the essence behind the complex elements of the brand, among which vision, mission and core values are stressed as guiding the brand and enhancing its consistency and longevity (Ind, 1997; de Chernatony, 2002; Hatch and Schultz, 2001; 2003). Some authors present a more sophisticated view of a brand as a covenant subsuming multiple organisational identities under a commonly held contract between the organisation and its constituencies (Balmer 2001a, b; Balmer and Greyser, 2003). Thus, branding involves communicating the essence of the contract (the brand's promise) to its audiences and enhancing their positive perceptions of the brand (image). The interaction between the brand and customers is conceptualized in the marketing literature as interplay between organisational vision, culture and image (Hatch and Schultz, 2001; 2003) or as a symbiosis of identities of brand, organisation and customers (Urde, 2003). Common to these conceptualisations is the idea that brand identity with its core values represents an important point of departure for the branding process. Managers are capable to instill the intended brand meaning into the products and affect customer perceptions and behaviours.

Challenging the established view that a brand can be controlled by managers, many authors, for example, Christensen and Askegaard (2001) and Pitt et al (2006) argue that brands increasingly constitute the open sources owned by many actors, decreasing the company's ability to control them. Thus, the boundary of identity and image is dissolving. In the conceptualisation of brands as open sources, they are represented by more or less open bundles of associations generated and authored by multiple actors (Pitt et al, 2006). The evolution of brands from closed resources controlled by managers to open sources influenced by many different actors has been intensified in the e-space.

The e-space constitutes a radically different brand sphere (de Chernatony, 2006), in which the relationship between consumers and brands has changed in favor of consumers. Branding on the Internet is about participation and co-creation of meaning by customers and other constituencies (Vargo and Lusch, 2004). Thus, successful brand strategies on the Internet involve building relationships, enabling interactivity and tailoring offerings in a more precise way than before (de Chernatony and Christodoulides, 2004). That implies facilitating conversation about brand by consumers, whose perspectives on companies and brands are often in conflict with the image the managers want to convey (Christodoulides, 2009). The extreme cases of anti-brand web-sites that are growing in number show that Internet communities have an ability to create the negative on-line identities for the targeted brands (e.g. Coca Cola – Killercoke.org; Starbucks – Starbucked.com; Wal-Mart – Walmart-blows.com in Krishnamurthy and Kucuk, 2009). On the whole, branding has moved from the corporate offices to blogs, widgets, groups, video casts and other Internet applications, resulting in the tremendous loss of control by managers. Consumers can even interfere with the most sacred brand element – its core values – by voting against them. The brand manager who used to be a custodian of the brand (Mitchell, 2001) has become a host whose main role is not to control but to facilitate the interaction process (Christodoulides, 2009). The interactive process has moved to a micro-level of individual actors (managers and Internet users), implying the need to specifically focus on that mechanism.

Looking deeper into the nature of brand-user interactions, this paper applies Weick's (1995; 2001) ideas of sense-making defined as: "placing of items into frameworks, comprehending, redressing surprise, constructing meaning, interacting in pursuit of mutual understanding, and patterning" (Weick, 1995, p. 6). Sense-making involves the ongoing retrospective development of plausible images that rationalize what people are doing (Weick, 2001, p. 460). When people engage in acts of sense-making, they are accomplishing reality rather than discovering it. “To make sense is to focus on a limited set of cues, and to elaborate those few cues into a plausible, pragmatic, momentarily useful guide for actions that themselves are partially defining the guide they follow” (Weick, 2001, p. 460).

As follows from these excerpts, sense-making is especially relevant in the e-context when Internet users actively interact with the sources and can even change their content, for example, by adapting it to their preferences. Applying seven properties of sense-making: 1) social context 2) personal identity 3) retrospect 4) salient cues 5) ongoing projects 6) plausibility 7) enactment - to the Internet community's reaction to the episode of corporate re-branding (change of logo), as a good example of major organisational change (Muzellec and Lambkin, 2006), the paper aims at understanding of the impact of multiple sense-making processes on the outcome of this change. Thus, branding is viewed from a micro-perspective of individuals (users, managers) rather than a macro-perspective of organisations common in the literature.

Empirical Case

The GAP re-branding drama was approximately a week long, starting on October 6, 2010 when the company showed its new logo on its website and ending on October 12 when GAP announced the return to the old one. As unremarkable as it sounds when looking at these plain facts, the “logo operation” involved an astonishing spectrum of feelings: from hatred to love, and diverse statements from customers (fans, Facebook and Twitter followers), designers, branding experts and company representatives. The result of the week-long war around GAP's new logo was its retreat, publicly labeled as the company's defeat and community's victory.

Findings

By strengthening and optimising their profiles on the Internet, brands provide its audiences with highly visible cues such as brand logos and symbols which become interwoven in their individual stories in a much deeper way than before the Web 2.0. Because users' individual identities are developed in the close relation to brands, they get easily threatened by the changes occurring to them. As different users' sense-making processes depend on the same cues and occur in the same context of the Internet space, they become more eagerly engaged in the agitated discussions that can overturn the brand's (managerial) intentions or instill a completely different meaning into their messages. The shared context and cues unite the brand users, allowing them to arrive to a common sense of events and act decisively (a strong sense-making process). Those managers who still rely on their own, limited branding context (e.g. corporate web-site; stores) and secret cues (consultant reports, surveys) find themselves in a weaker sense-making situation. To strengthen their position, managers have to re-define the brand context, use different cues and enact their brands in an on-going interaction with the users. Due to the interactive nature of Web 2.0 as a new social context for brands, identity struggles might decide the success or failure of any brand change.

Practical Implications

Internet brand sphere imposes new dangers on the companies' rebranding attempts and branding in general. Many companies still act as if they own the brand space on the Internet while in reality they only share it, in accordance with the new rules of the game. They either have to accept the loss of control over brand and be more receptive to their internet community or regain this power by defining the new rules for the community (as strong internet brands like Nike and Apple do).

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Dove Repositioning – 'The Dark Side'

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Introduction

Brand repositioning through a clear and meaningful promise has been the cornerstone of brand marketing practice. Weakly or badly managed brands can take many years to revive successfully (Ewing, et al, 1995). For example, oil company BP rebranded to Beyond Petroleum with the intention to pursue the idea of sustainability. However, the company's response to the recent explosion in Texas and oil spills off the US coast failed to show that it has moved beyond its original values (VanAuken, 2010). Other examples include the rebranding of Congsinia and Gap. Review of the literature shows growing interest in the concept of repositioning (Keller, 1999; Wansink and Huffman, 2001; Andrew and Kim, 2007). It can be used strategically in reviving aging brands (Lehu, 2004), to 'take the brand to where the action is' (Aaker, 1997) or as a mere 'updating the image' of the brands (Keller,1999). As customers become more proactive and engaged in a business environment, brand managers face the challenge of managing the repositioning process successfully. Despite the importance ascribed to repositioning, there appears to be a paucity of strategic repositioning models that provide a comprehensive insight into the process.

Dove was originally positioned as the 'The Beauty Bar' with claims such as, 'Won't Dry Skin' '1/4 cleansing cream' and 'Not just soap.' Their message focused around the brand moisturising benefits for over 40 years (see Figure 1 in Appendices). However, in 2005, Dove was noticeably repositioned with an emotional slant, 'Campaign for Real Beauty' where 6 women 'debunked' the beauty myth (Figure 2) as well as Ogilvy's viral campaign, 'Evolution,' by showing the realities of airbrushing and billboard images. Further campaign 'Onslaught' in 2007 featuring a child facing mass images of the beauty industry and 2009 saw the backlash by Greenpeace in the parody, 'On slaughter,' which exposes the use of unsustainably sourced palm oil. This sparked a myriad of negative publicity where Dove is accused of delving into the ugly side of beauty. As a result, the brand reposition and retreat to the functional root (see Figure 3). Indeed, most literature support the benefit of emotional functioning as it can engage with consumers and build brand loyalty (Amine, 1998). However, little is known how consumers respond to this repositioning strategy. Building on Roberts (2008) notion of the lack of consumer research on positioning issues leads to the proposition of the question: "How do consumers perceive Dove's repositioning? From functional to emotional and then back to functional positioning". This research will aim to explore the consumer perceptions of the changes to the Dove brand over time.

Strategic repositioning – conventional view

The concept of repositioning begins as a construct within classification of new product development (Simms and Trott, 2007) which examine how the product will be perceived in relation to other competitive offerings, in the mind of consumer. Previous definition is mainly driven from product and firm repositioning (Tauber, 1981; Simms and Trott, 2007, Saunders and Jobber, 1994) and there was no consideration for consumers. Stuart and Muzellec (2004) define it as the practice of building a new name representative of a differentiated position in the mind frame of stakeholders and a distinctive identity from competitors, while Daly and Moloney (2004) suggest a continuum in repositioning that begins with revitalizing a current brand to a full name change altering brand values and promises. The question of consumer perceptions of repositioning is sparse amongst the literature (Roberts, 2008).

Risk of repositioning -doppelganger image and brand parody

Emotional branding has emerged as a highly influential brand management paradigm (Gobe 2001; Zaltman 2003). This sees a move away from functional focus to the occurrence of consumer linkages where brand narratives demonstrate an empathetic understanding of consumer's inspirations, aspirations, and life circumstances (Thompson et al, 2006 , p. 56) and thus generating warm feelings of community among brand users (Atkin 2004; Cova and Cova 2002; Muniz and Schau, 2005). Thompson et al. (2006) highlight the seldom discussed 'risks of emotional branding' (p.5) – the creation of a 'doppelganger image' as a particular type of cultural backlash. Rhetoric incorporating the idea of doppelganger effect is defined as, ' a family of disparaging images and stories about a brand that are circulated in popular culture by a loosely organized network of consumers, anti-brand activists, bloggers and opinion leaders in the news and entertainment media,' (p.53). In addition, Danesi (2006) refers to brand parody with the aim to, 'unmask the significant systems of brands so that more and more people can gain a critical understanding of the images that float through them on a daily basis (p.44). Parodies are often aimed at successful brands (Holt, 2002), and are a sign of an emotional branding story losing its authenticity, changing consumer outlooks and poor fit with consumer identity projects (Thompson et al., 2006). A negative effect of repositioning can be the occurrence of brand parodies or culture jamming activities, and one further outcome to address is the effects on brand loyalty.

It is important to note that when branding programs fail to address negative issues in a responsive manner, the problems will only escalate (Lamons, 2004) dramatically through mass media, the internet and word of mouth (Andrews and Kim, 2007) and this negative effect can persist over time (Weinberger, 1986). Repositioning can cause confusion to consumers especially when moving from functional to symbolic / emotional positions or straddling both (Bhat and

Reddy, 1998, p.40). As a result, brands are often seen to, 'sheepishly return to the slogans and identities used previously,' (Aaker, 2002, p. 281).

Repositioning – consumer based view

A number of gaps have been noticed which could lead to further study. Andrews and Kim (2007) question our understanding of what drives brand repositioning in the minds of the consumer. A number of unanswered questions remain; how does emotional positioning work? Does it leave brands vulnerable to damaging parodies?

Methodology

In this study, a single case study approach was adopted (Yin, 2003) and provided detailed research into the case of Dove and their repositioning strategy. A total of 19 semi-structured depth interviews took place to elicit consumer responses to repositioning of the brand, Dove. Interviews lasted between 30 and 90 minutes, with a number of consumers being interviewed a second time to gauge further detail from their comments. Grand tour questions such as "Can you explain your experiences with Dove as a brand?" pre-empted more topical questions such as, "How do you view the shift from emotional to functional positioning?" and, "Does this cause any problems for you?" The interviews were recorded using video camera and photo-elicitation techniques were employed where participants are shown Dove's images, advertisements and a product time line. Each interview was transcribed and analysed following the interview and initial themes and responses helped to inform the questioning of subsequent interviews (Strauss and Corbin, 1998).

Findings and discussion

The consumers' responses of these repositioning strategies have been for the most part negative. There are four main themes that emerged from the interviews. ***1) Disconnecting with the core.*** Consumers had an initial strong association of Dove being caring, pure, original, safe, honest and authentic as were associated during the 'Real Beauty' campaign. After being exposed to the doppelganger image, majority of the informants' response turn to negative ones with a strong sense of anger, harm, manipulation and hypocrisy. Other responses such as "I'm shocked because it's a bit of a mask, Dove seems to wear a mask…. it's not pure, it's not easy, it's not simple at all, not what I thought"*(Faith), "Well, I think it's quite deceptive and manipulative now" (Josh).* Clearly, informants question previously held assumptions about the brand and literally unmask the messages of being pure and simple and more importantly, re-assess their relationship with the brand. A danger of repositioning is the unintended consequences, an unexpected fracture in communication can separate the intended message, in this case, 'Real Beauty,' from reaching consumers. The high degree of passion around the campaign makes the brand vulnerable to the risk of those emotions swinging to the other side of the pendulum. Fournier (1998) notes that love, passion, self connection, commitment, trust and intimacy form positive relational meanings, but once unsettled result in long lasting negative meanings. ***2) Double negative associations***. It is interesting to see the second reported consumer response is one of immediate negative associations. There are consumers who do not 'buy in' with the repositioning strategy. Some informants were able to discern immediate concerns with the message used by Dove resulting in a strong negative viewpoint. Miriam was able to distinguish that Dove and the 'beauty' position do not fit as well as she once thought, and after thinking about it further she was able to address the true motivations of the company. There is also evidence of confusion among consumers as a result of shifting positions from functional to emotional positioning without obscuring the brand's identity. One informant indicated that 'I completely forgotten about the brand', which demonstrate the power of emotions but also the effect of detaching brand meaning from what the advertising aimed to achieve. ***3) Counterfactual thinking***. This is contrasting what is perceived to be with what might have been (Roese, 1997). When focusing on an ethical or moral consideration, which is considered to be breached, future expectations can be altered and strong emotion triggered in response to the negative event (Folger and Cropanzano, 2001). This also allows consumers to reassess original relationship and the reality.***4) Behavioural outcomes***. As a result of counterfactual thinking and negative emotion, informants are considering brand switching and diminished loyalty.

Conclusion

This exploratory case study has attempted to draw upon the realities and risks of emotional positioning by eliciting consumers' responses. The complexity of the repositioning process due to indecisive repositioning provides a fascinating ground for study, with the collection and analysis of consumer perceptions adding to the field by bridging the gap between consumers and management. This will help to understand consumer reception towards brand changes and helps to uncover the cognitive and affective processes that influence brand success.

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Appendices

Figure 1: Dove Functional Advertising

Figure 2: Doves Real Beauty Billboard Campaign

Figure 3: Image from Dove advertising “the truth is clear” (2010)
Advertisement available at http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UQYPC_mRLWc

An Analysis of the Rebranding Opportunity against the Contemporary Challenges of Australian International Education Industry

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Introduction

The Australian International Education Industry (IEI) has been serving Australia to meet the goals of long-term skill shortages, along with its enormous contribution to Australian economy (Connelly, 2010). However, feeding Australia with skilled international professionals is now a top priority, sourcing the right people is a complex business (Cooper, 2010). Therefore, Australia has been reinforcing its immigration policy every year based on the contemporary issues of skill shortage in the aim of meeting concurrent skill shortage goals (Australian Government, 2010). Some of the initiatives related to such a continuous changes of immigration policy have been impacted the Australian IEI indifferently. From this perspective, ten issues are emerged from literature review as contemporary challenges of the IEI, as they are impacting gloomily the brand Australia as ultimate education provider of international students. A research associated with these challenges has been initiated in the aim of rebranding the Australian IEI to reform a positive image in the mind of the key stakeholders. Merrilees and Miller's (2008) rebranding principles are utilised in the secondary research to flourish a rebranding opportunity for Australian IEI. A conceptual rebranding model has emerged surrounding the identified contemporary challenges of the industry from the findings of the secondary research. Reinforcing the model established as an ideal pattern for marketers for rebranding industrial or corporate image.

Research Problem-The Branding Myopia

The IEI is the key sources of skilled manpower to meet Australia's 1.5 million projected worker shortages by 2025 (Australian Technology Network, 2010; Connelly, 2010). Therefore, Australian Government (2010) has enforced the Education Services for Overseas Students ACT in 2000 and has been amending every year to source the right people focusing on the skill shortages and cope up with the contemporary challenges. From this context, some of the initiatives have been impacting the IEI gloomily, which has been reviled by the key stakeholders in Australia. Australia depends on the IEI seriously in terms of revenues from export earnings (The Australian, 2010).

> International education is more than just an economic driver. The real problem facing international education here is our inability to think and plan strategically for the future of a sector that is Australia's third-largest export earner, employing more than 100,000 people. Federal and state governments, to varying degrees, have failed in the past 10 years to set any sort of direction for international education (Connelly, 2010, np).

Therefore, according to literature, Australia might pay the price for such less effectiveness, as Australia's third largest source of export earnings, the Australian IEI is facing intimidation from following perspectives (Adelaidenow, 2010; Australian Immigration Visas, nd; Australian Technology Network, 2010; Collins, 2010; Connelly, 2010; Costa, 2010; Curtis, 2010; Edwards, 2010; Healy, 2010; Hudson, 2010; Indian Local, 2010; Kaur, 2010; Lane, 2010; Moscaritolo, 2010; The Age, 2010; The Australian, 2010; Travel and Hospitality Umbrella, 2010; Trounson and Healy, 2010):

- Intense global competition of the IEI and Brand Australia;
    - Spoiling Australian employments through immigration rules' narrow view;
    - Controversial linkage between skill shortage and immigration rules;
    - Manipulation of immigration rules;
- Uncertainty and instability of immigration rules;
    - International students seem to be treated as a Business Cash-Cow;
    - IEI is crying out for a National Body to shape its future;
    - The failure of IEI and its impact on Australian diplomatic relation;
    - Australian attitude towards international students promotes intolerance;
    - Australian IEI's marketing and recruitment policy also criticised.

Therefore, the above-mentioned challenges are established as branding problem or myopia for Australian IEI.

Rebranding Opportunity

Australia has failed to maintain a fruitful link between its long-term skill shortage goals and the main source of satisfying those shortages, the immigration and its policies (Connelly, 2010). Consequently, the IEI has been facing some branding myopia. Therefore, an opportunity has emerged to reform the image of Australian IEI focusing on Merrilees and Miller's (2008) rebranding principles.

Research Aim and Methodology

The aim of the secondary research is to realise the contemporary challenges of the Australian IEI. A further concern of the study is to develop a conceptual rebranding model surrounding the identified contemporary challenges of the industry to reform an upbeat image in the mind of the stakeholders.

Literature review, as a complete research method (Friedman, 2006) has been undertaken here to:

- ■ realise the contemporary key issues and challenges of the Australian IEI;
  - ■ organise, analyse and synthesise the findings of previous researchers from the literature review into a summary of what is and is not known about the industry;
  - ■ develop a conceptual rebranding model by synthesising existing rebranding literature.

Rebranding Principles

Rebranding is associated with brand renewal, refreshment, makeover, reinvention, renaming and repositioning of an existing brand (Merrilees and Miller, 2008). The principles of rebranding are adapted below from Merrilees and Miller's (2008) findings:

- ■ Brand Vision, linked to the preceding and contemporary brand conditions;
- ■ Bridging the existing brand to the revised brand through retaining some core or peripheral brand concepts;
- ■ Meeting the needs of new market segments relative to the segments supporting the existing brand;
- ■ Brand orientation through communication, training and internal marketing;
- ■ Integration and coordination of rebranding strategy with the marketing mix;
- ■ Customised promotion of the rebranding strategy (if non mass media are included in the promotion mix.

Findings of the Secondary Research

The Conceptual Rebranding Model

A conceptual rebranding model has been developed by direct interpretation and naturalistic generalisation of existing rebranding principles, based on the identified contemporary challenges of the Australian IEI as industrial branding problem or myopia. The model is outlined in Figure 1.

Rationalisation of the Model based on One of the Australian IEI's Branding Problems

> Students were poorly served by government policy linking education, skilled labour and migration. The analysis comes after criticism that international students have been exploited as cash cows. The link between education and permanent residency attracted unprecedented numbers of fee-paying students. A lack of student-centeredness in the educational/migration/skilled labour policy meant inadequate regulation of educational standards, growth of unscrupulous agents and poor safety for students (Monash University Centre for Population and Urban Research, 2010, cited by The Age, 2010, np).

Therefore, a lack of student-centeredness in the educational, migration and skilled labour policy would be the branding problem or myopia in this regard for the international students, as key stakeholder of the industry. However, identifying stakeholders' contemporary goal requires extensive industry research, in this case the goal of international students evolved as to obtain an enthusiastic international student experience in their education in Australia. Moreover, 'the lack of student-centeredness in the educational, migration and skilled labour policy would be categorised under the contemporary challenge of 'international students are treated as a business cash-cow' in the aim of reforming core or peripheral rebranding concept against the branding problem of 'lack of student-centeredness'.

Experience the Refined Value of Australian Education, could be a core rebranding concept against the identified branding problem: lack of student centeredness, targeting the prospective international students. The aim of such a rebranding concept would be erasing the unenthusiastic experiences of the preceding and existing international students from the mind of the prospective international students. Therefore, the prospective international students could reconsider Australia for their education destination instead of its' global competitors of the industry.

At this stage, marketers should promote the newly developed rebranding concept (Experience the Refined Value of Australian Education) among the key stakeholder by introducing refined market offerings based on rest of the five rebranding principles. The process and significance of introducing a new market offering based on rest of the five rebranding principles is described below.

Brand vision should be reformed based on preceding and contemporary brand condition. In this case, the vision would be: Australia-The Ultimate Destination of International Students. In general, the global market of Australian IEI is segmented into various regions of the world. Therefore, Australia may further segment a region's market into various sub-segmented market in the aim of meeting the contemporary needs of new market segments relative to the segments supporting the existing brand. For example, South America's market can be segmented into secondary education, VET education, and tertiary education markets, and Australia can niche the demand of these segmented markets by understanding contemporary and latent needs of various sub-segments of the South America market and offer education services as solution of those needs.

Brand orientation based on the newly developed rebranding concept can be organised by communicating, training and conducting internal marketing among other key stakeholders such as Australian education providers, Australian overseas student agents and so forth. At this stage a refined marketing mix strategy should be aligned with the newly developed rebranding concept. Therefore, the pricing, placing, promotional strategy and the product (the market offering) itself would able to integrate and coordinate with the newly developed rebranding concept. Finally, various customised promotion would be conducted. For example, providing superior value to Australian overseas student agents would motivate them to promote Australian education to prospective international students rather than other international education destinations in global IEI. Finally, evaluation of the whole process (the circle) of Figure 1 needs to be conducted to know the outcome and initiate any corrective actions.

Conclusion and Implication

The contemporary challenges of Australian IEI have been described briefly. A conceptual rebranding model has been developed from the analysis of existing rebranding principles. Detailed description of the model and its' applicability on Australian IEI have been demonstrated based on the contemporary challenges of the IEI. Therefore, utilising the rebranding model has established for rebranding industrial or corporate image of Australian IEI. Moreover, examining the significance of the model across industries and markets would strengthen the impact of the model in rebranding practice.

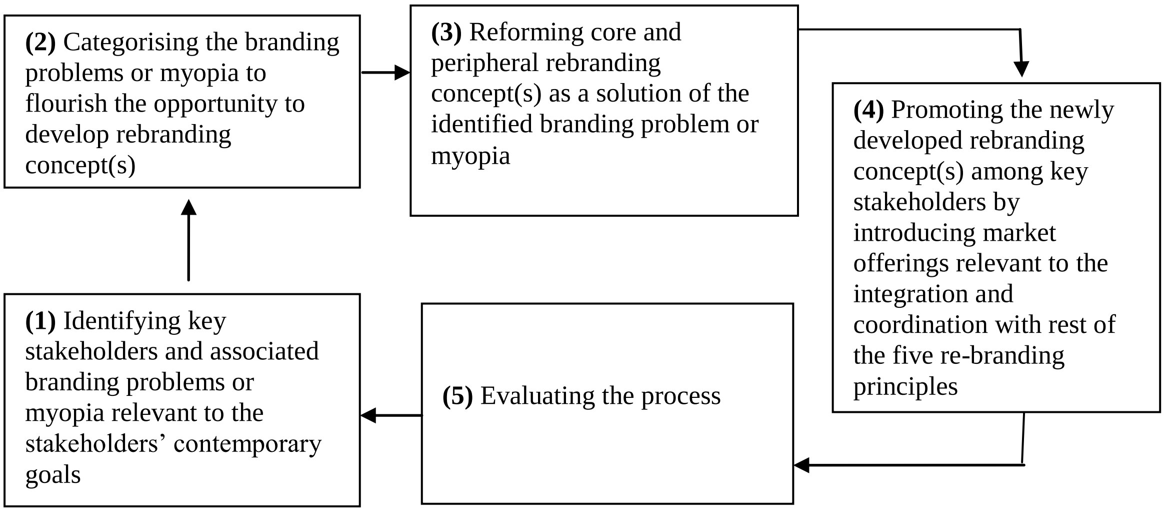

Figure-1: A Conceptual Rebranding Circle

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Segmenting McDonalds: Measuring Brand Map Attractiveness

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Abstract
Segmenting is a fundamental strategy in Marketing and a means of gaining a competitive advantage for an organization. We forward a consumer driven means of segmenting markets based on the associations held in memory by consumers of brands. These associations are captured using mental maps (John, Loken, Kim, and Basu Monga, 2006). However, John et al.'s (2006) approach then aggregates individual maps into a consensus map. We amend John et al.'s (2006) methodology by developing a post hoc segmentation approach to produce internally coherent segments. Next, we develop measures of map strength and favourability as a means of assessing the relative attractiveness and use this to analyse the segments created.

Keywords: Brand Concept Map, Segmentation, Attractiveness

Introduction

It has generally been accepted that consumers carry mental maps of brands in their memory. McDonalds has been used to illustrate just such a mental map (Aaker, 1996, John et al, 2006).

TAKE IN FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE

Consumer mapping is supported theoretically by the Associative Network model (ANM) of consumer learning which has been developed over some considerable time by cognitive psychologists (Anderson & Bower, 1973; Collins & Loftus, 1975; Wyer & Srull, 1989). From an ANM, consumer learning perspective, brands are those associations about a particular object that are held in a person's memory (Keller, 1993). Memory of a brand is made up of individual pieces of brand information or nodes. These nodes are linked together in memory to form a more complex associative network (Anderson, 1983a). The map therefore shows the individual associations themselves and, equally importantly, the structure of the associations and the way they are linked together in the minds of consumers.

The limitation of brand mapping as reflected in Figure 1 is that it is subjective, reflecting Aaker's (1996) idealised view of the brand. This limitation was removed with the publication of a well tested method (in terms of reliability and validity) for the efficient production of numerous, consumer-constructed brand concept maps. From these, a single consensus brand map is constructed (John et al., 2006) that sums up all the individual maps.

Brand Concept Mapping

The protocol for constructing a BCM begins with asking consumers to identify those associations they think are relevant to an identified brand and then linking these associations together to produce their own brand map. When they have done this, respondents indicate the strength of the link between associations by using single, double or triple lines. These are shown herein as lines of different thickness representing the varying strength of links between associations. Respondents also add the direction of their feelings with regards theses associations from -1 (negative), 0 (neutral) to +1 (positive). This allows for strongly held negative and positive views to be recorded on maps and for the favourability to associations to be measured (this was achieved by a simple averaging of the favourability scores for each association appearing on any given map).

To develop a consensus concept map from the individual maps, first and second order brand associations are classified as those that feature on the majority of individual maps. First order associations are those which are linked directly to the brand more often than not whilst the second order associations are those which link to the brand via the first-order associations. Tertiary associations are then included, based on their high frequency links to first and or second order associations (but not directly to the brand itself).

The research reported on herein uses an outwardly homogeneous group of consumers (namely 250 undergraduate students studying at an English University) to produce brand maps for McDonald's. The result of the BCM process is provided in the consensus map for McDonald's shown in Figure 2.

TAKE IN FIGURE 2 ABOUT HERE

In comparing the hypothetical map (Figure1) with the one built on consumer research (Figure 2) it is apparent that the latter, 'real' map is more complex and less straightforward than the idealized one in Figure 1. Also, the actual, research-derived map reflects both positive and negative views of the McDonald's brand, with two core associations that are strongly linked (shown as the thickest, black lines) being 'unhealthy' and 'fast'. As it stands, the consensus map tells us that consumers hold very complex and at times conflicting set of associations that differs markedly from the clear cut structure as shown in Figure 1. This poses a question; is the brand incoherent or is the consensus map confounding more coherent 'groups' of consumer views about the brand. We consider this in terms of theory and mapping research next.

Segmentation Using Brand Concept Mapping

The seminal works of Smith (1956) and Wind (1978) have directed marketers to expect that markets are not homogeneous, but need to be divided into subgroups which share common features and are different from other subgroups. This is at odds with John et al.'s (2006) Brand Concept Mapping (BCM) approach, where individual brand maps are aggregated to produce a single consensus map, like the one illustrated in Figure 2.

Apart from being debatable in segmentation terms, in mapping terms too, aggregated maps constructed from an entire population have been shown to provide a poor reflection of some individual maps (Henderson, Iacobucci & Calder, 1998).

To improve the BCM approach we therefore amend John et al.'s (2006) methodology by developing a post hoc segmentation to produce internally coherent segments based on differing brand maps from the wider sample. A standard clustering method (Ward's minimum variance method (Ward & Reingen, (1990)) is used to generate BCM segment maps shown below.

The segmentation process produced seven discrete sub-groups of respondents based on their associations and the way these linked together. These sub-groupings were then subjected to the aggregation process as recommended by John et al (2006) to produce the seven maps which are shown in Figure 3 (Appendix 1).

Analysis of Segment Attractiveness

By 'eyeballing' the seven maps it is evident that the segments differ in two broad ways. Firstly, some maps are more dense than others (i.e. they exhibit more core, secondary and tertiary associations with the McDonald's brand). Secondly, some maps appear to have more positive (less negative) associations than others. What is needed however is an objective way of integrating strength and favourability to objectively measure segment attractiveness.

In order to measure segment attractiveness, we need to consider both the strength and favourability of each segment map. Previous research (Anderson, 1983b; Krishnan, 1996) indicates that the strength of a map depends on both the number of associations and also importantly on the number and strength of links between these associations. For each segment map, we counted the number of associations present and also the total number of links present – taking account of single, double and triple weighted links. In order to be able to compare between maps, both measures, i.e. the number of associations and total number of links was normalized by dividing by the maximum over all seven segment maps.

As alluded to earlier, favourability was measured for each association by averaging the individual favourability score (-1, 0 and +1) indicated by respondents when creating their maps. In order to produce an overall favourability measure for each segment map, we simply averaged the favourability scores for each association in the map, thereby producing a value in the range -1 (all associations considered unfavourable by all respondents) through to +1 (all associations regarded positively by respondents).

Normalised Association Score = Number of Associations / Maximum Number of Associations over all maps

Normalised Links Score = Sum of Weight of Links / Maximum Sum of Weight of Links over all maps

The relative attractiveness of each segment map can then be measured by multiplying the aforementioned measures together. The resulting attractiveness score ranges between -1 and +1. The closer to unity, the more attractive the segment map, whilst those with scores approaching -1 would represent segments with a large number of highly linked unfavourable associations

Attractiveness = Normalised Association Score x Average Favourability x Normalised Links Score

TAKE IN TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE

Findings

A simple eyeballing of the segment maps is not sufficient to be able to evaluate their relative attractiveness. Table 1 shows the individual components and overall attractiveness scores for the segment maps. It can be seen that all the overall scores are positive, indicating a generally attractive view towards the brand by each segment, but there are clear differences between the levels of attractiveness. Hence, segment 1 is the most attractive by a considerable margin, followed by segment 3, with segments 2, 5 and 6 not far behind. Segments 4 and 7 are considerably less attractive as determined by their lower favourability, number of associations and links.

Conclusions

The paper explains how brand concept maps are constructed and, using a clustering approach, how brand concept map segments may be developed. Then a novel approach to measuring the relative attractiveness of each segment is developed. Each stage offers new, practical help in identifying the differences in brand meaning held by homogenous groups (segments). Each segment differs in how attractive they view the brand to be and as such offer differing opportunities for the brand. They also reflect the differing sources of a brand's equity.

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Figure 1. Hypothetical Brand Map of McDonald's (Aaker, 1996).

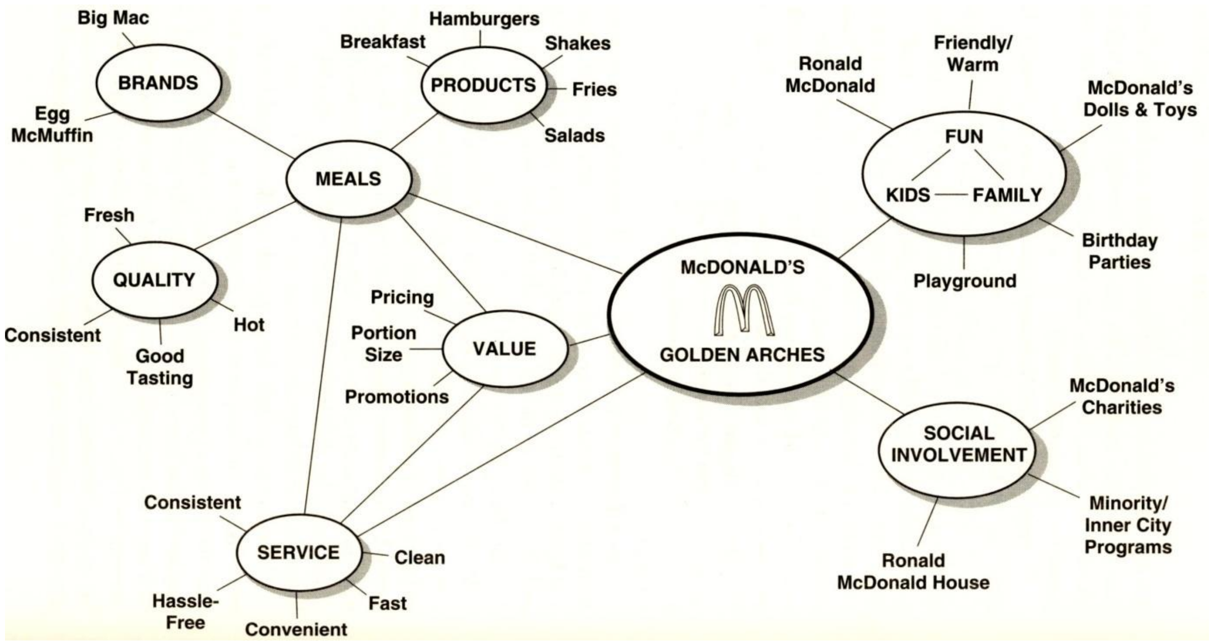


Figure 2. Consensus Map of McDonald's (100% of sample)

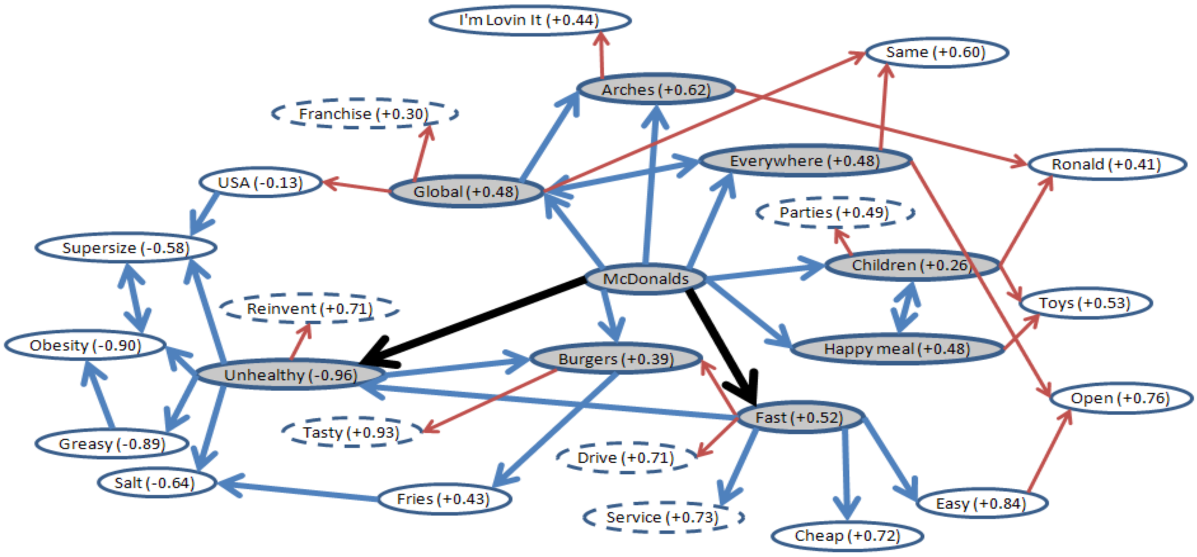


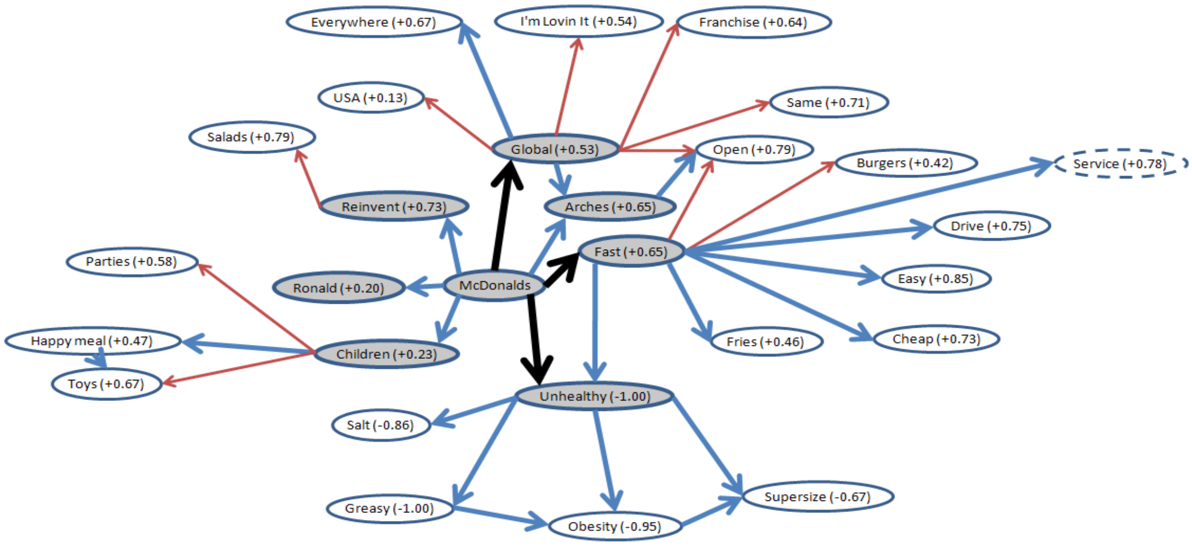
Table 1: Attractiveness Measures for the 7 Segment Maps

Segment	Total Associations	Total Links	Normalised Associations	Normalised Links	Average Favourability	Attractiveness
1	28	61	1.00	1.00	0.31	0.31
2	24	54	0.86	0.89	0.20	0.15
3	25	53	0.89	0.89	0.29	0.22
4	21	35	0.75	0.57	0.19	0.08
5	20	39	0.71	0.64	0.29	0.13
6	16	31	0.57	0.51	0.37	0.11
7	16	27	0.57	0.44	0.10	0.03

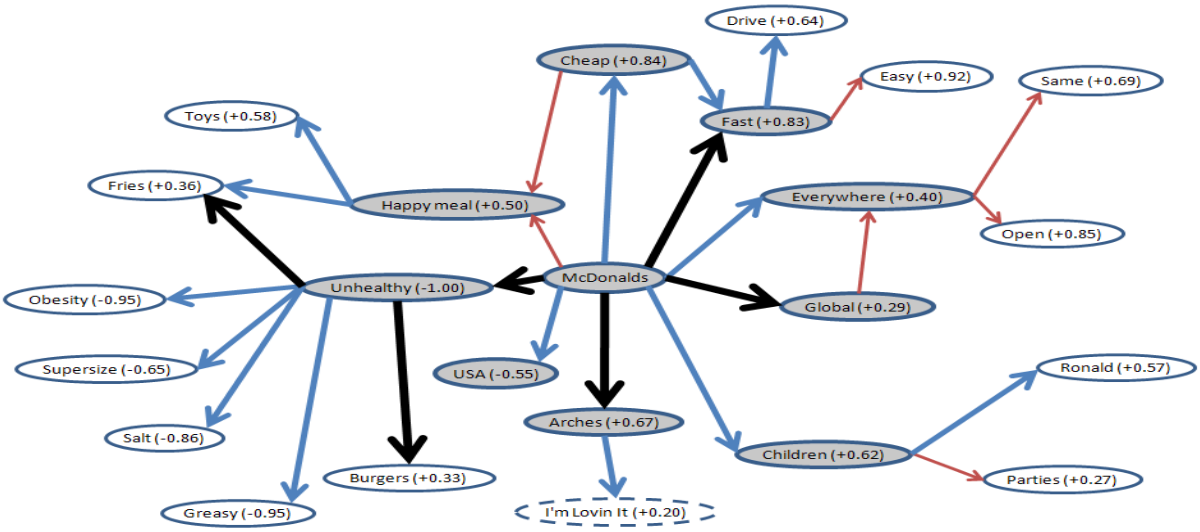
Appendix 1

Figure 3. McDonald's Segment Maps

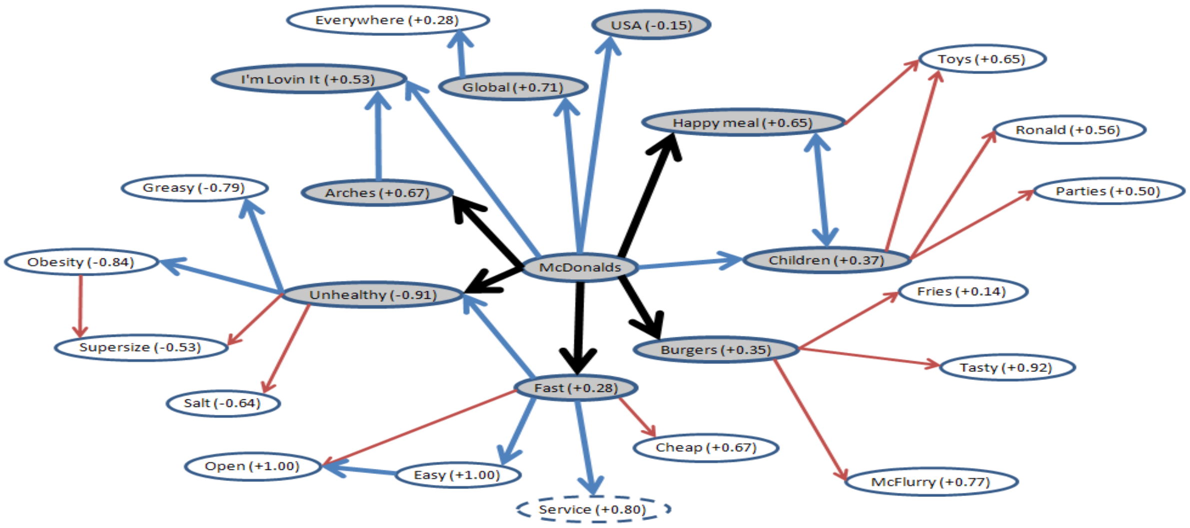
Segment 1



Segment 2



Segment 3



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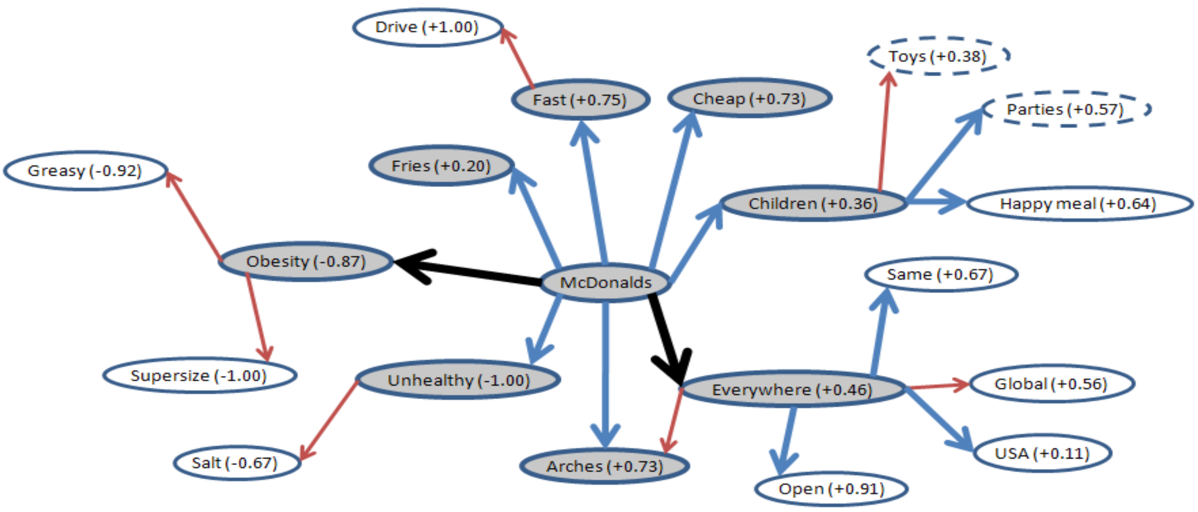
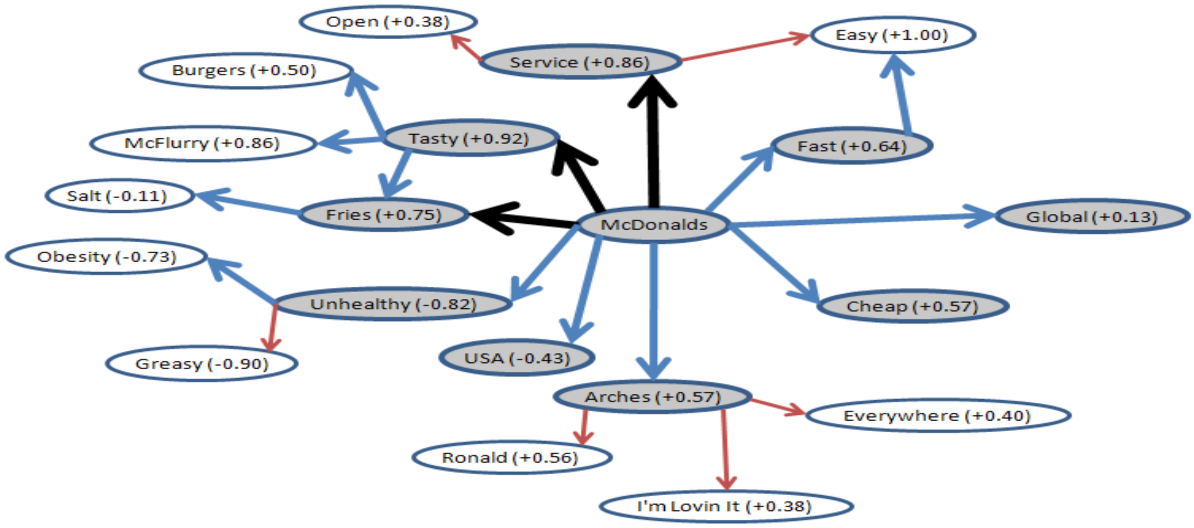
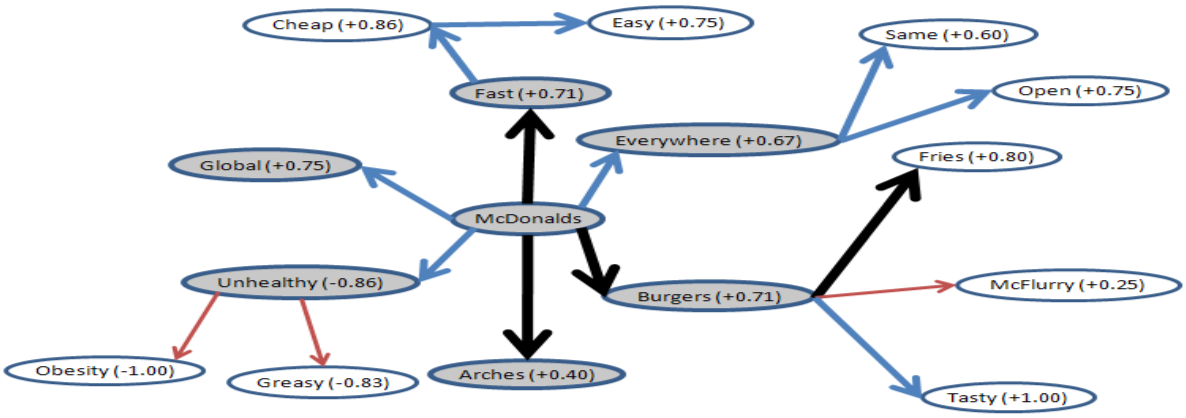


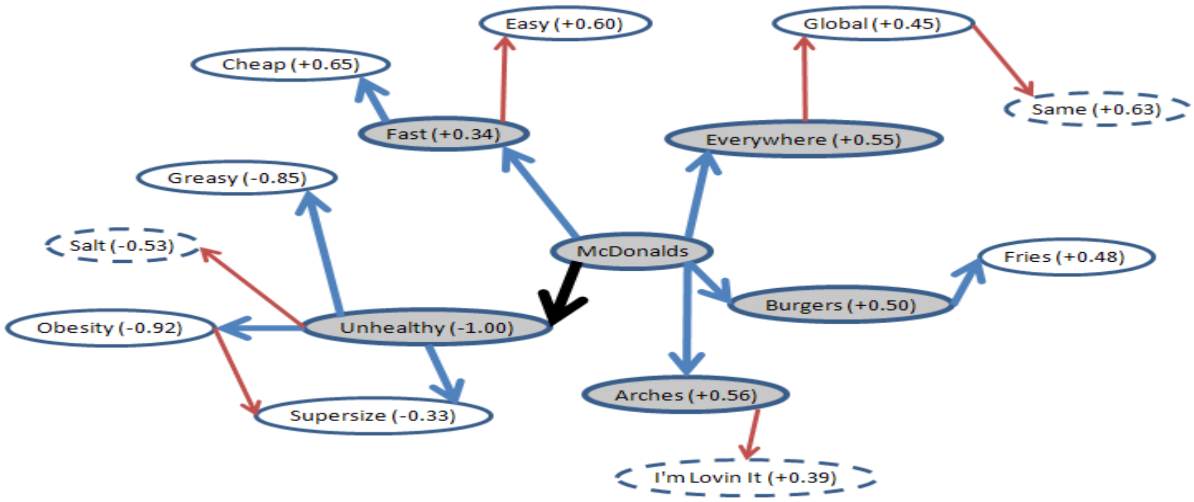
Segment 5



Segment 6



Segment 7



Session 8.3

Brand Attitudes and the Placement of Semantic Primes in Novels

Ian Brennan, Colorado State University

What keeps Smokers from Quitting? Uncovering Attribute-based Loyalty determinants in Cigarette Brands

Athanasios Krystallis, Aarhus School of Business and Social Sciences, Denmark

Exploring Differences in Product Attribute Preferences of Private vs. Manufacturer Brand Buyers

Athanasios Krystallis, Aarhus School of Business and Social Sciences, Denmark
Polymeros Chrysochou, University of South Australia, Australia
Simon Jödecke, Aarhus School of Business and Social Sciences, Denmark
Inga Polster, Aarhus School of Business and Social Sciences, Denmark

The Impact of Copycat Packaging Strategies on Private Labels' Adoption

Coelho do Vale, Rita, Catholic University of Portugal, Católica Lisbon, Portugal
Verga Matos, Pedro, Technical University of Lisbon, ISEG, Portugal

Brand Attitudes and the Placement of Semantic Primes in Novels

Ian Brennan, Colorado State University

Abstract

Purpose-- This study considers whether the semantic priming of content which is conceptually related to brand will enhance attitudes towards the target brand. The present study examines the robustness of semantic priming within the context of a novels--an environment in which priming does not occur in isolation, but is instead integrated in the development of the plot's characters and locations.

Design-- A laboratory experiment examined the influence of semantic priming on brand attitudes.

Findings—Semantic priming fails to influence brand attitudes when priming occurs within the cluttered environment of a novel.

Value/Originality --The study is the first to examine the robustness of semantic priming within the context of a novel. Practitioners (concerned that recent legislation requiring authors engaging in explicit brand placement to disclose their material connection to a product seller) will be interested in the merits of a semantic priming strategy that does not require explicit references to a brand.

Research Paper

Key Words brand placement, semantic priming, conceptual fluency.

Brand Attitudes and the Placement of Semantic Primes in Novels

Brand references populate all facets of modern media. The Wheaties brand of cereal fuels the training program of Sylvester Stallone's character in *Rocky III* (Brennan, Dubas & Babin, 1999), while Smirnoff and BMW are drunk and driven by James Bond in the movie *Tomorrow Never Dies* (Karrh, 1998). Miller beer makes an appearance in Bruce Springstein's music video *Born in the USA* (Brennan 2008), and in Stephenie Meyer's (2005) novel *Twilight* the Volvo brand is mentioned on no fewer than sixteen occasions. While some brand references may result from the media content provider's desire to add verisimilitude to creative output, other references result from commercial considerations—a practice referred to as brand placement (Karrh, 1998).

Brand placement in novels is not a new phenomenon. *The History of Little Goody Two-Shoes (1765)* was printed and available for sale at the Bible and Sun printers and bookshop at St Paul's churchyard in London. The bookshop at St Paul's Churchyard doubled as a pharmacy. The possibilities presented by a bookshop/pharmacy were not lost on the publisher John Newbery as these opening sentences attest: 'Care and Discontent shortened the days of little Margery's Father. He was forced from his family and seized with a violent fever in a place where Dr. James's Powder was not to be had, and where he died miserably'(*The History of Little Goody Two-Shoes* p.1). At the conclusion of the book John Newbery, the publisher, advertises that 'Dr James's Powders—a treatment for "Fevers, the Small Pox, Measles, and Colds" is available at the Bible and Sun bookshop for 2s 6d'.

More recently there have been a number of authors who have been reported to have engaged in the practice of brand placement. Bulgari paid a fee to Fay Weldon, author of *The Bulgari Connection*, for references to its jewelry products (Nelson, 2004). Similarly, Ford paid a fee to Carole Mathews to change her heroine's car from a VW to a Ford Fiesta, in her novel *The Sweetest Taboo*, while Proctor and Gamble promoted Weisman and Weisman's *Cathy's Book* in exchange for references to the Cover Girl brand (Petrecca, 2006).

Previous research on brand references in novels has examined the effect of explicit references to the brand on recall for both the referenced brand (Brennan, 2008) as well as its competitors (Brennan, 2009). Even if an author does not explicitly mention a brand, is it possible that references to objects and ideas by an author which a make a brand more accessible in memory may nevertheless influence brand attitudes? Support for the idea would mean marketers might be prepared to offer commercial support to an author for 'brand relevant content', even when there is no explicit reference to the brand itself. A number of studies indicate that an object (e.g., a brand) is better liked when it becomes easier to process (i.e., acquires greater conceptual fluency) as a result of enhanced accessibility in memory (Berger & Fitzsimmons, 2008; Labroo, Dhar &Schwarz, 2007; Reber, Schwarz & Winkielman, 2004). In the context of a novel, however, any content that is conceptually related to a brand will not appear in isolation, but will be surrounded by a sea of unrelated characters, scenes and images—clutter that may attenuate conceptual fluency. Accordingly, the present study examines the robustness of conceptual fluency effects on brand attitude within the cluttered environment of a novel.

Semantic Priming

Changes in attitudes and behaviors may be induced through the creation of an environment in which subjects are exposed to conceptually related cues—a process known as semantic priming (Lee & Labroo, 2004). The psychology literature contains numerous examples of semantic priming. For example, liking for the word "book" was enhanced when preceded with the related concept “librarian” in comparison with the unrelated concept “neighbour” (Whittlesea, 1993), while attitudes towards a picture of a lock became more favorable when the picture was preceded by the related word “key” in comparison with the unrelated word “snow” (Winkielman & Fazendiro, 2003). With regard to behavior, Bargh, Chen and Burrows (1996) demonstrate that subjects undertake a scrambled sentence task in which they are exposed to words related to politeness (e.g., respect and polite) or rudeness (aggressively or rude) were more likely to demonstrate behaviors consistent with these traits than subjects in a control group. For example, those primed with polite words were less likely to interrupt the researcher’s conversation. Similarly, Macrae and Johnston (1998) report that subjects primed with the concept of helpfulness demonstrated a greater willingness to pick up objects that the experimenter had “accidentally dropped in comparison to control subjects.

In a marketing context, a growing body of evidence suggests that attitudes towards products may be enhanced by creating an environment in which subjects are exposed to conceptually related cues. For example, subjects evaluated a bottle of ketchup more favorably after being exposed to a story set in a fast-food restaurant than was the case when the story was located in a supermarket (Lee &Labroo, 2004). Similarly, students exposed to pictures of dogs rated a conceptually related brand (Puma) more favorably than subjects not primed with such pictures (Berger & Fitzsimons 2008), presumably, as a member of the cat family, Puma is conceptually related to “dog” in memory.

Research also suggests that marketers may be able to forge a relationship between a cue and desired attitudes and behaviors. For example, while there is no reason to believe that a frog has a semantic relationship with a bottle of wine, an experiment by Labroo, Dhar and Schwarz (2007) indicates that a brand of wine with a frog on the label will be preferred to the same brand with another object, such as a truck, on the label if subjects are first primed with a picture of a frog. Similarly, in a field experiment students who ate at dining halls that utilized trays were exposed to the slogan “Each and every dining hall tray needs five fruits and veggies per day” were observed to increase their consumption of fruits and vegetables in comparison to those exposed to the slogan “Live the healthy way, eat five fruits and veggies per day”. In a control group of students, who ate at a facility that did not expose them to trays, the tray slogan did not impact behavior (Berger & Fitzsimons, 2008).

The semantic priming of content that is negatively valenced may have a negative influence on a brand. An experiment by Labroo and Lee exposed subjects either to an ad for “2-in-1-Not–Nice-to-Lice Shampoo” or to an ad for “Agnesi Pasta”, and subsequently measured attitudes towards Nutriance conditioner. As hypothesized, evaluations of Nutriance conditioner suffered when it was paired with a semantically related product with negative connotations (a shampoo designed to treat head-lice). In the present study we examine whether semantic primes (employed in isolation in previous studies) have the capacity to influence brand attitudes in the posited direction when those primes are placed in the more cluttered environment of the novel.

Hypotheses

H1: Subjects exposed to semantically related content in a book chapter will report more favorable attitudes towards the target brand than subjects exposed to unrelated content

H2: Subjects exposed to semantically related, but negatively valenced, content in a book chapter will report less favorable attitudes towards the target brand than subjects exposed to unrelated content

Experiment

Thirty-eight undergraduate students participated in a laboratory experiment. After being exposed to the experimental stimulus—a chapter of fiction that was purportedly written by a new novelist---students evaluated two brands (a Puma T-Shirt and Nutriance Conditioner). The chapter featured a light-hearted discussion between a college president and his wife on the problems facing the university. Subjects in the Puma treatment group were exposed to conceptually related content in the stimulus chapter—paragraphs featuring the protagonist’s dog—designed to enhance the conceptual fluency of cats, and as a result enhance attitudes towards the Puma brand. Subjects in the Nutriance treatment group were exposed to paragraphs discussing the protagonist’s problems with head-lice and the “Not-Nice to Lice Shampoo” solution. This negatively valence content was designed to reduce attitudes towards the semantically related Nurturance brand of conditioner. Thus subjects Puma treatment group served as control subjects in evaluations of Nurturance, while subjects in the Nurturance treatment group served as control subjects in evaluations of Puma. In a previous study, dogs had served as effective semantic primes for the Puma brand (Berger & Fitzsimons, 2008), while “Not-Nice-to-Lice Shampoo” has also served as an effective negatively-valence semantic prime for the Nurturance brand of conditioner (Lee &Labroo, 2004).

The cover story involved informing the subjects that they would be evaluating a chapter of fiction written by an aspiring author. Prior to the chapter evaluations subjects completed some product evaluations (which included the dependent variables). The dependent variables—attitudes towards Puma and Nutriance respectively—were captured by averaging responses to two 7-point (unfavorable/favorable and dislike/Like) items.

Results

The results failed to support H1. A comparison of reported attitudes towards the Puma brand were not significantly different between subjects exposed to the dog prime (M=4.26) and those exposed to the shampoo prime (M= 4.76, t(36)

= .94, p > .35) Similarly, H2 was not supported. A comparison of reported attitudes towards the Nutriance brand were not significantly different between subjects exposed to the shampoo prime (M=3.32) and those exposed to the dog prime (M= 3.37, t(36) = .12, p > .9).

Discussion

Semantic priming involves inducing changes in attitudes and behaviors through the creation of an environment in which subjects are exposed to conceptually related cues (Lee & Labroo, 2004). Research suggests that such priming increases the accessibility in memory of a conceptually related object, which results in positive affect for the target object (Berger & Fitzsimmons, 2008; Labroo, Dhar &Schwarz, 2007; Reber, Schwarz & Winkielman, 2004). The present study examines the robustness of semantic priming in the context of a novel-- an environment in which semantic priming is surrounded by the clutter of the author's plot. The results of a laboratory experiment indicate that semantic priming fails to induce significant effects on attitudes towards conceptually related brands when semantic primes are located within the context of a novel. This result was unaffected by the valence of the prime.

This study extends research on both brand placement in novels as well as semantic priming. Previous research has examines the effects of brands placed in a novel on brand recall (Brennan, 2008; Brennan, 2009), rather than brand attitudes. Furthermore these previous studies on brand placement have examined the effects of an explicit brand placement rather than the effects of primes that are semantically related to a brand that is not explicitly mentioned in the text. Brennan (2009) reported that the effects of the clutter (plot development) that surround explicit brand placements in a novel suppress the part-list cueing effect—the finding that when subjects are exposed to a brand name their ability to freely recall competitive brands is impaired (Alba & Chattopadhyay, 1985; Alba & Chattopadhyay,1986). The results of the present study suggest that clutter has a similar attenuating effect on semantic priming—and effect that has been supported in environments in which the primes are isolated (Labroo, Dhar &Schwarz 2007; Labroo & Lee, 2004).

The study also has practical implications for authors and brand managers involved in the negotiation of brand placement contracts in the USA. Historically, authors were not required to disclose the fact that they had been compensated for including references to specific brands (Brennan, 2008), and so readers were unable to distinguish between brand placements and those that the author had included merely to add realism to a character or plot. In 2009, however, the Federal Trade Commission report *Guides Concerning the Use of Endorsements and Testimonials in Advertising* issued new guidelines requiring the disclosure of any material connection between the endorser and the seller of a product when such a connection is not reasonably expected by an audience. Brand managers who attempt to evade the disclosure rules by compensating an author for semantic primes which may be conceptually related to their brand are likely to be disappointed by the results of the present study. Before brand managers abandon the strategy of using semantic priming in novels, however, future research should consider whether making the semantic primes the central focus of a chapter will overcome the attenuating effects of clutter that were observed in the present study.

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What keeps smokers from quitting?
Uncovering attribute-based loyalty determinants in cigarette brands

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Purpose

Recently, a number of studies have examined the possibility of better explaining the loyalty structure of brands based on various product attributes or "variants" (Trinh et al, 2009). From this perspective, it is considered that a product category consists of subcategories according to product variants, and that each of these subcategories performs differently in terms of loyalty, obtaining its own attribute-level loyalty (Chrysochou, Krystallis, & Rungie, 2008; Krystallis & Chrysochou, 2011). The present work aims to uncover product variants that possibly contribute to brand performance and loyalty creation in the tobacco category. More specifically, based on four differentiated product variants (i.e. nicotine/tar content, length, flavour and thickness) the category is divided into a number of sub-categories comprising differentiated or regular cigarette versions (i.e. light vs. regular nicotine/tar content, long vs. normal, menthol vs. regular, and slim vs. regular). The objective of the work is to provide a deeper understanding of the exact contribution of each variant in market performance and/or loyalty outcomes.

From a methodological point of view, the present study combines the stochastic and the deterministic approaches to measuring brand loyalty using the Dirichlet model for describing patterns of attribute-based loyalty behaviour. Data based on the Juster Probability Scale is collected from a sample of N=155 smokers in Iceland through a questionnaire completion task. All sample participants are Icelanders who expressed their conscious effort to quit smoking, so this work intends to bring into light the cigarette product variants that operate as marketing-related loyalty "hooks" that keep smokers from fulfilling their expressed want to exit the market.

According to the Public Health Institute of Iceland (ATVR, 2010), 21.6 percent of people between 15 and 89 years of age smoke every day. Icelanders bought at average 50.55 packs per person in 2008, 7.2 percent less than in 2003. Smoking has been prohibited in Iceland in most public places for several years, while it is the first country in the world to ban tobacco advertisements in all mass media in the 1970's. Tobacco brand prices in the Icelandic market essentially do not differ across brands and are set at a very high level (more than €5.5 per pack).

Methodology

A well-known model for studying repeat-purchase behaviour from a stochastic approach is the Dirichlet model (Goodhardt, Ehrenberg, & Chatfield, 1984; Ehrenberg, 1988; Wright, Sharp, & Sharp, 1998). The Dirichlet model calculates the probability of how many purchases each customer will make in a specific time period, as well as specifies the probability of each brand being bought on each purchase occasion. The model assumes that each consumer has a certain probability to buy a specific brand and that this probability is steady over time. Moreover, each consumer is seen to choose from a repertoire of brands, typically buying one brand more often than another. This steady but divided brand loyalty differs across heterogeneous consumers and aggregates to brand performance measures (BPMs, i.e. brand and category penetration, brand and category purchase frequency and brand market share) that follow certain patterns from brand to brand. The only input needed to calibrate the model is the overall incidence of a brand being chosen. In order to describe and predict purchase behaviour, the Dirichlet model is used as a benchmark tool by comparing theoretical BPMs for a given brand as estimated from the Dirichlet model to its observed BPMs derived from the data (Li, Habel, & Rungie, 2009). Thus, in order to apply the Dirichlet model one has to provide to the model certain inputs from the initial dataset (i.e. the observed BPMs). Wright, Sharp, & Sharp (2002) explain in details how these inputs can be generated.

Moreover, the main measure used for assessing loyalty at the category, product attribute or brand levels is the polarization index φ (Rungie, 2004; Rungie, Laurent, O'Riley, & Morrison, 2005). This measure captures heterogeneity in consumers' choices and varies from 0 to 1. Zero indicates pure homogeneity in consumer choice, meaning that all consumers have the same brand choice probabilities; whereas 1 indicates maximal heterogeneity, i.e. when each consumer always buys only his/hers favourite brand. In a perfect Dirichlet market all brands would have the same polarization value, identical to the category polarization. However, real markets are rarely perfect Dirichlet and the brand level polarization differs. This difference represents the degree to which the brand systematically deviates from perfect Dirichlet in terms of its loyalty metrics (Li *et al*., 2009). Rungie, Goodman & Lockshin (2006) first outlined the use of polarisation to examine attribute-based loyalty (i.e. loyalty to price tiers).

An approach to estimate BPMs and polarisation is to use stated preference data. Juster (1966, in Wright *et al.*, 2002) developed the 11-point Juster Probability Scale (JPS) that can be applied in a questionnaire survey context. Respondents are asked to state their possibility to buy a certain brand within a product category over a certain future period of time. The answers are on a scale from 0 to 10, where zero stands for "*(almost) no chance (1 in 100 times)*", and 10 stands for "*(almost) practically certain (99 in 100 times)*". Wright *et al.* (2002) conducted a validation study of the JPS involving comparisons with panel data for 16 brands in three product categories, and showed that Juster estimators perform very well as panel data substitutes. Use of such data permits the combination of the stochastic (i.e. Dirichlet) and the deterministic (i.e. investigating product variant-level loyalty) approaches.

The questionnaire used for data collection consists of 4 sections. The first section (4 items) investigates participants' smoking behaviour. The second section (16 items) relates to the JPS question accompanying each of the 15 most sold cigarette brands in 2008 in Iceland (ATVR, 2010), referring to a future time period of "next week". In the end of that section, the same question related to "any other brand" is included. The third section (6 items) asks participants about the importance they assign to the four product variants under consideration, as well as to price and brand name. The answers are on a 7-point Likert scale with end-points: 1 = "not important at all" and 7 = "very important". The final section of the questionnaire includes questions about respondents' socio-demographic characteristics (6 items). The 15 cigarette brands of the study form a number of subcategories according to the variant under consideration (Table 1).

The sample participants are recruited through social networking to guarantee randomness and variability in smokers' profile. The number of participants is N = 155 smokers who have consciously tried to quit in the past. Their age ranges from 21 to 58 years, with average just above 30 years. Less than half (43.9 percent) are male, 37.4 percent are married or living together with a partner, and 58.3 percent are university degree holders or higher.

Analysis and Results

The research is in its data analysis phase. Preliminary results and descriptive statistics will be generated through SPSS v.18. The necessary inputs for the derivation of the theoretical BPMs of the

Table 1: Description of the cigarette brands included in the study

Brand no.	Brand name	Packs sold in 2008	Price	Type (*)	Length	Flavour	Thickness	Family Brand
1	Winston Classic Red	2334770	895 ISK ([1])	Regular	Normal	Regular	Regular	Winston
2	Marlboro Red	1944390	895 ISK	Regular	Normal	Regular	Regular	Marlboro
3	Winston Balanced Blue	1698120	895 ISK	Light	Normal	Regular	Regular	Winston
4	Marlboro White	1654170	895 ISK	Light	Normal	Regular	Regular	Marlboro
5	Salem Menthol White Lights	1217650	895 ISK	Light	Normal	Menthol	Regular	Salem
6	Capri Menthol 100's	684580	895 ISK	Light	Long	Menthol	Slim	Capri
7	Capri 100's	503780	895 ISK	Light	Long	Regular	Slim	Capri
8	Camel KSF	490500	895 ISK	Regular	Normal	Regular	Regular	Camel
9	Winston Classic Red 100's	468740	895 ISK	Regular	Long	Regular	Regular	Winston
10	Camel Subtle Flavour	432690	895 ISK	Light	Normal	Regular	Regular	Camel
11	L&M Red	401420	835 ISK	Regular	Normal	Regular	Regular	L&M
12	Salem Menthol Green	395270	895 ISK	Regular	Normal	Menthol	Regular	Salem
13	Gold Coast KSF	387040	835 ISK	Regular	Normal	Regular	Regular	Gold Coast
14	Salem Slims Menthol 100's	360800	895 ISK	Light	Long	Menthol	Slim	Salem
15	L&M Blue	309250	835 ISK	Light	Normal	Regular	Regular	L&M

*: Based on nicotine and tar content
1: Icelandic kroner (1 EUR = 154.917 ISK)

Dirichlet model as described in the methodology section will be generated through MATLAB. Then, the inputs will be inserted into the excel-based program DIRICHLET, which will be used to fit the Dirichlet model to the data (i.e. estimate the theoretical BPMs).

Implications

When it comes to brand loyalty, smokers are considered to be extremely loyal to their brands. Alsop (1989) states that tobacco brand loyalty is the highest among all product categories. According to Pollay (2000), only 3 percent of all smokers can be considered "convertible", in the sense that they are likely to switch brands. The same author states that the extremely high brand loyalty of smokers is caused by the strong "satisfaction" that nicotine provides to those addicted to it. This kind of brand loyalty is very hard to beat. Another reason that makes the study of buyer loyalty in the tobacco category interesting is the fact that very few fast-moving consumer goods are in the situation that advertising or promotion is almost completely banned in numerous markets around the world. Therefore, external marketing efforts affect consumer preference, choice and loyalty to a specific cigarette brand only to a very minimal extent in those markets. Finally, not much (published) research has been done in relation to brand loyalty in the tobacco category. A possible reason for this is the ethical considerations that accompany the provision of managerial suggestions for inducing tobacco purchases and smoking.

The above suggest that a study shedding light on tobacco product differentiation and its exact way of functioning to improve cigarette brands' performance and/or loyalty creation is both timely and needed in the fight against smoking. By gaining knowledge about which product differentiation parameters induce market share and/or smokers' loyalty, public health policy makers can benefit in their fight against nicotine consumption by taking public policy counter-measures that can limit or eliminate the anticipated success of differentiation strategies of the tobacco industry.

Originality / Value

Recent advances in the branding literature call for more research efforts to be directed towards the issue of brand loyalty to specific brand *attributes*. It has been argued that managing brand loyalty involves working with a bundle of attributes, of which the brand name is only one (Jarvis *et al.*, 2007). Singh, Goodhardt, & Ehrenberg (2001) and Singh, Ehrenberg, & Goodhardt (2008) state that although product variants have proliferated in most categories, leading to costly loyalty-building programs and price and volume promotions, manufacturers, retailers and marketing professionals seem to have little empirical knowledge on this issue. Even in the marketing literature, consumer loyalty levels to variants has seldom been measured, analyzed or discussed. In contrast, the standard loyalty measures for the main functional product variants show the loyalty patterns which have long been established for brands (Singh *et al.*, 2008).

In all, the present work constitutes the first effort to conceptually approach the issue of loyalty to tobacco brands from the product attribute loyalty point of view, while managerially contributing to the devising of relevant anti-smoking public policies, as described above.

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Exploring differences in product attribute preferences of private vs. manufacturer brand buyers

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Introduction

Nowadays, in most of the developed countries around the globe private brands have witnessed considerable growth (Sethuraman, 2009). This growth can be attributed to increased consumer recognition and retailers' capability to promote private brands (Dhar & Hoch, 1997). Although consumer decisions to purchase private brands may depend on the product category (Richardson, Jain & Dick, 1996), product characteristics may be important drivers of choice and differ between private and manufacturer brands (Kwon, Lee & Kwon, 2008). Kwon et al. (2008) postulated that perceived product characteristics may influence purchase intent towards private brands. More specific, in product categories that are characterised by low involvement and low switching costs there is higher intention to buy private brands. Moreover, low value-conscious consumers are more likely to buy private brands when the products are search goods rather than experience goods.

These findings suggest that private brands, in comparison to manufacturer brands, are perceived differently by consumers. Moreover, consumers may place different importance weights to product attributes when choosing between private and manufacturer brands within the same product category. However, the literature still lacks comparative insights into the differences in preferences for specific attributes between private labels and manufacturer brand buyers across different product categories. In order to further explore this phenomenon, this paper aims to investigate differences in product attribute preferences between brand type buyer groups (i.e. private vs. manufacturer brand buyers) between two fast moving consumer goods categories.

Material and Method

For the purposes of this study, the Best-Worst Scaling (BWS) method was used to measure the importance that private and manufacturer brand buyers assign to product attributes (Marley and Louviere, 2005). There are many advantages in using BWS; for instance, BWS is free from individual scale usage bias and infers a ratio level importance scale that allows for comparisons across consumer segments (Lee, Soutar & Louviere, 2008; Marley and Louviere, 2005). During a BWS task, participants are asked to indicate the most (best) and least (worst) important attribute from sub-sets of all attributes (Marley and Louviere, 2005). In the present study, participants were asked to choose the attribute that most and the attribute that least influenced their choice when purchasing private and manufacturer brands.

In order to investigate differences across product categories, a non-edible (toothpaste) and an edible (orange juice) category were included. Attributes in each category to be evaluated were elicited and validated based on a pilot study. For each category, a final set of 13 attributes was drawn. Then, these 13 attributes were combined into 13 subsets of 4 attributes each, based on a balanced incomplete block design. This type of design ensures that each attribute appears the same number of times (i.e. 4 times) across all subsets and that within each subset each pair of attributes appears only once. For each attribute, the aggregated BWS score was estimated by subtracting the number of times that each attribute was chosen as "least important" from the number of times that it was chosen as "most important". The results of these calculations are individual-level BWS scores for each attribute that are easily comparable across the entire sample. As explained above, in this study each attribute appeared a total of 4 times in the experiment, therefore the individual-level BWS scores for each attribute range between +4 and -4.

Data were collected in the form of a web-based survey carried out in Germany during July 2010. Two versions of questionnaires were distributed, one for each product category. The questionnaire was structured into four sections. In the first section, participants were provided with brief definitions of private and manufacturer brands in order to ensure an accurate understanding of the terms. The second section included general shopping behaviour questions, such as preferred shopping location, volume per shopping trip and frequency of purchase from the categories selected. In this section, a question in relation to past purchase behavior (*i.e. how many times out of 5 did you buy private label/manufacturer brands?*) was asked to classify the sample into private and manufacturer brand buyers. The third section included the Best-Worst Scaling (BWS) method. Finally, the last section included questions related to consumer socio-demographics.

Results

In total, 410 participants took part in the survey, from which 49.3% were private brand buyers. The average age of the sample was 35.7 years, 42.2% were male and 73.7% were non-married.

Tables 1 and 2 present the scores from the BWS method. In order to derive with a standardized ratio scale of attribute importance, the square root of the ratio of best and worst counts was used (Lee, Soutar & Louviere, 2008). Standardisation of this ratio to 100 for the most important attributes allowed for comparisons of the importance of each attribute relative to the most important one. In addition, this approach provided the opportunity to compare the importance of each attribute between private and manufacturer brand buyers. For example, for orange juice the attribute "pure" was the most important attribute for the whole sample and the manufacturer brand buyers, whereas "good value for money" was the most important attribute for private brand buyers. Finally, independent sample t-tests reveal the differences in the individual-level BWS scores between private and manufacturer brand buyers.

Table 1. Individual-level BWS scores and square root ratio scores for each attribute (Orange Juice)

Attribute	**Whole Sample (N=210)**		**Private brand buyers (N=109)**	**Manufacturer brand buyers (N=101)**	**t-test (p value)**
	Mean of individual-level BWS	**StdSQRT**	**StdSQRT**	**StdSQRT**	
Pure	2.80	100	36	100	-1.89 (0.061)
Taste	2.30	98	54	58	-0.24 (0.812)
Good value for money	***2.09***	***85***	***100***	***37***	***7.32 (0.000)***
Brand trust	***0.70***	***27***	***8***	***33***	***-6.51 (0.000)***
Pulp	-0.10	18	7	14	-1.73 (0.084)
Vitamin C	-0.37	15	7	11	-0.84 (0.405)
Sales promotions	***-0.33***	***15***	***10***	***7***	***5.50 (0.000)***
Corporate image	***-0.60***	***13***	***4***	***12***	***-3.97 (0.000)***
Long shelf life	***-0.66***	***13***	***7***	***7***	***2.65 (0.009)***
Premium price	-0.93	9	4	5	1.11 (0.268)
Paper carton packaging	***-1.78***	***6***	***4***	***2***	***4.15 (0.000)***
Recyclable packaging	-1.22	6	3	4	0.76 (0.446)
Calcium	***-1.89***	***5***	***1***	***4***	***-3.59 (0.000)***

Table 2. Individual-level BWS scores and square root ratio scores for each attribute (Toothpaste)

Attribute	**Whole Sample (N=200)**		**Private label buyers (N=93)**	**Manufacturer brand buyers (N=107)**	**t-test (p value)**
	Mean of Individual-level BWS	**StdSQRT**	**StdSQRT**	**StdSQRT**	
Good value for money	***2.16***	***100***	***100***	***92***	***4.32 (0.000)***
Tartar control/fluoride content	1.94	79	37	100	0.32 (0.750)
Breath freshening capabilities	1.35	58	35	63	1.33 (0.184)
Taste	1.16	50	21	66	-0.45 (0.656)
Whitening capabilities	1.12	44	21	55	0.17 (0.866)
Brand trust	***0.43***	***33***	***10***	***55***	***-4.40 (0.000)***
Dentist's approval	-0.16	22	9	32	-1.21 (0.228)
Corporate image	***-1.00***	***13***	***4***	***22***	***-3.76 (0.000)***
Texture	-1.10	10	4	14	-0.62 (0.539)
No additives	***-1.12***	***11***	***4***	***17***	***-1.98 (0.049)***
Stand-up packaging	***-1.54***	***11***	***6***	***11***	***2.67 (0.008)***
Product innovations	-1.57	9	4	12	0.95 (0.344)
Tube packaging	***-1.67***	***9***	***5***	***11***	***2.23 (0.027)***

Discussion and implications

The present work offers insights into the differences in preferences for specific attributes between private labels and manufacturer brand buyers in two different product categories. Such comparative insights are currently missing from the relevant literature, so the present work fills in an existing gap in this respect.

Based on the results some general conclusions can be drawn. Between product categories, both private and manufacturer brand buyers assign importance to similar product attributes. For example, the attribute "good value for money" was among the most important ones, followed by health and quality related attributes. However, between buyer groups there were also significant differences within each product category. Brand trust and corporate image were more important for manufacturer brand buyers, whereas good value of money was more important for private brand buyers (especially in the orange juice category). On the opposite, physical product attributes (i.e. packaging-related) do not seem to differ between buyer groups or, where different, the preference scores are among the lowest of all attributes examined.

This study raises some broader implications for the marketing of private brands. Private label buyers care for functional performance of products (i.e. in the present case for hedonic and health-related attributes) as much as manufacturer brands buyers do. However, their preferences are led by good value for money. This suggests that this group should be provided with products that are good value for money and at the same time be similar in performance to manufacturer brands. On the other hand, branding is more important for manufacturer brand buyers.

These two different approaches (i.e. private label buyers carrying for functional performance; and manufacturer brand buyers carrying for functional performance AND product/corporate branding) might lead us to conclude that the two buyer groups perceive the meaning of "good value for money" differently. The brand is part of the value experience for the manufacturer brand buyers, possibly irrespective of the category in which the brand belongs. In this respect, it can be concluded that a strong brand stands as independent contributor to customers' perceived quality, comparable or even beyond the (expectedly high) product's functional quality performance. Besides functional quality, manufacturers should keep investing in strong brand building to retain their customer basis, induce loyalty and prevent their buyers from switching.

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The Impact of Copycat Packaging Strategies on Private Labels' Adoption

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Introduction

Private Labels have been gaining increasing importance throughout the world (Kumar & Steenkamp, 2007) with store brands being present on almost every product category (Geyskens, Gielens, & Gijsbrechts, 2010). Private labels (PL) are estimated to account for one of every five items sold every day in USA (Ailawadi, Pauwels, & Steenkamp, 2008), representing around 20% of the average purchases made worldwide (Lamey, Deleersnyder, Dekimpe, & Steenkamp, 2007). Nowadays we are assisting to a proliferation of segmentation strategies at the level of private labels (Kumar & Steenkamp 2007), indicating that retailers are not just competing on price, but instead are trying to conquer a significant market share traditionally owned by manufacturers. From an initial focus on price, private labels have moved to a quality positioning, and more recently, to a status orientation positioning, extracting benefits from the retailers' own-brand image (Steenkamp, Heerde & Geyskens, 2009).
Anecdotal evidence suggests that the stiff competition between national brands and private labels has led many retailers to adopt packaging strategies very similar to the ones developed and used by national brands, often named copycat strategies, eventually hoping to benefit from positive associations held by consumers regarding these brands. Since packaging can affect consumers' perceptions of products, increase consumers' perceptions of quality (Butkevicienė Stravinskienė & Rūtelionė, 2008) and strengthen the consumer-brand relationship (Underwood, 2003), it is of great relevance to understand the impact of these copycat packaging strategies on consumers' behavior.

The present research analyzes the impact of copycat strategy adoption by retailers on consumers' product quality perception and decision-making process, assessing to what extent the adoption of this type of strategies reveals to be beneficial for the retailers, enhancing likelihood of PL adoption.

Private Labels and Copycat Packaging Strategies

Previous research has focused in different private labels (PL) aspects as competitive price interaction (Coterill, Putsis & Dhar, 2000; Putsis, 1997; Steiner, 2004), private labels' growth across different categories (Hoch & Banerji 1993), the impact of specific promotional tools on private label penetration (Sethuraman & Mittelstaedt, 1992), the link between private label performance and economic conditions (Lamey et al., 2007; Quelch & Harding, 1996), and the impact of private labels share on store loyalty (Ailawadi et al., 1998).

Main results from these studies are quite diverse and disperse. While Coterill et al. (2000) found a negative relationship between national brand-private label price differential and private label market share, Putsis' findings (1997) indicate that successful private label penetration lowers the average price of branded products. On a different perspective, Lamey et al. (2007) findings indicate a negative, but asymmetric, relationship between consumers' proneness to adopt private labels and economic cycles.

Despite these studies, there are still several unanswered questions about this prevalent phenomenon in consumers' shopping reality. It seems therefore of special relevance to analyze one of the factors that may have a strong impact on the PL adoption: retailers' packaging strategies for their store brands.

This research analyzes the influence of different private-label package formats on consumers' decision-making process and consumers' quality perception. More precisely, we are interested in assessing the impact of introduction of private labels as "copycats" in the market. To our knowledge there are no studies that address the consequences of such marketing strategy in terms of consumers' quality perception, attitudes and purchase behavior.

Packaging is a significant marketing tool that can influence consumers' attitude towards a product. Several studies outlined that the packages' characteristics as shape (Folkes, Martin, & Gupta, 1993; Raghubir & Krishna, 1999), size (Coelho do Vale, Pieters, & Zeelenberg, 2008; Wansink, 1996), and brand logo location (Lans, Pieters, & Wedel, 2008) can affect the way consumers evaluate and choose the products. We predict that the adoption of packaging visual characteristics similar to the ones of national brands can lead to a stimulus generalization effect with features associated with the national brand manufacturer being generalized to the private-label (Burshteyn & Buff, 2008). This would mean that consumers can transpose from the national brands that are being imitated a set of characteristics to the private labels that adopted the copy cat strategy. In our current framework we predict that as compared with an own-branding PL packaging strategy, the adoption of copycat strategies may increase consumers' PL quality perception, which may enhance consumers' likelihood of purchase of PL.

Studies

We examined our predictions in four studies. In study 1 we conducted a field-study in which we assessed the level of penetration of copycat strategies in order to analyze if there was evidence in the market for this kind of phenomenon.

Data was collected by independent judges across the main six Portuguese retailers. Information was gathered for 172 sub-product categories about the existence of private labels, first price, original brands and copycat packaging strategies, across six main retailing chains. Results indicated that the adoption of copy cat packaging strategies was a prevalent phenomenon, present in about 34,2% of product categories, across retailers. It is therefore of great relevance to understand the impact of this type of packaging strategies on consumers' PL adoption process.

Study 2 analyzed to what extent copycat packaging strategies can influence consumers perceptions regarding product quality, production origin and purchase confusion. Participants were randomly distributed among two groups. Each group of participants was presented with a set of 12 product combinations and answered to a battery of questions regarding those products. Groups differed in the type of product combinations that were exposed to: one group was presented to a combination of national brands and a private label with own-branding packaging, while other group was presented to a combination of national brands and a private label with copy-cat packaging. Results indicated that consumers perceive copycat products as being more similar to national brands in what concerns packaging, quality, origin and benefits compared with own branding PLs, highlighting the importance of better understanding the impact of these strategis on consumers' decision-making process.

Study 3 assessed the influence of PL copycat packaging strategies on consumers' likelihood of purchase. A convenience sample was used, composed by professors and employees of a large European University that were typically involved in the purchase of groceries to their households. An online supermarket was created, offering a wide variety of national brands and PLs. Participants were given a shopping list and were told to shop in the online supermarket items presented in the list. Results indicated that while for hedonic product categories the PLs packaging strategy (copycat vs own brand image) does not influence the choice of consumers, results were statistically significant for utilitarian products, with consumers choosing more PL's with copycat packaging than with own image packaging.

A fourth study analyzed on a supermarket context the impact of copy cat packaging strategies on likelihood of purchase. It followed a very similar design to study 3, but this time a real supermarket was created on the University facilities. Students were given a shopping list and asked to shop as they would do in a regular supermarket. Findings indicated once more that the impact of PL copy cat packaging strategies is mostly significant on the utilitarian categories, with consumers' showing a higher propensity to purchase PL when in presence of a copy cat package versus when in presence of a PL with own branding package.

Overall, these four studies provide support to our predictions, indicating that copycat packaging strategies can play a major role in terms of consumers' private label adoption, contributing to a higher preference for store brand products.

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Session 8.4

Sonic branding: A review of literature on music in branding and consumer research

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How is Green seen? Exploring the Impact of Visual Elements in 'Green' Advertising

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To be or not to be: this is shopping - Sensory branding and self satisfaction

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Richard Michon, Ryerson University, Canada
Jean-Charles Chebat, HEC Montréal, Canada
Claire Gélinas-Chebat, UQAM, Canada

How Retail Banks Use Atmosphere to Transform Corporate Image and Identity: An Exploratory Study

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Sonic branding: A review of literature on music in branding and consumer research

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Introduction

The role of music and sound has changed greatly with recent technological development. Nowadays people can carry a large portion of their own choice of music with them everywhere. Today, the in-store environment is one rare instance where individuals cannot decide on the music. Thus, the store is an important space where brands can make an impact through sonic branding practices.

Since Brüner's (1990) oft-cited review article of music in marketing, spanning 20 empirical articles on music and marketing, there is no extensive overview of today's research on music in marketing. The present paper will seek to bridge this gap in the literature by focusing on recent developments of sonic branding as a research area, concerning the interface between music and brand, from a consumer perspective and a strategic company perspective. The aim here is to map sonic branding research, offering potential guidance for future research on sonic branding in Consumer Culture Theory (CCT) (Arnould and Thompson, 2005).

Mapping the research area of sonic branding for CCT: Perspectives, tensions and challenges

'Sonic Branding' means branding with sound – for instance, with music (Jackson, 2003). Music can be a powerful marketing tool on the consumer market (e.g. Jackson, 2003; Fulberg, 2003; Westermann, 2008; Kilian, 2009). In the Sonic Branding area today, theories and practices are largely intermingled, moreover, the field is heavily practitioner oriented. In branding practice, music has recently gained strategic importance as marketers increasingly explore music's potential when communicating the brand (Graakjaer & Jantzen, 2009). Although there are few books and articles existing on 'Sonic Branding' as such (Fulberg, 2003), there are various, more or less synonymous, labels expressing 'Sonic Branding' as a field of research and as a marketing opportunity for practitioners. The area of Sonic Branding is wide – covering such disperse topics as elevator music (Lanza, 2004), Sonic Warfare (Goodman, 2009), consumers' behaviour in a wine store depending on the kind of music playing (Areni & Kim, 1993), branding strategy (Jackson, 2003; Fulberg, 2003; Treasure, 2007; Lusensky, 2010), and work discussing music's ability to bring people both closer together, and closer to their selves, in their everyday life (DeNora, 2000).

Because the term 'Sonic Branding' is the term most frequently used in the field of Consumer Culture Theory, CCT, (Arnould & Thompson, 2005) as a description of how sound is made to interact with brands to create meaning for the brand (J. E. Schroeder & Borgerson, 1999), I chose to use it as the overall label in this paper. In the CCT field (Arnould & Thompson, 2005), the role of music as a sonic branding tool has notably been researched in the case of Hawaii (Borgerson and Schroeder, 2003). Precedence in CCT has so far been taken by investigating the role of the DJ's 'sonic cyborgs' – 'prosumers' of music. The DJ then becomes a looking glass through which music as combined production and consumption can be amply studied, as the phenomena of consumer co-production becomes magnified compared to, for instance, the case of consumers making their own playlists (Giesler, 2003; Lusensky, 2010; Heitanen , Rokka, Roman, Tikkanend & Asparae, 2010). The theoretical theme of exploring the boundary of consumption and production, as applied to various music scenes, styles and uses of music, has also been explored in a recent special issue in *Consumption Markets and Culture* (Bradshaw & Shankar, 2008). This special issue is ground breaking in that it clearly marks out music as a site for interesting future research in consumer culture theory.

Using a theoretical approach to sonic branding, Bode (2009) agrees with Adorno's (1970) tradition which sees music as an inevitably vague signifier. He argues that the only thing researchers can do to get to understand about what a piece of music signifies is to study it in its cultural context. In arguing that the 'music fit' concept where the music is perceived as 'central to the ad message' (MacInnis & Park, 1991, p. 162) by consumers is outdated, Bode demonstrates how culture determines what a piece of music means at a certain point in time and that this is a complex process. Bode's theory thus meritoriously opens up for more theoretically informed interpretations and strategies in advertising with music.

In the marketing literature, sonic branding is depicted either as a tool which opens up for new possibilities for marketers (e.g. Kilian, 2009), or a power tool used to steer consumers in-store (e.g. Bradshaw & Holbrook, 2008). Another prominent tension between perspectives in sonic branding is that between the psychological perspective and the CCT perspective. Although both investigate consumer behaviour, the psychological perspective caters more clearly to the corporations, whereas the CCT perspective is generally more critical toward power structures guiding consumers (see e.g. Bradshaw & Holbrook, 2008), or exploring the potential impact of music in consumers' lives (Giesler & Schroeder, 2001).

Stemming from sociology, Sound studies have many points in common with CCT (Arnould & Thompson, 2005). Both fields take a meaning-based approach to consumer issues in a socially and culturally constructed world. However, researchers in CCT tend to take the consumer point of view, focusing on how the consumers co-construct different phenomena (e.g. brands, music, ads) whereas Sound studies tend to focus more on the phenomenon (e.g. music in movies, music technology) than on the persons relating to the phenomenon. Sociologist Tia DeNora (2000) examines ethnographically how people use music. She finds that music is vitalizing, it is here and now, music has power which is connected for instance with entrainment (i.e. when the body works largely unconsciously or subconsciously in tune with the music). Music is also a power tool in public space, DeNora argues. Music is a practice – we act to and with music and this means that music is not something which is 'done' to us (DeNora, 2000). This perspective enables an analysis of sonic branding which takes into account the consumers' production of meaning.

Sonic branding: From practice to theory, from background to foreground

In conclusion, the 'branding' part of 'sonic branding' is underdeveloped in the literature overall, and especially in the consumer oriented research. Future research needs to address this. Investigating the difference between background and foreground music within a sonic branding framework is a future challenge. Further, music can be overpowering, and we might have to get away from it in certain instances (Bradshaw & Holbrook, 2008; DeNora, 2000) – this is something which research in sonic branding has yet to capture and theorize with a clear branding perspective.

The present paper contributes with a CCT-oriented review of sonic branding literature in marketing and consumer research. The main future challenge for researchers is to claim this area as theoretical, creating a firmer conceptual basis for sonic branding research.

Keywords

Sonic Branding; Literature Review; Brand; Music; Sound; Consumers

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How is green seen? Exploring the impact of visual elements in ‘green’ advertising.

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The groundswell of concern for the environment has been most pronounced since the early 1970’s (Kilbourne & Beckmann 1998). Consequently there has been a rise in adverts explicitly focussed on specific ‘green’ products or services, and Todd (2004, p92) indicates advertising (and image created by the brand) can also be influential in highlighting the broader environmental consciousness of the company or organisation. The intention is that the ‘consciousness of a company’ establishes a bond with the values and predisposition of consumers, which influences ‘what’ and ‘how’ they buy.
Nevertheless there is a perception that green marketing efforts have failed to achieve their targets of consumption reduction. Consequently the current study seeks to establish the role of visual advertising elements on attitude towards the advert, purchase propensity and advert preference. The role of potential moderating variables were included, along with a variation in product and brand types.

Literature Review

Green/environmental advertising has been on the rise (Banerjee, Gulas, & Iyer, 1995) and more and more producers have been enlightening their consumers about pro-environmental aspects of their products, services and the general manner in which they operate; attempting to create ‘green consumerism’. Yet a decade later Peattie & Crane (2005, p.357) state that on the whole “green marketing gives the impression it has underachieved”. Furthermore, Kollmuss & Agyeman (2002) have alluded to the gap between consumers’ behavioural intent in the context of the environmental knowledge they possess and their actual “pro-environmental behaviour”. Unfortunately as Montoro-Rios, Luque-Martínez & Rodríguez-Molina (2008, p 547) highlight, there is limited scientific literature available that considers the impact of environmental information in creating new attitudes toward products or brands. As a result the reasons for the limited traction in altered consumer behaviours are still to be thoroughly explored, both in terms of message relevance in the advert and message interpretation by the observer.

Some of the potential reasons for the lack of success are explored in the Peattie & Crane (2005) paper, in which they highlight that much of the green marketing in evidence had been ‘misconceived’; but it is Young, Hwang, McDonald & Oates (2009) who infer that for the ‘green’ message to be effective to the point that it influences purchasing behaviour, it needs to address the ‘attitude–behaviour gap’ to enable the concern for the environment to translate into green purchases.

In addition it also pertinent to consider whether these findings are applicable to all product types. The relevance for this stems from the differing attitude and behaviour associated with goods purchased for differing reasons, such as symbolic products (e.g. designer products) compared with utilitarian products (e.g. a product purchased for more regular consumption) (Ang & Lim, 2006).

Since the attitude-behaviour gap is relevant, it is necessary to understand how consumers perceive and process environmental issues. In this regard it has been established that environmental issues are typically considered to be ‘emotional’ in nature (Nicholson-Cole, 2005, p260); inferring that an environmental issue has stronger relation with the affect/emotion of the consumer than with their cognition. The importance of this is the fact that much research (unrelated to the environment) has been undertaken regarding consumer emotion and cognition and the implication thereof for advertisers intending to change consumer behaviour; the results of which would have relevance for green advertising.

A portion of this literature has related to the manner in which the aspects of emotion and cognition are deemed to result in varying efficacy of visuals and copy (i.e. verbal or text content) in advertising (Kim & Lennon, 2008). The premise is that visual elements of adverts are more influential to consumer behaviour when the issue is emotionally loaded (as is explained in Chapter 2); and since environmental issues are deemed to be emotionally loaded, the prevalence of visuals in related advertising may hold the key to bringing about altered consumption. The reciprocal is that adverts that are predominantly verbal would be more influential for individuals with high cognition.

Although these generalisations are made on numerous occasions in the literature, and additional arguments made that visual elements (such as logos, signs, colours, etc.) are universal; Callow & Schiffman (2004, p1113) highlight that just as verbal language varies between cultures so too does localised visual language have a specific cultural context in which it is applicable (this includes visual rhetoric and semiotics). Hence the intended messaged to be conveyed as part of global advertising campaigns may only be applicable in certain contexts if inappropriate imagery is used; but the opportunity exists to use universally accepted and understood visual elements.

It is on this basis that environmental campaigns are predominantly based around a similar global message (for example, global warming, natural resource usage) and portrayed in a similar manner through print media; that it is postulated that amongst other things it may be that the manner in which the message is visually and/or verbally delivered, that determines how successfully the message is being comprehended.

This reliance on imagery is due to the complexity and abstraction of environmental issues such as climate change that make it difficult to communicate simply through copy (Sheppard, 2006), as is typically required in advertising. Similarly visual imagery with the appropriate contextual representations relevant to the viewer helps people to relate their actions to the larger state of climate change (Nicholson-Cole, 2005).

The simplified or abstract representation of these complex environmental conditions has become more reliant on metaphorical and other rhetorical representations to convey the message; for example illustrating the menace of global air pollution as an anthropomorphized Earth struggling to breath. Consequently visual and verbal rhetorical representations are being used increasingly in advertisements (particularly print) (Phillips and McQuarrie, 2002). This is because the incongruity in visuals, or in the combination of headline and visuals, attracts attention and causes consumers to use more cognitive effort to interpret the advertisement. If the "effort is rewarded with relevant meanings, consumers will comprehend and appreciate the advertisement more". Visual rhetorical representations may elicit more meanings than verbal rhetoric since they express a claim indirectly (McQuarrie and Phillips, 2005).

One of the visual formats that plays a role in this regard is the company or brand logotype (logos) since they are akin to recognizable "signatures" that provide the viewer with "immediate recognition" and/or "raised awareness" of a particular brand (Decrop, 2007, p.511). The logo is akin to the "whole of a brand being distilled into a (visual) single sign" (Scott, 2008, p355). Consequently, as Yu (2006, p10) emphasizes, the design of visual communication has been the most important medium to ensure brand success. He states that while certain people view visual communication as the creation of visually spectacular artwork; visuals represent the interface between verbal and non-verbal communication elements, thereby playing a key strategic role in the success of many brands (Bulmer & Buchanan-Oliver, 2006), and the intended consequence of changing purchasing behaviour.

Methodology

A quantitative factorial design was chosen to investigate the influence of visual elements in green print advertising to potentially affect changes in human consumptive practices. This was enacted through a web-based questionnaires administered to business school students (n = 135) where the manipulation of the key visual elements of extent of visuals used relative to the copy, and the inclusion of visual rhetoric (that is, the use of imagery to convey a message) were executed.

To determine this, varying sets of adverts were presented and respondents were requested to rate their *attitude towards the advert*; their *likelihood to purchase* the product shown, and to indicate which adverts they *preferred*. Potential moderating variables related to the observer (that is, need for cognition and need for emotion) and the adverts (that is, product type and brand) were also evaluated.

Results

The findings demonstrated that visuals with in adverts and the use of visual rhetoric could produce statistically different results from adverts without these visual elements. However there was also evidence to suggest that the use and application of visuals is complex in nature and not easily achieved in practical applications. The main reasons for this related to the fact that it is difficult to define visuals at the exclusion of other variables; and that the manner in which a consumer processes this visual is a key determinant that is influenced by processing style/attitude and is consequently not easily controlled.

Nevertheless the findings from this research are that in the case of visual: verbal processing, it has been established as with previous research (Sojka & Giese, 2001; Ruiz & Sicilia, 2004) that persuasive appeal of adverts are more effective when the form of the appeal is similar to either of the two processing styles. So, although consumers can be exposed to the same advert, they can respond differently to the visual and verbal components in the advert based on their preference for visual or verbal information. It is also acknowledged that other visual factors may have influence the viewer's response to an advertisement, this includes aspects such as: picture size, exposure time and number of exposures. An (2007) states that an increase in any of these three variables has been shown to increase recognition, and encoding of details of the advert.

Conclusion and Implications

It is apparent that advert design has a critical role to play in influencing consumer behaviour regarding environmental issues. The superiority of visuals in print advertising is not as evident as the majority of the literature indicates. The more recent arguments for the highest impact coming from the meaningful aligned combinations of visuals and copy were in evidence. The inability to undertake comprehensive statistical analysis of processing style has prevented valuable insights being gained. However the descriptive statistics and anecdotal observations made have illustrated that there is alignment between advert format and processing style. People who score high for NFC appeared to demonstrate a preference for adverts that encouraged them to think, however since the adverts contained both imagery and copy it cannot be comprehensively concluded that such a relationship was observed during this research.

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To be or not to be: this is shopping
Sensory branding and self satisfaction

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Consumption is much more than the simple purchase of products and services. It is a way of self expression, individual identity formation, creativity, or even art (Gabriel & Lang, 1995; Schmitt 1999). It involves experiential and instrumental outcomes, which means that the socio-psychological characteristics of individuals and behavioural variables are powerful cues to influence the consumption model (Babin, Darden & Griffin, 1994). Therefore, shopping has three key dimensions, namely the 'shopping environment', the 'socio-cultural context' and the 'roles, motivations and behaviour' of the individual shopper (Woodruffe, Eccles & Elliott, 2002).

A causal link between the consumer self concept and his/her shopping behavior exists (Sirgy et al., 2000; Chebat, Sirgy & St-James, 2006; Kaltcheva, Chebat & Patino, 2010;), that, in turn, is mediated by the effect a store atmosphere (Babin & Darden, 1995). Some of the atmospheric elements of a shopping environment may be cognitively processed as nonverbal cues, which in turn, may impact product evaluations, etc., without the direct involvement of affective processes such as mood (Spangenberg, Crowley & Henderson, 1996; Chebat & Michon, 2003; Morrin & Ratneshwar, 2003). Many aspects of the retail ambience such as crowding, colors, layout, influence customer emotions and attitudes (Bellizzi, Crowley & Hasty, 1983; Bellizzi & Hite, 1992; Baker, Grewal & Parasuraman, 1994; Machleit, Kellaris & Eroglu, 1994; Sherman, Makur & Belk Smith, 1997; Babin, Hardesty & Suter, 2003).

The main objective of the paper is to understand the phenomenon of self-satisfaction. The basic assumption of the paper is that consumers are satisfied with their choice not when they use the product/brand they bought but when enter the shop; while browsing in the shop consumers identify themselves with the store and brands sold in it. The environment encompasses the consumer identity, exchanging with him/her identity and personality features. People are satisfied with stores and brands that contribute to increasing their self concept, identity and personality.

A sample of 70 tattooed people were interviewed in order to understand the determinants of self satisfaction. They were asked to describe how they feel when they enter a store and what attracts most while shopping. Tattooed people were chosen since they show a higher confidence with their self concept; a tattoo is seen as a form of marking identity (Lévi Strauss, 1955, 220; Velliquette, Murray & Creyer, 1998). In fact, the body increasingly becomes represented as an integral part of self construction and achieves new meanings and a new status that consumers learn through socialization (Sweetman, 2000). People with no more than 3 tattoos were chosen as tattoos were used as cues of fashion/style and self confidence and not of belonging to tribes, subcultures or groups or a sort of mania (Sanders, 1988; Velliquette et al., 1998; Goulding et al., 2004).

Previous research has indicated that shopping behaviour is influenced by several factors such as consumer demographics and psychographics (Gilbert & Warren, 1995), usage situation (de la Fuente & Yague, 2008), price sensitivity (Han, Gupta & Lehman, 2001), social referents (Bearden & Etzel, 1982; Escales & Bettman, 2003), involvement (Michaelidou & Dibb, 2008), need recognition (Grønhaug & Venkatesh, 1991), product category (Mehta, 2007) and so on. Therefore, consumer response proves to be cognitively as well as affectively driven by a number of factors that impact consumer attitudes, perceptions and shopping behaviors (Bellizi & Hite, 1992). Most of the stimuli are related to atmospherics (Kotler, 1974; Bitner, 1992), which has various facets (Turley & Milliman, 2000); music (Herrington & Capella, 1996; Milliman, 1982; Yalch & Spangenberg, 1990), crowding (Hui, Dube & Chebat, 1997; Michon, Chebat & Turley, 2005), effective exterior store windows (Edwards & Shackley, 1992), lighting (Areni & Kim, 1995), store layout (Smith & Burns, 1996) and merchandise arrangement (Areni, Duhan & Kiecker, 1999). Indeed, atmospherics may sometimes operate primarily via cognitive rather than affective routes (Chebat & Michon, 2003).

In such a scenario the experiences consumers live in a store or social environment (Fazio, Effrein & Falender, 1981; Markus & Kunda, 1986) and the social roles they perform in it (Forehand & Deshpande, 2001; Forehand et al., 2002) influence, or better evoke, the self-concept components, namely dispositional characteristics and traits; perceptions of the ongoing or past experiences, social roles, and behaviors; self-related attitudes and affect (Sirgy, 1982; Markus & Wurf, 1987). Chebat et al. (2006) found that upscale shopping mall environments elicit upscale self-relevant attributes. Since people are likely to view themselves as more upscale than they actually are, consumers feel higher self-congruity with upscale shopping malls and evaluate the stores located in such malls more positively (Chebat et al., 2006).

Generally speaking, people use external cues such as hairstyles, jewelry, clothing and cosmetics to display gender, status, values, interests, opinions, lifestyles, roles, and other identity features. Indeed, as people use these nonverbal signs and symbols to communicate individual and group identity and form opinion on other people, as consumers they use such cues to infer the status of the store and the products sold in it and consequently they start to feel satisfied. In choice and buying tasks consumers show and form their situational self image (Schenk & Holman, 1980) that includes attitudes, perceptions and emotions with which a person would like to be associated to. Therefore, consumers decide to show the image that better fit a particular situation, thus assigning a greater value not only to possessions but also to the environment.

Tattoo is a vehicle for human expression; for example, it may represent a signal of accomplishment (Gritton, 1988), group membership (Drewal, 1988), social status (Gathercole, 1988), willingness to please a lover (Bohannan, 1988), or temporary adornment (Rubin, 1988). Most of the literature associates the tattoo with the extended self; the tattoo reflects an image of the self that has positive symbolism rather than the inner self (Velliquette et al., 1998). Tattoo is an ultimate form of branding. According to the legend, the origin of the term brand comes from *brandr*, the Norse word for fire. It means to burn the mark of the producer onto the product that they made (Ritson, 2006).

Structural anthropology (e.g., Levis-strauss, 1958; Barthes, 1983) is the natural hermeneutics framework for analyzing symbols, tattoos and fashion behavior. Fashion statements that are rich in rhetoric (van Leeuwin, 1983) allow researchers to decipher vestimentary codes and fashion value shaping the construction of consumers' self-congruency (Sirgy et al., 2000) and self-identity (Marion, 1983). Content analysis looks at the semiotics of a) body branding (tattoos), b) vestimentary codes, c) fashion brands, and d) store image.

The main result highlights the congruity between a consumer's identity and the store ambience. In general, the respondents match their personality with the store they patronize and the brands they are buying. The first elements that contribute to the satisfaction process are the display (layout/furniture) and the staff attitude. The respondents pointed out that if the external environment is calm (cool), then it reflects in the internal situation (mind) and in the predisposition to shopping and it is more inclined to satisfaction.

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How Retail Banks Use Atmosphere to Transform Corporate Image and Identity: An Exploratory Study

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Abstract
In this paper we focus on the use of atmosphere in two retail banks in Singapore as a tool for transforming corporate brand image and identity. An exploratory case study of two leading Singapore banks is undertaken to show how stakeholders perceive the changing components of atmosphere in these corporate settings. Based upon semi-structured interviews with two groups of participants, managers and customers, supplemented by observational data, several key drivers of atmosphere are identified and suggestions for further improvement are made. Findings indicate that banks are prepared to change their conventionally stern and technocratic image in line with changing consumer tastes and changing customer demographics.

Keywords: Atmosphere, multisensory marketing, retail banking, Singapore banks

Introduction
The careful, systematic and deliberate manipulation of 'atmosphere' in retail settings is well-established in the corporate branding literature. Decades ago, Kotler (1973) argued that atmosphere was a vital marketing tool for businesses seeking a competitive advantage. In recent years, researchers and practitioners have continued to build upon the theory and implementation of the components of 'atmosphere' in order to increase product differentiation, service memorability and ensure long-lasting brand memories for stakeholders. Although the retail sector, unsurprisingly perhaps, has been the focus of research on the use of atmosphere as a marketing tool since its *raison d'etre* appears to be entirely geared to the seduction of the consumer via multisensory means -- aesthetic, visual, sonic and olfactory, among others – scholars have begun to make welcome inroads into other sectors such as hospitality (Heide, Lærdal and Grønhaug, 2009) and a host of retail settings.

The financial services sector may not appear to be an obvious site for the use of atmosphere to enhance the brand experience and brand identity. Traditionally regarded as serious, even intimidating, places where customers visit only to conduct pecuniary business with a bank officer, manager or other officer, we argue that retail banks, like other sectors, are beginning to develop a range of multisensory marketing tools to influence the ways in which they are perceived and accepted by stakeholders. To date, there has been no literature, however, which examines how the retail banking sector uses various tools of this kind to cultivate brand image and to carve out a different corporate identity in the minds of shareholders, customers and the media. More empirical studies are, therefore, needed in this area. Relatedly, there has been no in-depth investigation of how retail banks may be innovating -- rather than simply taking the lead from other sectors -- in the area of brand atmospherics. Our paper aims to address these gaps in the literature by presenting the findings of a study into a retail banking group in Singapore and its innovative use of 'atmosphere' in its branches.

The purpose of our paper, therefore, is to investigate how Asian retail banks are transforming the ways in which they manage their brand identity through the innovative use of atmosphere and other multi-sensory marketing tools, in line with changing consumer tastes. The overall objective is to gain insights into how they exploit atmospheric strategies to appeal to consumers' changing tastes and preferences, enhance the experience of banking, manage first and last impressions and generally create a highly positive brand image and identity in the minds of customers. It is anticipated that the bank's use of multisensory marketing techniques and tools may yield new insights for the field of experiential brand marketing in other fields.

We report the findings of an exploratory study conducted to gather insights into how two groups of participants – customers as well as bank employees – perceive the atmosphere in the bank as a set of multisensory categories and their views of how the atmosphere at their banks contributes to corporate identity and image. Employees' views were included because they are key stakeholders for corporate branding initiatives (Balmer and Gray, 2003; King, 1991). A synthesis of recent literatures on atmosphere in corporate settings, retail image management, impression management and corporate brand image and identity is developed in the next section. This is followed by a discussion of our research methodology. The findings from our empirical investigation are then reported. We analyse and draw out the implications of these findings before making key managerial as well as theoretical recommendations. Finally, some caveats of our paper and directions for future research are proposed.

Corporate Branding and Identity
Corporate branding and identity are essential components of how institutions present themselves to a range of stakeholders (Balmer, 1998). This process is deliberate, systematic and carefully-planned by a range of actors within and without an organization (Einwiller and Will, 2002). It enhances the reputation of a firm by "sending signals to all stakeholders by managing behavior, communication and symbolism" (p. 101). All efforts by the organization to communicate a distinctive brand are aimed at convincing stakeholders of its ability to deliver on a set of promises (Harris and de Chernatony, 2001).

Essentially, therefore, corporate branding is a communicative process aimed at differentiation and distinction based on relevance and performance. This is not the full picture, however. There is also increasing evidence to suggest that firms can actually predict consumers' responses based on their patterns of multisensory stimulation, further supporting the view that brands rely more and more on using interesting and multi-dimensional experiences in order to help customers feel fully satisfied with products and services (Zarantonello and Schmitt, 2010; Schmitt, 1999).

Atmosphere(s): How and Why it Matters

'Atmosphere' is a concept which is both immediately understood by consumers and also notoriously difficult to define. However, it is well-recognized as a determinant and antecedent of consumer behavior in many contexts, including, but not limited to, retail and/or service settings (Bitner, 1992). Its multifarious effects have been studied extensively in the marketing and management literature. The applications of multisensory marketing are many and diverse and have been studied in both physical as well as virtual environments. Their applications in web retailing environments (e.g. Manganari, Siomkos and Vrechopoulous, 2009; Cheng, Wu and Yen, 2009) show that ambient effects such as light, colour and sound have a noticeable impact upon consumers' moods and their capacity for pleasure and arousal.

Environmental variables have noticeable effects on individuals' behavior (Mehrabian and Russell, 1974) and affect their propensity to make purchasing decisions (Donovan and Rossiter, 1982; Wirtz, Mattila and Tan, 2000; Menon and Kahn, 2001; Eroglu, Machleit and Davis, 2003). Multisensory stimuli such as music (Yalch and Spangenberg, 2000; Wilson, 2003), colors and (Babin, Hardesty and Suter, 2003) and smells, odors and olfactory cues (Spangenberg et al., 1996; Chebat and Michon, 2003) also play a significant role in shaping consumers' behavior. To date, however, there has been no research on how these multisensory cues are used systematically as part of a corporate branding and identity programme within organizations.

Method

Two retail banks were chosen as the empirical site for this study because this sector is under-represented in the literature at present. To keep the research tractable, the study was limited to a single country. Desk-based reviews of the literature were undertaken; at the same time, it was noted by the researchers that corporate branding and image within retail banking sector was changing in practical terms. Our project is thus a first step towards addressing gaps in the literature as well as in practice.

Several observational visits were paid to the banks by one of the researchers over a period of a year and a half, during which distinct changes in the physical layout of the site were observed. It was then decided to initiate informal conversations with staff in order to get a sense or 'feel for' how such changes were developing and why. Based on these conversations, the bank was contacted to arrange interviews with staff. We also asked permission to interview customers who dropped into the branch. All employees contacted were enthusiastic and open to being interviewed. We decided to interview marketing and customer service managers whose role it was to ensure that a consistent 'fit' between customer experiences and the banking experience and environment, as well as frontline customer service staff. Notes were taken and all interviews were tape-recorded and transcribed, with the full agreement of the participants. Due to bank protocols, interviews lasted between 30 and 45 minutes instead of the usual hour to hour and a half and were semi-structured according to an interview guide. Questions included the length of time the employee had been with the company, his or her job role and educational background. They were also asked about how they perceived the corporate brand and image of the organization. Some simple definitions of 'atmosphere' were given to staff to read before the interviews commenced, something which the respondents said they appreciated very much. The interviews ended with questions about how physical design as well as other elements (smell, sound, etc.) can be improved in future. Customers were asked similar questions but questions about their background and so on were obviously neither relevant nor appropriate to the project and so these were left out.

The two banks are called Bank A and Bank B, for research purposes. Bank A is a local bank in Singapore with many branches located all over the island. Bank B is a multinational bank with a strong presence in Asia. In total, 12 bank employees were interviewed, 5 of them at Bank A and 7 of them in Bank B. In addition, 15 customers (10 for Bank A and 5 for Bank B) were interviewed.

Findings

One outstanding finding from our interviews with bank managers, employees and customers is that expectations of banks' environments, services and overall experience – atmosphere, in other words – were changing. It was the general consensus among managers and employees at both banks that the role of banks was changing, and, with it, customers' expectations. A few spoke of the locations in which banks chose for their premises. Several key branches, interesting, were located with Starbucks coffee outlets, premium bakeries, supermarkets and even high-fashion stores.

As a result, the corporate image of banks was changing from being 'merely' highly professionalized, business-oriented and profit-driven to a servicescape in which customer service in all its different aspects was embraced. The appetite for 'change' was also a recurring theme for respondents:

'*Our bank is located in the central business district, as you can see, but we don't just want to portray a 'strictly business' atmosphere. Why not change our image? Many of our clients drop in for coffee at Starbucks and we are part of that jazzy feel…*' (Assistant marketing director, Bank A).

Bank A's employees tended to feel they were part of a changing trend in how banking institutions were perceived.

Actually, we don't feel constrained by our image at all. People already know our brand. They trust us. They know we are not going to go away tomorrow (laugh). So, we can be friendly….(Marketing Manager, Bank A).
Our bank looks more like a shop…you know, a glam shop where you can drink coffee, taste cookies, local food, have a cup of tea. We are thinking about introducing new services all the time. We change the music about…I don't know…about every few months. We like to change according to special festivals and events. We have installed special plasma screens to show music videos, not just the same old boring news…our customers are hip and young (at least they want to be, so why not….?). We have special rooms to help mature customers feel pampered as well (Customer Relations Manager, Bank B).
We get very good training. Customer service, product training, everything…I think atmosphere is part of the training, actually. Atmosphere helps us enjoy our jobs and we pass this on to our customers. Of course, when things go wrong, nothing helps! But we have to control our emotions and atmosphere does that also…(Relationship Manager, Bank B).
I like this bank. It doesn't feel intimidating. I also get very good service. Everything is well-designed, I think. The couches are so, so, so comfortable – they're designer (couches), I think…(Customer, Bank B).

Actually, banking is an experience, isn't it? So, why shouldn't it be like…quite fun? We used to have to queue…which I didn't like much, but now we sit down instead and someone comes to ask us what we want, sometimes they even offer drinks, tea, coffee…it's still professional but less scary…(Customer, Bank A).

[Take in Fig. 1 about here]

Summary: Analysis and Implications
Our research provides evidence to show that some banks in developed Asian economies are no longer content to be perceived as staid, stern and self-centred. Their marketing efforts are increasingly geared towards making customers 'feel comfortable' and even 'trendy'.
Our findings suggest that retail banks are beginning to 'mimic' conventional retail stores in the way the latter seek to create and develop brand experiences. Music, lighting, customer service – all are elements of a multisensory experience which these two banks were offering to customers.
There may also be significant benefits in involving customers more directly in the corporate brand image-building of banks. How far can they push the friendly image, however? As products and services become more differentiated between banks, are customers seeking more diverse banking experiences? It may be too much of a stretch to speculate that they are, but banks need to consider how brand differentiation can continue to evolve while they preserve a certain level of consistency, standardization and performance which shareholders and other government agencies expect.

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Plenary Session 4

Reputation and Financial Performance: the Search for the Holy Grail

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Reputation and Financial Performance: the Search for the Holy Grail

Gary Davies, Manchester Business School, England

Introduction

The purpose of my paper is to document a journey at Manchester that lasted over ten years, a search for the links between the reputation of a company and its financial performance. While many claims have been made purporting to demonstrate such links, practitioners appeared to view reputation more as something they dare not lose rather than something they might use as a focal point for their business strategy.

Prior work up until the late 1990's had argued or shown the many potential benefits of a strong reputation: from providing greater credibility (Herbig, Milewicz, and Golden, 1994) , from lowering a client's perceived risk (Ewing, Caruana, and Loy, 1999), in creating a positive customer attitude (Brown, 1995) in lowering employee turnover (Markham, 1972) and to the ability to charge a price premium (Fombrun and Shanley, 1990). But work to demonstrate direct links between reputation and performance had often relied upon the America's Most Admired Companies (AMAC) database (Welsh, 1994) an annual survey of business executives who are asked to assess their rivals on items which include many financial measures. At best the AMAC database shows that having a strong financial performance has a positive effect on other business people's views of you. A 'new' measure, RQ, (Fombrun & Gardberg, 2000) shared most of its dimensions with those of AMAC. That was the picture that defined the starting point for a personal journey that ended only in 2010.

The Journey

Part of the initial problem lay with the many different definitions of reputation. Two had a great influence on the work that followed, one from Weigelt and Camerer (1988) and others, that reputation refers to our expectations of an organization's future actions based upon our prior experience; the second from Brown and Dacin (1997) that our view of a company's reputation also shapes our own future behaviour towards it, either as an employee or customer. Both definitions imply that behaviours are an important part of the reputation process, simultaneously as input and output. Research into brand equity was another influence. 'Corporate reputation' and 'corporate brand' as terms often refer to the same concept. Brand equity was seen as the sum of brand awareness and brand associations (Keller, 1993). If reputation is more about employees and existing customers, then awareness is unlikely to be at issue and (corporate) brand equity, the intrinsic value of a company name, identical to the associations made with that name by its stakeholders.

Organisational scientists had been researching reputation for some time including Hatch and Schultz (1997) who proposed a link between employee views of a company and customer views. Compelling as their logic was, their evidence was more conceptual than empirical. The idea began to form however that employee attitudes could somehow influence customer views of reputation and thus customer behaviour. What was needed was quantitative data to test such thinking and this meant a way of measuring reputation which was more credible than those existing. Jennifer Aaker's (1997) paper on brand personality provided the way forward, but her measure was derived mainly with product brands, validated solely with members of the public and containing a number of obviously emic items such as 'Western'. The first project was then to develop a measure of *corporate* brand personality that was valid for both employees and customers. In the event our measure (Davies et al 2003) had 4 of its main 5 dimensions in common with the Aaker scale even though many of the individual measurement items differed. Unlike the AMAC and RQ measures of reputation, both scales had been developed using the systematic approach recommended by Churchill (1979). Personification is not without its critics (see Davies et al 2001 for a discussion) but as all scale items can be and are used by people to describe companies, and when they do so they evoke the personalisation metaphor, the measurement approach has strong validity. Typical items included in what is called the Corporate Character Scale are trustworthy, reliable, arrogant, charming and easy going, making it a measure of affect.

The first analysis relevant to my story was a correlation of employee and customer scores across 70 or so different business units. The correlation was significant at $p<.001$ and an R^2 of 0.52 implied that, if correlation is evidence of causality, then half of customer views of reputation can be explained by employee views (Davies et al 2003, p . 169). At the same time the database could be used to demonstrate that enhanced customer views of the *same* corporate brand produced increasing levels of sales (Davies et al 2003, p . 207), in this case nearly 20% higher. But where did the customers of different business units of the same company (in this case different shops in the same chain) get such radically different perceptions of the same corporate brand?

Another piece of the jigsaw fell into place during some consultancy with a department store chain. The business issue was to explain how two branches of the same store had such radically different financial performances particularly as the poorer performer had recently benefitted from an expensive refurbishment. Our formal measures showed that, in the latter store, employee views of the company were low particularly by comparison with those of customers. In the better performing store employee views were superior to those of their customers. However the body language of the employees in both stores was more compelling than the survey ratings. Added to that were the often telling views of customers (Chun and Davies, 2002; 2009). Differences between the level of affect between customers and employees seemed to relate to different levels of sales.

We still lacked a theory of human behaviour to explain why and how customer and employee views might interact and to predict when both positive and negative effects might be expected. We found what we sought in assimilation-contrast theory, the idea that customers will take a new piece of information, in this case their view of the employee attitude, and compare this with their existing perception of the company (Anderson, 1973). If the new information differs little from expectation or as some have put it, falls within a zone of indifference, customer perceptions remain the same, the new information is assimilated. If however the employee attitude is notably incompatible, either positively or negatively, with the customers existing view, then customers will contrast away from that view and change it, often markedly so. They will, as existing marketing theory makes clear, tell others as well as buying more or less themselves. Future sales will then decline or increase under contrast.

Our empirical work to test the model was with 56 business units drawn from 9 different service companies. We chose services and particularly those with significant employee-customer contact or interaction as this was the context where the effects we predicted might be most obvious. We interviewed in total 4307 respondents, divided between customers and employees. We obtained sales data a year after our interviews and compared this with sales at the time of the interviews to obtain a percentage increase or decrease in sales the year after our measures. The main modelling consisted of a series of regressions where the dependent variable sales increase/decrease was predicted by the employee views of reputation, the customer views and the difference between them. We controlled for age of company, size of company and whether the company was predominantly in a B2B or B2C market (Davies, Chun and Kamins, 2010). The analysis shows that sales growth is significantly predicted by the gap between employee and customer views for the top one third and bottom one third (in performance terms) of the sample. When employee views were greater than customer views future sales grew by up to 30%, the other way around and sales declined by up to 30% (Contrast). When employee and customer views were similar there was no significant change in subsequent sales (Assimilation).

The Consequences

Employees are, to a corporate brand, the equivalent of an advertising campaign for a product brand. A great ad. is aimed at the heart as well as the head. So too with corporate branding. The Corporate Character Scale is essentially a measure of affect, not cognition as with RQ and AMAC. It captures the way people think about corporate brands by using essentially behavioural traits. However the process that was uncovered during the journey is more important than the measure. Contact employees impart their attachment or indifference to the corporate brand to their customers. A useful label is emotional contagion; customers literally catch the mood of the employee. When the employee attitude is unexpected by the customer, that customer changes his/her future behaviour either positively or negatively.

Going forward it will come as no surprise to see an emphasis in recent work on *how* the employee view is created (Davies, 2008). Some recent findings include the role of the leader in influencing both employee and customer views, the role of the psychological contract in influencing employee views and similarly the role of training for employees (Roper and Davies, 2010). One quest ends; another begins.

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Session 12.1

**Identity, Reputation and Organizational Performance:
Conceptual Issues and an Empirical Illustration**

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**Factors Affecting Brand Extensions Success for Business to Business Brands:
A Study of Fertiliser Firms Greece**

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Jason Turner, Abertay Dundee University, United Kingdom

Systematic Review on B2B Branding: Research Issues and Avenues for Future Research

Joona Keränen, Lappeenranta University of Technology, Finland
Kalle A. Piirainen, Lappeenranta University of Technology, Finland
Risto T. Salminen, Lappeenranta University of Technology, Finland

The Formation of Reputations in Business Markets

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Identity, Reputation and Organizational Performance:
Conceptual Issues and an Empirical Illustration

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Introduction

The aim of this study is to explore the relationships between organizational performance, organizational reputation and organizational identity. This is of importance for several reasons. Peak performance of organizations and firms assumes not only motivated and competent efforts by employees, but also that they have some necessary basis in common. Organizational identity refers to those attributes that members feel are fundamental to the organization, are uniquely descriptive of it and persist over time (Albert & Whetten, 1985). Because the organizational identity guides and directs, it is assumed to influence the individual employee's thinking and actions. Assessing whether and how these shared attributes may influence performance also become important in this regard. Moreover, firms do not exist and operate in a vacuum. Rather, they are embedded in competitive and ever-changing environments. To survive and prosper, they have to satisfy external constituencies in such a way that sufficient resources are retained, i.e. they have to be effective. Therefore, external constituencies' thinking and behaviour toward firms becomes crucial. This is the reason why firms are preoccupied with the question of what customers and other external constituencies think of them, i.e. their reputation. Moreover, reputation is closely related to organizational identity.

The importance of organizational identity, and its potential impact on performance, as well as the impact of reputation on performance, has been addressed previously (see e.g., Brown, Dacin, Pratt, & Whetten, 2006). However, closer inspection of previous research reveals that the treatment of how performance is influenced by identity and reputation is insufficient. In particular, a systematic treatment of the relationship between these phenomena is lacking. This paper represents an effort to remedy this weakness. To do so, we define and clarify the central concepts, i.e. organizational identity, reputation and performance. Further, we examine the relationships between these constructs, based on existing theories. Here we also address the dynamic character of these relationships, e.g. how performance and reputation may mutually impact identity.

Central Concepts and Conceptual Model

Performance The most common measures of performance applied in previous research are measures of financial performance, such as profitability, market-to-book value and firm size (Roberts & Dowling, 2002). Here we capture performance using financial indicators and assessments from internal and external constituencies.

Reputation Some researchers have considered reputation as perceptions held by external stakeholders. Brown et al. (2006) defined reputation as the answer to the question "What do stakeholders think of the organization?" In the current study, we adopt the definition of reputation as perceptions of a company held by its external stakeholders.

Organizational identity Albert and Whetten (1985) first defined organizational identity as what is central, distinctive and enduring in an organization. In the current study, we adopt the social constructionist perspective of organizational identity: it is an understanding of "who their organization is" that is shared by organizational members.

Impact of reputation on performance The relationship between reputation and performance has been addressed in the literature. According to the resource-based view, good corporate reputations have strategic value for the firms that possess them (Fombrun & Shanley, 1990), not only because good reputations have potential for value creation, but also because the intangible character of reputation makes it difficult for competitors to replicate (Roberts & Dowling, 2002). In the marketing literature, a good reputation will increase a firm's marketing efficiency and customers' willingness to pay for its products. Finally, a transaction cost economic explanations claims that strong reputations tend to reduce not only transaction costs for partner search and selection (Chiles & McMackin, 1996) but also transaction costs associated with negotiation, drafting and enforcing contracts (Williamson, 1996). To sum up, a variety of potential benefits of good reputations provide the rationale for a positive relationship between reputation and performance.

Impact of organizational identity on performance Organizational identity is assumed to influence reputation (Hatch & Schultz, 2002), which in turn has an impact on organizational performance. Hatch and Schultz (2002) have given an excellent description of the dynamic processes between identity and reputation; they distinguished two processes: the process of impressing and the process of mirroring. In the process of impressing, identity has an impact on reputation; while in mirroring, reputation feeds back to identity.

Organizational identity not only influences firm performance indirectly through its impact on reputation, but also affects firm performance directly by influencing organization members' beliefs and behaviour. Perceived organization identity is regarded as the main driver of organizational identification and desired behaviour of organizational members (Elstak, 2008). Previous research shows that members' identification with an organization leads to organizational commitment, acceptance of changes, and cooperation among employees (Foreman & Whetten, 2002), which further lead to better performance. Voss, Cable, and Voss (2006) also showed organizational outcomes are maximized when leaders agree about organizational identity.

The conceptual model Finally, to sum up the above discussions, we propose the following theoretical model: reputation will relate positively to organizational performance; not only will organizational identity influence performance indirectly through its impact on reputation, but organizational identity will also lead to better performance directly.

Method

A case study was found to be a suitable research strategy, since we intend to contribute to theory building (Eisenhardt, 1989). The case company is a recognized offshore company located in south-western Norway. We examined in detail the history of the company, and how central organization members and external constituencies perceive the company. To do so, we make use of semi-structured in-depth interview. Seven informants were interviewed in total: three managers from the company and representatives of four external stakeholders, representing a supplier, a customer, a bank, and a risk management consultant. Interviews averaged 90 minutes, and ranged from 1-2 hours. All interviews were tape-recorded and transcribed. Secondary data sources such as annual reports and homepages were also used.

Findings

Performance The case company has grown steadily in the last decade. The number of employees almost doubled from 1997 to 2009. This is a strong indicator of firm performance in a high labour cost country such as Norway. The operating revenue is the total revenue of the company's business operations, which is an indicator of how well the company is doing in its business area. It trebled from 1997 to 2009. In interviews, managers have a consistent and positive perception of the performance of their company and believe that the company is doing well. This is also reflected in the comments on the firm performance from various external stakeholders.

Coherent reputation All external stakeholders interviewed hold strong and positive perceptions of the company. They revealed similar associations with the company: being innovative and providing products and services of high quality, taking environmental issues seriously, and engaging in local community development.

Impact of reputation on performance In our case, we found several possible ways that a good reputation may enhance firm performance. A good reputation may differentiate the case company from its competitors. The case company's unique reputation of local engagement and focus on environment-friendly technology development was important for its customers to choose its products and services. Moreover, a good reputation signals the competence of the firm and makes the case company attractive to its important external stakeholders. Finally, companies with good reputation (i.e., the case company) are more likely to be trusted, which together with a good reputation also lead to lower contracting and monitoring costs (Willamson, 1996).

Impact of organizational identity on performance Our findings show great consistency between identity and reputation of our case company. We also found evidence for the dynamic process between identity and reputation as proposed by Hatch and Schultz (2002), both for the impressing process and the mirroring process. Moreover, we found high agreement on organizational identity among managers. Such a consistent and strong identity leads to a high degree of member identification with the organization and further fosters commitment and desired organizational citizen behaviour, which in turn leads to better organizational performance.

Discussion

This study contributes to the literature on organizational identity and reputation by providing a systematic picture representing relationships between organizational performance, reputation, and identity. The second contribution of this study is that we further develop the theoretical model based on empirical evidence and current theories by including the dynamic characteristics of the relationships. As far as we know, this is the first attempt to add the dynamic characteristics of relationships to previously static models.

This study has important managerial implications. Top managers need to be aware of their important role in creating and maintaining a positive and strong organizational identity. It is also vital for managers to understand the dynamic relationship between identity and reputation and that between reputation and performance over time. Furthermore, managers should know not only that it is important to build a positive reputation but also to build a unique one that can differentiate the company in the market place.

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Factors Affecting Brand Extensions Success for Business to Business Brands: A Study of Fertiliser Firms Greece

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Introduction

Purpose: The purpose of this study was to identify the key success factors for business to business brands when gone under brand extensions.

Design: 150 shop owners or sellers of fertilizers where interviewed. Interviewees were based all over Greece, and they had long tradition in fertilizers selling, and they have been to the fertilizers market more than 20 years.

Findings: The brand extensions seems to be a good builder for relationships between the company it self, and the different parts of the network. It can also be a common point of reference, or a starting point for valuation methods and techniques for brand valuation systems customised to the company's brand valuation needs.

Practical implications: Based on the research findings managers of very well known brands need to handle properly their brands and the brand extensions they are going through. Brand extensions can't stand alone if emphasis isn't given to certain factors that will lead these brand extensions to success. The key success factors for brand extensions in a business to business environment aren't so much different than the factors for business to consumer.

Originality value: The paper contributes to the literature as brand extension's strategy for industrial products isn't researched as much as for consumer products. The research examines also the potential benefits of this branding strategy in a certain industry as the business to business branding has recently developed.

Brand management as a marketing discipline is a relatively recent entrant to the stream of marketing literature. Brand management was recognised as a formal discipline long after the leadership of branded products was established into the market (Low Fullerton 1994). Branding literature became an important element of marketing discipline today (Moorthi 2004).

In business to business environments things are different branding isn't meant to be so much important and not meant to be relevant. Managers working in business to business markets think that branding should be used only in business to consumers markets (Anderson et al 2004, Dunn et al 2004). As loyalty is the necessity for consumer markets, and comes from rational or irrational criteria, in business to business context loyalty comes from other rational behaviours than brands buying only (Roberts 2004, Quelch 2003). Brands serve exactly the same general purpose in business to business markets as they do in consumer markets. They facilitate product's identification among the competitive ones, and differentiate these products. (Anderson et al 2004). Thus branding for business to business markets becomes beneficial because of the following reasons:

1. It's a performance index
2. Increases the value of the product
3. Reduces risk, confusion, becoming thus quality guarantor
4. Creates attachment that business to business marketers don't have because of their mostly rational decision making.
5. Identifies the attributes, and benefits of the branded products, in comparison with the unbranded ones.

Introduction

Brand extensions the tool by which firms introduce their brands into new or existing product categories is heavily used through the last decades (Aaker 1990). Although a brand extension is an important strategy in practise, few studies investigated how the brand extension strategy is actually used in a business to business environment (Baumgarth 1996, Bevolo 2003). Scholars examined the impact of brand extensions for the business to consumers markets. Industrial buyers are more rational and economic than consumers with determinants like product's performance, product quality, delivery, after sales support e.t.c. (Bick et al 2008). That's why most of the times the buying centre buys strong brand names and its extensions. (Keller 2000). Brand extensions strategy comes in two forms horizontal and vertical. In a horizontal one, an already existing brand name is applied to a new product introduction in either a related product class or in a product category completely new to the firm (Chen et al 2004). A vertical brand extension, on the other hand, deals with the introduction of the product category with the core brand, but at different levels. Vertical extensions have two possible options to be carried out.

- The brand extension is introduced at a lower price and lower quality than the core brand (step-down)
- The brand extension is introduced at a higher price and quality level than the core brand (step-up).

In a vertical brand extension a second brand name or descriptor is usually introduced alongside the core brand name in order to demonstrate the link between the brand extension and the core brand name (Clifton 2003). The launch of an extension is followed by heavy communication, which is expected to have positive influence on its current purchase. Complimentary purchase will possibly happen when the extended brand is communicated with various communication tools (De Chernatony 2003).

Methodology

The primary focus of this research was to investigate the factors affecting brand extension's success for business to business brands. We wanted to examine how the brand extensions will be perceived by sellers and users of fertilizers through Greece. The sample was stratified and the research was conducted in Greece six months after the launching of the fertilizers with the extended brand. The interviewees answered a semi structured questionnaire, and were based all over Greece, and they had long tradition in fertilizers selling, and they have been to the fertilizers market more than 20 years. The parent brand is a very well known one among users and non users; it has an international presence, as it comes from Germany. The brand didn't change neither in the Greek or other foreign markets the least 40 years, so it is very well established to the different markets, this approach was based on Park et al (1991, 1993). In order to keep product similarity fixed with the parent brands, and the extended ones. We thought that it would be also necessary to study the demographic characteristics of the respondents as they could lead us to conclusions and links on how the respondents perceive the marketing strategies the company does. (Table1).

Descriptive statistics were used in order to identify the necessary values for the variables studied, for key success factors identification. Respondents were asked to spontaneously respond which fertilizer came to their minds first, having given the most known and powerful brands into the market. The brand under study was first mentioned, and the most competitive was mentioned second with a very high variance in answers. Other brands were mentioned also but the percentages weren't so much important to be studied. Important variables studied were brand associations and product associations as the product is a business to business. Respondents were asked to give particular characteristics that each branded product has, and link these characteristics with the product's name. Brand knowledge, and brand trust are very important as they indicate special characteristics of the branded product. The table shows the correlation of these two variables with the overall brand image. (Table2).Another important variable measured was the corporate image of the company which extended the product, and the perceptions that respondents have for the competitive ones. The question tried to reveal hidden beliefs about the company, and the strategic orientation it has (Table 3). Statistics showed that there is a strong correlation between the brand extension elements, and the corporate image that the company who extends the brand has.

As the research was trying to identify the factors affecting brand extension a factor analysis was conducted (Table 4). The analysis showed that there three main factors. The first factor was corporate image and reputation, the second one brand trust, and the third brand knowledge. These three factors had clearly indicated that brand extension key success factors aren't so much different in business to business and business to consumers' environments. Based on the statistical results we could say that no matter the type of extension (vertical or horizontal) is the key success factors of the brand extensions are the same. Factor analysis showed also that the most important items related to the first factor are those related to corporate image and reputation. This is in accordance with literature studied both for b2b or b2c extended products. The factor's analysis results gave an orientation to brand equity elements for b2b brand as studied by Aaker (1991).

Research's results showed that the main key success factors for b2b brands are brand trust, brand knowledge, and corporate image and reputation. Brand extensions are based then in tangible and intangible characteristics for their success although the environment they operate at is more rational. Companies have to put emphasis on communication, and relationship building for the enhancement of the tangible and intangible characteristics. The brand extensions seems to be a good builder for relationships between the company it self, and the different parts of the network. It can also be a common point of reference, or a starting point for valuation methods and techniques for brand valuation systems customised to the company's brand valuation needs. The brand extensions can definitely differentiate the product and the brand category from the competitive ones. Commoditization becomes day after day a common b2b strategy; brand extensions are part of a decomoditazation planning process, helping also to avoid as much as possible brand parity for the members of the buying centre. The success of brand extension is also based to the supportive marketing strategies that the extension has. CRM strategies or other ones can create strong images, and culture regarding not only the parent brand or the extensions, but also for the company itself, thus brand extensions become a company's attitude than merely a business practise. The company thinking to extend its brand should put emphasis on the consideration of the powerful and extended brand as an internal marketing driver for internal customers. This driver will enhance corporate image among employees, and will create brand ambassadors also for b2b markets. Additionally, the buying centre will have a more image of the attributes of different products or service they buy, as the brand extensions gives evidence for that.

A quiet important approach then becomes the one called "house of brands". The company is perceived then by all stakeholders as a company launching successful brands which can always lead to a very high profitability. The house of brand concept is important especially for b2b markets because there are strong associations between the brand, the product and the company's name. Industrial buyers then aren't aware of the different distinctive marketing tools that the company disposes. The house of brands philosophy bases its success at the combination of mixed brand strategy, and the endorsed one. Brand or marketing managers deciding to adopt this strategy need to be cautious, because in some cases there are strong possibilities of failure, if the extended brands aren't so strong or industrial buyers aren't so much familiar with them.

Limitations and further research

This research identifies key success factors for brand extensions into business to business environments. The research supports that brand extensions key success factors aren't so much different with the business to consumers markets. There are of course different factors affecting the industry studied. As this study examined only one industry more research needs to be done for the identification of key success factors for other industries. Future research has to examine also these factors to different products, and to different markets. As the brand extensions are studied in Greece useful results would be gathered from international markets in regardless of more variables added to the success of industrial brands.

Appendix

Table 1

Education	**%**	**Regions**	**%**	**Volumes/year tones**	**%**
Secondary	1,3	Crete	21.3	<100	19.3
Technological	26	East Peloponnese	21.3	101- 300	32
University	82,7	West Peloponnese	18.7	300-700	31.3
		West central Greece	9.3	>700	17.3
		East central Greece	4.7		
		Thessaly	5.3		
		Epirus	5.3		
		Thrace	7.3		
		East Macedonia	3.3		
		West Macedonia	3.3		

Table 2

	Value	*Asym. Sig 1*	*Exact sig 1*
Pearson	**9.091**	**.003**	
Continuity	**7.919**	**.005**	
Likelihood ratio	**9.240**	**.002**	
Fisher's			**0.005**
Linear by linear			
Association	**9.00**	**0.003**	
N cases	**150**		

***df=1**

Table 3

	Value	*Asym. Sig 1*	*Exact sig 1*
Pearson	**9.012**	**.002**	
Continuity	**8.032**	**.003**	
Likelihood ratio	**9.001**	**0.03**	
Fisher's			**0.003**
Linear by linear			
Association	**9.00**	**0.002**	
N cases	**150**		

***df=1**

Table 4 Factor Analysis for key extension success factors

Factor 1	Loadings	Factor 2	Loadings
Company does	**.922**	**Other products similar/not**	**.871**
Known brands	**.852**	**Involved my job**	.341
Well known company	**.850**	**Best friend**	**.804**
Buying centres know	**.835**	**Loyal to it**	**.798**
Trust company	**.785**	**Sometimes changed**	.322
Invest company	.560	**Multi purpose**	.565
Relationship company	.312	**My image**	**.757**
People and company	.460	**Not the same**	.454
Be part of it	.501	**Suggest others**	**.892**
Employee of it	.322	**Always buying**	**.903**

Factor 3	Loadings
I know things ads	.455
All the products	**.766**
Different areas	.341
Prototypes named	.459
Fertilizer from Germany	**.781**
Various characteristics	**.849**
Beneficial use	.564
Additional benefits	**.871**
Company and Brand	**.800**
Identical to their features	**.815**

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Systematic Review on B2B Branding: Research Issues and Avenues for Future Research

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Abstract

The economic value of business-to-business (B2B) transactions is significantly greater than that of consumer transactions (Hutt & Speh, 2010, p. 4), but traditionally preponderance of branding research has been conducted in the context of consumer products (Lynch & De Chernatony, 2004; Webster & Keller, 2004). Consequently, a number of past studies lament the status of B2B branding research, claiming that it has been under-researched (Roper & Davis, 2010), scarce (Roberts & Merrilees, 2007) and lagging behind industry practice (Mudambi, 2002). However, as business markets have become more intense under the pressures of commoditization, globalization and growing customer power, B2B firms are increasingly seeking competitive advantage by branding their products (Mudambi, Doyle, & Wong, 1997; Walley et al., 2007). In today´s hypercompetitive B2B market, a strong brand may be the only truly sustainable competitive advantage (Kotler & Pfoertsch, 2007). It is even argued that "*brands are one of the most valuable intangible assets that firms have*" (Keller & Lehmann, 2006).

As a response to the increasing industry attention, recent years have witnessed the publication of a vast number of B2B branding papers, and recent special issues devoted to B2B branding in such journals as the *Journal of Brand Management (2004)*, the *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing (2007)*, *Industrial Marketing Management (IMM, 2010)* and the upcoming special issue in *IMM* evidence the current importance of this topic. In addition, B2B branding is highlighted as a prominent area requiring further research in a recent literature review examining the future avenues of B2B marketing (Sheth & Sharma, 2006).

However, despite this recent interest on B2B branding, extant literature remains still fragmented, and areas with limited or inconclusive research warrant further examination (Glynn, Motion & Brodie 2007; Kuhn, Alpert & Pope 2008). Academics have for long raised a concern about the lack of systematic investigation on B2B branding (e.g. Cretu & Brodie, 2007). Yet to date, most of the literature overviews concerning the extant state of B2B branding have been largely subjective in nature, (e.g. Cretu & Brodie 2007; Zablah, Brown, & Donthu, 2010) and thus limited in their scope. With very few preliminary exceptions (Sinclair, 2009), little has been done to comprehensively organize and summarize the findings and knowledge gained from previous B2B branding research.

In order to advance any expanding discipline, a frequent re-examination of the current state of the research is required (Cooper, 2010). It is argued that the state of B2B branding discipline is nascent (Zablah et al., 2010) and lacking a "*critical mass of studies*" (Roberts & Merrilees, 2007). Therefore the intention of this study is to facilitate the advancement of B2B branding research by identifying research issues that hinder the advancement of B2B branding discipline and thus provide guidance for future research. We attempt to do this by utilizing a systematic review (Petticrew & Roberts, 2006), which is aimed at comprehensively identifying, appraising and synthesizing all the relevant studies on B2B branding. The key advantages of a systematic review are its methodological rigor, transparency, exhaustive literature coverage and reproducibility (e.g Cooper, 2010; Tranfield, Denyer, & Smart, 2003). We address the following research question: What kind of research issues limit the advancement of B2B branding research?

Our systematic review allowed us to identify a total of 73 academic publications explicitly addressing B2B branding. Based on an extensive review of this literature, we identified five major issues limiting current research: *The dispersed theoretical rooting.* A wide range of theories are used to explain different perspectives on B2B branding, but attempts to develop a common theoretical base have been highly fragmented. This variety of theoretical lenses poses a challenge for integrating a unifying conceptual framework to model B2B branding. *The transference of consumer concepts*. Most of the quantitative studies draw largely on consumer branding tenets, but several authors clearly demonstrate that all the branding frameworks from consumer context do not transfer without adaptation to B2B context (e.g. Beverland, Napoli, & Lindgreen, 2007; Kuhn et al., 2008). *The dominance of quantitative research.* The majority of empirical research is quantitative by nature, which in a nascent research field runs the risk of producing ambiguous measures with questionable validity and reliability as well as leading to findings which emerge by mere chance (Edmondson and McManus, 2007). *The lack of longitudinal research*. Although brands are considered as relational assets which are accumulated over time, only three past studies employed longitudinal analysis, and the dynamic observations of the brand building efforts have been virtually absent. *The focus on single industries.* A large part of the empirical research is focused on single industries, thus limiting the applicability of the results and the comparability between studies.

Together these issues have resulted in a fragmented and limited body of research. Therefore, based on the findings, we tentatively suggest two directions for future research. First, a stronger emphasis on integrative conceptual and explorative empirical research would help to develop a stronger conceptual foundation for B2B branding research, facilitating the positioning of the future contributions together in a common theoretical framework. Second, given the fragmented conceptual foundation, we suggest complementing the dominant quantitative cross-sectional research with exploratory qualitative research to facilitate the formation of a more profound conceptual basis, and with longitudinal research to study the cumulative dimensions of brand capital.

This systematic review contributes to the B2B branding literature by the following ways. *First*, to our knowledge, it is the first systemically thorough literature review in the field, identifying a large part of the key literature related to the topic. *Second*, it provides a comprehensive overview of the past research and highlights dominating research methods and perspectives. *Finally*, this review identifies emerging research gaps and limitations in the current literature, and suggests directions for future research on B2B branding.

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The Formation of Reputations in Business Markets

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Introduction

Corporate reputation is usually studied from a communication perspective. A firm's reputation as it is judged by external stakeholders is assumed to be formed on the basis of direct and indirect experiences and the information received (e.g., Fombrun & Shanly, 1990; Yoon, Guffey, & Kijewski, 1993). The focus in this perspective is on the information signals that a company sends to actors in the environment, and how this information is perceived and interpreted by external stakeholders. A limitation is that it does not take into account how a company organizes and manages its continuous interactions with core stakeholders such as suppliers and customers, and how such interactions impact reputation. We argue that in business-to-business contexts, a customer's judgment of a supplier's reputation cannot be properly explained from an information perspective, but rather we need to take into account certain characteristics of the relationship between the actors.

This study therefore addresses reputation from a relationship perspective by arguing that how a company (e.g., customer) evaluates the reputation of another company (e.g., supplier) is influenced by the continuous interaction between the two companies. While reputation has been widely studied in consumer markets, this construct has received less attention in business markets. One reason may be that trustworthiness serves some of the same purposes in business-to-business relationships as reputation in business-to-consumer relationships. However, reputation and trustworthiness are different constructs, and the fact that we have limited knowledge about the formation of reputation in business markets underlines the importance of studying reputation in B2B contexts, and how reputation and trustworthiness are linked to each other.

The purpose of this study is first to analyze how customers evaluate supplier reputations based on what kind of relationships they have with their suppliers. We test the impact of specific relationship characteristics on reputation. Second, we analyze how the same characteristics are related to trustworthiness to get a better understanding of the differences and similarities between reputation and trustworthiness, and third, we study how reputation and trustworthiness are related to each other.

Theoretical Background and Hypotheses

Concepts like identity, image and reputation are commonly used to describe what individuals or other actors know or believe about an organization. Fombrun, Gardberg, and Sever (2000, p. 243) defined corporate reputation as "a collective representation of a firm's past behaviour and outcomes that depicts the firm's ability to render valued results to multiple stakeholders". We are in this study especially concerned about the formation of such collective representations by studying how customers evaluate the reputation of key suppliers.

We take the view that reputations are formed not only on the basis of communication and information, but also on the basis of direct interactions between companies. In order to unpack possible relationship characteristics that may have an impact on reputation, we take a broad perspective and include dimensions both at the inter-firm level and at the inter-personal level. Particularly, we examine two firm-level dimensions; (1) dependence between the actors and (2) reliance on relational norms, and two inter-personal dimensions; (1) common knowledge and (2) inter-personal trust, and we study the impact of these dimensions on reputation. Furthermore, these dimensions will also be linked to trustworthiness to explore if the same or different factors impact reputation and trustworthiness.

Inter-firm characteristics are related to the overall structuring and management of the relationship. Dependence between customer and supplier indicates how important the actors are for each other in terms of performing their operations. We include both customer's dependence on supplier and supplier's dependence on customer. Dependence causes the actors to be attached to each other, and it is reasonable to believe that the actors will develop positive evaluations of each other because of such attachments. Thus, we propose:

H1a. Customer dependence on supplier will be positively related to reputation and trustworthiness.

H1b. Supplier dependence on customer will be positively related to reputation and trustworthiness.

Relational norms imply that the actors are expected to follow certain patterns of behaviour (Rousseau, 1995) developed in the relationship on the basis of shared norms and values (Dwyer, Schurr, & Oh, 1987). Relational norms represent an informal, self-enforcing way of governing inter-firm interactions. Relying on relational norms as a governance mechanism requires that the actors are able to develop well-functioning working relations for handling the day-to-day interaction between the actors, and we argue that relational norms will result in a favourable judgment of the partner's reputation and lead to a trust-based relationship.

H2. Relational norms will be positively related to reputation and trustworthiness.

With inter-personal characteristics we refer to the relationship between the contact persons in the customer and the supplier firm. In this study, we focus on common knowledge about mental models (Sande, 2007), which refers to the contact persons' knowledge about each other in relation to how they judge market conditions and company opportunities, perform internal coordination and make decisions in relation to their respective companies. If the customer contact person has good knowledge about the working conditions of the supplier contact person, and vice versa, this common knowledge is likely to result in favourable evaluations of reputation and trustworthiness.

H3. Common knowledge will be positively related to reputation and trustworthiness.

Inter-personal trust captures the customer representative's level of trust to the contact person in the supplier firm. Developing high levels of trust between the company representatives is usually considered to be important for developing well-functioning inter-firm

relations. If the contact persons trust each other, it is also more likely that they will judge the reputation of the companies in a more favourable way, and furthermore, trust at the personal level is likely to contribute to a trustworthy inter-firm relationship.
H4. Inter-personal trust between the contact persons in the customer and supplier firm will be positively related to reputation and trustworthiness.

Some reported B2B-studies have investigated the relationship between reputation and trustworthiness. Anderson and Weitz (1989) find in a study of independent manufacturer representatives that trust decreases if the principal (manufacturer) has a poor reputation in dealing with independent representatives. Ganesan (1994) find in a study of retailers and vendors that retailer's perception of vendor's reputation is positively related to vendor's credibility-trust, but not elated to benevolence-trust. Although these empirical findings are inconclusive, there is some indication that favourable reputations will increase trustworthiness.
H5. Reputation will be positively related to trustworthiness.

Method
To test the hypotheses, we conducted a survey among firms in the Norwegian offshore oil industry. The sample consists of the member organizations of the Norwegian Ship Owners' Association and the member organizations of Maritime Forum in Western Norway. 410 firms were obtained from the member lists of both associations after screening for eligibility. By calling these 410 firms, we identified around 200 managers who were responsible for handling the relationships to the suppliers of their companies, and who also agreed to participate in the survey. They received an email with a link to a web-based questionnaire. Each respondent was instructed to answer the questions in relation to a supplier the company is currently buying from. In total, 83 completed questionnaires were returned.

We used established measurement scales for all variables. Reputation was measured by the Reputation Quotient scale (Fombrun et al., 2000) and it measures five cognitive dimensions (i.e., products and services, vision and leadership, workplace environment, social and environmental responsibility, and financial performance) and one emotional dimension (i.e., emotional appeal). We use the five cognitive components in this study. Trustworthiness was measured by three dimensions – benevolence, integrity and ability – based on Becerra, Lunnan, and Huemer (2008) and Mayer and Davis (1999).

Results
We tested the hypotheses by structural equation modelling by applying PLS. The results yield mixed support for the hypotheses. Concerning reputation, customer dependence on supplier, relational norms and common knowledge have a significant and positive impact on reputation, while relational norms and inter-personal trust along with reputation impact trustworthiness positively and significantly. These findings indicate that the more dependent the customer is on the supplier, and the more common knowledge the contact persons share, the more favourable the customer evaluates the reputation of the supplier. The customer's evaluation of supplier trustworthiness, on the other hand, can primarily be explained by reliance on relational norms, inter-personal trust and reputation. An unexpected finding is the negative and significant relationship between supplier dependence on customer and reputation. This indicates that the more dependent the supplier is on the customer, the less favourable the customer evaluates the reputation of the supplier.

The results show that characteristics at both the inter-firm and the inter-personal levels impact reputation, and furthermore, different factors seem to impact reputation and trustworthiness, indicating that reputation and trustworthiness play different roles in B2B relationships. The results provide support for the importance of incorporating relational characteristics when studying the formation of reputation in business markets.

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Session 12.2

How do you Really Know? Exploring Brand Metaperception and Strategy Dissonance

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Mascots Design Characteristics and Gender:
Recognition more than Affection makes the Difference

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Role of Design on Brand Building. Evaluating Design Dimensions of Branding Elements, Managers and Design Experts Reactions

Isa Moll, ESADE, Spain
Eliane Cristine Francisco Maffezzolli, PUC, Brazil
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Design and Brand Image as Sources of Equity in International Textile-Clothing and Fashion Markets

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How do you Really Know? Exploring Brand Metaperception and Strategy Dissonance

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Purpose

The retail pharmacy industry in Canada and other developed countries is becoming increasingly competitive as large national and multinational chains continue to penetrate the market, and in some cases expand through acquisition of independent retail pharmacies, while independent retail pharmacies decrease in number. Developing a unique corporate brand has been considered as a means to differentiate and achieve sustainable competitive advantage for small businesses; we investigated this mode of differentiation with regard to the retail pharmacy industry.

Prior research has revealed that managers typically develop and implement competitive strategies based on their *perceptions* of their competitive environment; and their perceptions are often somewhat different from the reality (Gripsrud & Gronhaug, 1985). The popular SERVQUAL model (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988) also specifies that one of the major gaps of service quality is between what managers *think* customers may want, and what customers actually want. While service quality is a common theme in business research, few studies have been done in the context of the retail pharmacy industry. Dominelli, Marciniak, and Jarvis (2005) demonstrated that customers' service preferences differ between various types of retail pharmacies.

Independently owned retail pharmacies are becoming a rarity. However, it is not clear whether such changes have brought value to the consumers. Experts consider independent retail pharmacies as more professional; while many suspect that corporate pharmacies are not capable of delivering high quality service (White & Clark, 2010). Pharmacists who primarily work in independent retail pharmacies have been found to have a more positive association with professionalism, work environment, and image than their counterparts working in corporate stores (Szeinbach, Barnes, Summers, & Banahan, 1994).

Research has identified that customers seek different value among retail pharmacies. Pharmacy customers differ significantly in their perceptions of relational benefits and other characteristics such as perceived value and service quality (Gil-Saura & Ruiz-Molina, 2009). For example, supermarket pharmacy patrons are more likely to rate one-stop-shopping and adequate hours of operation as priorities; while chain retail pharmacy patrons are more likely to rate easy navigation through a pharmacy and 24/7 hours of operation as key to service quality (Dominelli, et al., 2005).

Examination of research from the grocery industry, which recently went through a similar process of an increase in national and multinational chains and a decrease in independently owned grocery stores, can provide some valuable insights. For example, flexibility and improved quality were among the potential advantages for small independent stores when competing with larger organizations that have more rigid structures (Whimster, 1981). Improving customer service and quality control is vital for the survival of small independent grocery stores (Parker, 1985). Evidence shows that small independents can thrive in the face of competition from large corporate stores, as long as they can find an effective way to differentiate and provide superior customer service (Kiker & Kiker, 2008). Location alone cannot promise a captured audience in today's market, as consumers will travel longer distances to support service providers with better perceived service quality (Hodgson & Jacobsen, 2009).

Along the logic of differentiating between retail pharmacies, managers may execute branding and differentiation strategies based on their personal observations and opinion of customers' experiences and perceptions; however, this may not translate into actual customer perceptions. Therefore, potential disconnect may exist between three layers of brand identities:

1) The intended brand image and performance as designed by managerial strategy;
2) The customers' actual experiences and the actual brand image as perceived by customers; and
3) The managers' metaperceptions of their brand image and performance – that is, how managers think about what customers might think of the stores.

This study investigates the prevalence of the differences among these three layers. We also address the strategy dissonance once the gaps are revealed, and explore the subsequent organizational learning and strategy change.

Research Methodology

As our research objective is to compare and contrast management/customer perspectives, we have selected mixed method approach incorporating both qualitative in-depth interviews and quantitative surveys to stimulate new ideas and improves research quality (Douglas, 2008).

First, we conducted in-depth interviews with the senior managers of four select retail pharmacies in a Western Canadian city. These four stores were purposefully selected to represent diverse organizational types, including a) an outlet of a national retail pharmacy specialty chain, b) an independent retail pharmacy, c) a multinational supermarket pharmacy, and d) a retail pharmacy that is a member of a local co-operative. We measured these managers' branding and competitive strategies, their perceptions of their customers' experiences and expectations, and their assessments of their competitors.

Second, a survey was conducted via consumer intercepts at each of these stores. Consumers were approached at one of four retail pharmacies mentioned above and asked to fill out a questionnaire regarding their perceptions of the retail pharmacy. The questionnaire was based on a pilot study we previously conducted. Those completing the questionnaire were provided a gift card ($5 CDN) for a national franchise coffee shop.

Finally, after the survey was completed and data was analyzed, we conducted follow-up interviews with the same managers of the stores mentioned above. Gaps between customer experiences and managerial metaperceptions were identified; implications on organizational learning and strategy change were discussed.

Key Findings

Customers reported significant differences in corporate brand personalities and service quality among the stores. The results indicated that customers rated the independent retail pharmacy slightly more trustworthy than the co-operative retail pharmacy, the multinational supermarket pharmacy and the national retail chain pharmacy.

The managers reported that they have deliberately developed competitive strategies based on their branding objective of differentiating from major competitors. While the managers of the independent store and the co-op store reported that they have considerable managerial discretion in designing, implementing, and modifying competitive and branding strategies, the managers of the national chain and multinational supermarket stores reported that many of such managerial strategic decisions have come from their respective head offices. While all of the managers in our study were reasonably accurate in assessing customers' evaluations of their competitors, the national chain and multinational supermarket store managers reported frustrations about 1) misalignment between national overall strategies and local context, and 2) lack of empowerment to the local managers. That having been said, substantial gaps exist between these managers' assessment of their own stores and their customers' ratings.

Limitations

The smaller sample size and the specificity of locale at a Western Canadian city may not allow for a broader generalization. Because of the cross sectional nature of the survey, we were unable to observe strategy changes and the results thereof. Future action-based longitudinal studies would further enhance the practical implications of the study. We have discussed with our participants about potential future follow up studies on empowerment, organizational learning, and strategy change.

Implications

The fundamentals of marketing concept and market orientation are based on intimately understanding customer needs, and designing and delivering products and services to satisfy customer needs via concerted efforts throughout the entire organization (Kohli & Jaworski, 1990). However, as our data have indicated, many managers (and especially the corporate managers at head offices) have relied upon what they *think* their customer needs might have been. While many of the companies in our study have adopted sophisticated strategy developing processes, including goal setting, environment scanning, and strategy formulation and implementation, few have made an effort in seeking the external validity of their metaperceptions; many have ignored the specificity of local context.

Strategy dissonance can be costly; strategy change can be complicated. Once a brand image has been established in customers' minds, it is difficult to change. For retail pharmacies, particularly independent retail pharmacies and local co-op retail pharmacies, managers should continuously monitor their organizational performance, and proactively seek customer feedback. These independent or co-op retail pharmacies are more flexible and better equipped to quickly adapt to its constantly changing competitive environment. In comparison, national or multinational retail chains have better resource endowments. They might have the advantage of being able to collect market data on a larger scale and develop branding and competitive strategies based on national and regional information, but not necessarily local characteristics.

Originality/value

The psychology literature has established that individuals often behave in accordance to the metaperception – how others perceive and expect them to behave. We applied this theory to organizational competitive behaviour. There are very few empirical studies that capture the difference between customer experience/perception and managerial metaperception. Organizations can improve their competitive performance by acquiring a more accurate understanding of customer experiences.

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Mascots Design Characteristics and Gender:
Recognition more than Affection makes the Difference

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Introduction

This paper aims to increase the understanding of the impact of the children´s gender on the children´s attitudes toward brand mascots. Past research of children´s marketing strategies shows that children gender is very prevalent, yet the potential impact of the gender on children´s attitudes toward brands has received very little attention. To address this gap in the literature, this paper develops a conceptual framework based on a synthesis of developmental psychology and brand mascots literature, to understand to what extent children´s gender causes different levels of mascot´s recognition and affection.
It is found based on HOMALS analysis, that the different design characteristics associated with the universal design principles (abstraction, figurativity, symmetric, asymmetric, round and angular forms) stimulated different levels of recognition and affection; and that recognition is more discriminating than the affection, regarding gender´s responses.

Model

Considering that the mascot is one of the most relevant brand signs in the children's segment, it seems crucial to understand what type of attitudes children establish with the different typologies of mascots associated to different design characteristics. The model presented has the individual as the analysis unit, which determine the low number of highly explainable variables. This perspective allows that the future results are to be determined by variables controlled in the investigation.

Method

The paradigm of the investigation was predominantly positivist, intending a uniformity of relations between the form of the behaviour and its meaning, so as to allow an adequate operationalisation of the variables, objectivity, replicability e causality (Bryman, 1984; Erickson, 1986). In this study, we applied a highly frequent method in the domain of the experimental aesthetics, where the main empirical studies on design appear. Henderson and Cote (1998), also applied this method in the study carried out on the selection and modification of logos, thus validating its use on the domain of the strategies of the brand signs.

Independent Variables

In order to select the design characteristics, in a first stage, the study was based on the characteristics analysed in the investigation of Henderson and Cote (1998): natural, representative, organic, harmonious, balanced, symmetric, elaborated, complex, active, depth, parallel, repetition, proportion and round. So as to avoid an experimental device excessively complex, the graphic dimensions based on the contradictory binary relations were reduced. According to the logic construction of semantic categories and of the structural semiotics (Floch, 1989), three semantic categories were created: abstract vs figurative; symmetric vs asymmetric and round vs angular. On the conceptual point of view, the semantic categories allow the comparison of two comparable terms, ensuring the exactness of the analysis. On the experimental point of view, they allow the definition of the stimuli and the verification of its relevancy on the recognition level (short and long term) (Floch, 1989, 2002).

Dependent Variables: Attitude

Attitude appears in several studies as a central variable of various models of consumer behaviour. However, defining and evaluating attitudes implies an approach with several perspectives. To some authors, attitudes are seen with affect, measured from indicators of emotions and attitudes (Cohen & Areni, 1991). Other authors, with a more limited perspective, define attitudes as judgements, positive or negative evaluations of a specified object; Some don't even differentiate affect from judgement (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993); Another group of authors defines attitude based on two dimensions, the affectiveate and the cognitive. In this research, the cognitive dimension will be evaluated according to the recognition indicator; the affect dimension will be evaluated based on a facial scale applied by Mizerski (1995).

Methodology

The sample consists in 575 children, 51% boys and 49% girls divided by the four years of primary school (25% children from the 1st year, 6 years old, 24% seven years old from second year pupils, 27% 8 years old from the 3rd year and 24% 9 years old from the 4$^{th\ year}$). According to the number of stimuli and of the variables, and according to studies already carried out in the scope of the experimental aesthetic, we made use of the definition of the multiple samples, each one to test each mascot.

Experimental support

The effort of neutralisation of the effect history has limited us to the creation of fictitious mascots, as each prototype is associated with a certain factor of memorisation and affective. Furthermore, to each of the experimental groups, only one stimulus was presented, in order to avoid the effects of learning.

Procedure

The data collection was carried out for three months by a team of graduates supervised by the researcher. They were trained in the interview techniques and in the ethical principles inherent to investigation before children, and they were not aware of the propositions of the investigation. Every child was interviewed individually.. After a short warm up conversation, an A4 size card was shown with six images of mascots. Of the six mascots, only one concerned the object of the study. Each child looked for 4 seconds to the card. After, a 15-minute entertainment activity was held. After this period, a new card was shown with 6 mascots, in which the mascot under study was repeated and five new mascots were added. At this moment, each child was asked “did you see any of these cartoons in the previous card?”. This process allows for an immediate measure of recognition. After a week, a new card was shown, keeping the mascot under study and adding 5 other entertainment mascots. At this moment, each child was asked “last week, did you see any of these cartoons?”. This process has provided us with the data for the long-term recognition. In order to test de affection, it was presented to each child a A4 size card with one mascot and the facial scale applied by Mizerski (1995) with four levels.

Results

The data analysis proceeds in two steps. The first one investigates the direct impact of the mascot’s design characteristics on the recognition and affection level among the children. This evaluation starts with the performance of chi-square independence test that confirms (1) the existence of significant dependence relationship between the short term and long term recognition; (2) short term recognition and the type of the stimulus; (3) long term recognition and school grade; (4) affection and the type of the stimulus; (5) affection and school grade. The nature of these relations was than identified and described through the application of a homogeneity analysis (HOMALS[7]). In the second analytical step a cluster analysis were applied to validate the HOMALS results and also to define groups of children considering their affection and recognition answer to the different type of mascot’s design characteristics. With regard to affection, we can conclude based on the perceptual map, that the first dimension distinguishes essentially the preference levels associated with years of schooling; while the second dimension, the main difference found between preference levels are associated with the type of mascot. That is, no significant differences between boys and girls. With regard to recognition, dimension 1of the perceptual map essentially distinguishes levels of recognition associated with the different type of stimulus; dimension 2, distinguishes the gender and the type of stimulus. In this perspective we can assume that the children´s gender impact is more evident at the mascot´s recognition level than at mascot´s affection answer.

Study contributions and future research

At the level of the fundamental investigation, the study intends to improve the knowledge of mascots within the context of management and brand communication. Considering that the mascot is one of the brand signs more frequently used in the children’s segment, the creation of a typology will be a strong contribution to its analysis and definition. On the other hand, given that companies make significant investments in an effort to reach children with various brand tactics, understanding the type of answers regarding children´s gender may help marketing managers reach young consumers more effectively.

A conceptual framework, such as the one presented in this paper, poses rich opportunities for future research. One starting point is to replicate the empirical findings of this study to provide further support for the framework. Certainly the moderation effect of gender answers deserves further attention.

Another issue may be that the manipulations of mascot´s design characteristics could be not strong enough to evoke children´s gender schemas when processing the brand mascots. Then, the design characteristics of the mascots could be different and it is important to discover if the results became the same.

Future research is also needed to examine the relationship between gender and age. This research was limited to a very narrow range of ages. Analysing the results for different age groups will provide critical information for practitioners in the development of children´s brand mascots.

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[7] Homals is a technique developed by American researchers of the University of Leiden, in the early years of the 1990s. The goal of this tool is to analyze the relationships between the categories of a set of nominal variables. Through the application of a mathematical algorithm, HOMALS transforms the input categorical data so that an optimal quantification is attributed to each category (named the category quantification) and te each individual observation (named the object score). A fundamental characteristic oh HOMALS is that it allows to present the results geometrically, that is, as points within a low-dimensional space denominated perceptual map (Clausen, 1998; Geer, 1993)

Role of Design on Brand Building. Evaluating Design Dimensions of Branding Elements, Managers and Design Experts Reactions

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Introduction

The good design issue has been treated in the literature as a dilemma: what makes a good design? Who are able to define it? How can this issue be related to brand identity and branding? (Hertenstein, Platt, & Veryzer, 2005; Heskett, 2005; Svengren-Holm and Johansson, 2005; Stompff, 2003; Rams, 1995). According to this, the main objective of this study is to define what means a good design, how it can be measured and reflect branding aspects.

Brand identity is a set of association based on the brand's essence, belief, values, as well as on the product/service positioning definitions, segmentation, product, distributing channels, promotion and pricing. (Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2007; Bouchikhi & Kimberly, 2003; Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Mukherjee & Hongwei, 2008). Moreover, it is also associated to features, traits or attributes that might distinguish it from other organizations, and it is usual to find these concepts translated into design.

It means that the visual and symbolic aspects of design can help one brand to be perceived in a different way by consumers and the market in general. In previous works (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Keller, 1993) this theme has been treated as an important key to branding, as one brand should be noticed always in a same way by consumers. In other words, every contact point with consumer should be the result of a branding strategy. For instance, if a brand has an essence and values to be transparent and friendly to the environment, all the visual contact should emphasize these aspects. Therefore, design is a key to keep brand perceptions aligned.

Purpose

In spite of it, to measure and control this brand alignment it is not easy, as design should be used in many different ways in the whole business. According to this, it is important to consider what means a good design, how it can be measured and how it can affect branding. Design can reflect business purposes and orientation. For example, if the company is devoted to be extremely innovative, product design should keep this position and also the company's graphic design. It includes a higher thought about colors, symbols, and visual information that can confirm this position. Moreover, this innovation position should suggest a higher involvement with web design. In summary, design is present in all the elements that the company addresses to the market, they constitute a communication vehicle that transmit the company's positioning and consequently affect the brand building process. A tool for evaluating design may help managers to judge if the inputs send to the market are consistent between them and aligned with the brand strategy.

Methodology

Based on this objective and according to Gabrielsen, Gronhaug, Kahle, Kristensen, Plenborg, Wilke, (2009) previous study, the design of three key business elements: product, logo, and web; were measured considering the following dimensions: functionality, credibility, and expressivity. Functionality includes criteria such as convenience and easiness and is close related to the performance. Credibility stands for the reliability; and expressivity refers to the meanings a product, logo or web design is associated with.

The methodological design was defined by a quantitative approach and was conducted though 4 steps: (1) literature review, (2) questionnaire face validation with experts, (3) questionnaire face validation with managers, (4) fieldwork to test the proposed model. 58 Spanish companies defined the empirical context considering small and medium segments from varieties industries. All of them were evaluated by a manager and by two design experts. The measurement scales were evaluated by exploratory factorial analysis and omega reliability. To verify the proposed relations into the model were used correlation and regression analysis. The results offer insights about what mostly affect a good design and also reveal critical differences about the manager and the design expert perceptions.

Scales validity and reliability were checked though exploratory factorial analysis and Omega index. These procedures are aligned to small samples (Bisbe, Coenders, Saris, Batista-Foguet, 2006). In order to summarize the major findings, scales related to product, graphic and web design were statically acceptable considering managers and experts data.

Results

Scales of product design were acceptable, considering: product credibility (Ω experts = 0,80 <0,000 and Ω managers = 0,91 $p<0{,}000$), product expressivity (Ω experts = 0,96 $p<0{,}000$ and Ω managers = 0,92 $p<0{,}000$), and product functionality (Ω experts = 0,84 $p<0{,}000$ and Ω managers = 0,72 $p<0{,}000$). Scales of graphic design, specially about logo design, were also acceptable: logo credibility (Ω experts = 0,95 $p<0{,}000$ and Ω managers = 0,95 $p<0{,}000$), logo expressivity (Ω experts = 0,96 p<0,000 and Ω managers = 0,91 p<0,000), and logo functionality (Ω experts = 0,97 p<0,000 and Ω managers = 0,96 p<0,000). Finally, scales of web design were also satisfactory: web design credibility (Ω experts = 0,95 p<0,000 and Ω managers = 0,95 p<0,000), web design expressivity (Ω experts = 0,73 p<0,000 and Ω managers = 0,77 p<0,000) and web design functionality (Ω experts = 0,94 p<0,000 and Ω managers = 0,96 p<0,000). Is important to stress that although scales showed validity and reliability for both groups (managers and experts) some averages are significantly different. This situation suggests that the model is acceptable even with different kind of evaluation. For design experts good design seems to be related to more technical characteristics. For managers, good design means personal and emotional judges about "what I, as a manger, think that is good". Experts are worried about branding and consumer perception. Managers seem to evaluate their design issues with a internal company bias.

In order to better understand the relation about the overall good design into these analyzed categories, a linear regression was conducted with the whole data. For this, a weighted average was done to each design category. The results revealed that the good design can be explained in 88% by these categories. The ANOVA test of this regression showed acceptable results (F = 133,533, p<0,000). The regression was defined by: product design (β = 0,410 t = 5,962, p<0,000), graphic design (β = 0,363, t = 5,479, p<0,000) and web design (β = 0,308 t = 4,578, p<0,000).

Conclusions

The results give evidence of the validity of the model for evaluating design, but also of the different judgment of managers and design experts on companies design elements. As design has been acknowledged as a key element for branding (Guzman, Montaña, Moll, 2007), the research highlights the need of incorporating a multidimensional design evaluation system into the companies' brand management, which is in line with the closer integration between both concepts discussed by many authors (Beverland, 2005; Kreuzbauer & Malter, 2005; Borja de Mozota, 2003). The present study makes a contribution in this research area and offers managerial implications for promoting the aesthetic, visual and symbolic value of brands and for enhancing through design the coherence among all the elements that build up the brand experience.

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Design and Brand Image as Sources of Equity in International Textile-Clothing and Fashion Markets

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1. Introduction

The growing process of globalisation of the economy has changed the environment in which firms from the textile-clothing sector operate. These facts, tied to the saturation of domestic markets where these companies operated and to the international projection of distribution chains, have led, firstly, to an excellent opportunity for growth in foreign markets as well as the possibility of sourcing raw materials and labour at a lower cost and, secondly, it also represents a threat in light of increased competition.

Prior research has shown that intangible assets are of huge importance and relevance in contributing to greater competitiveness (Lu & Beamiss, 2001; Delgado-Gómez, Ramírez-Alesón, & Espitia-Escuer, 2004). More specifically the brand, patents, human resources and know-how are assets that the competition find difficult to copy. The brand stands out from among these resources, as it is presented as a sign or indicator that not only favours recognition by the consumer but also sets the offer apart from the competition. By the same token, although some researchers have emphasised the importance of studying the brand in international markets (Malhotra, Peterson, & Kleiser, 1999), a review of literature has shown that research carried out on brand equity of the textile-clothing sector on the international stage is fairly small scale (Jung & Sung, 2008; Tong & Hawley, 2009).

The aim of this paper is to address two issues. Firstly, we aim to analyse the sources of differentiation in light of the international context in which the sector is currently immersed. Secondly, we need to find out what variables and factors have the biggest impact in the creation of brand equity. To achieve these aims, we first carried out an in-depth interview with executives from the Galician textile-clothing sector. Based on the results of this quantitative stage, we designed and compiled a survey targeted at 250 consumers to assess the sources of brand equity in the market of clothing and fashion products. The main foundations and methodology is explained below, followed by the major results.

2. Conceptualisation and Main Foundations

2.1. *Competitive advantage and internationalisation of the textile-clothing and fashion markets.*

According to Porter (1998), there are two ways of obtaining a competitive advantage. Firstly, the cost, which attempts to minimise the production cost, enabling products to be offered to the market at a very low price, and secondly, the differentiation that seeks to provide unique value for which the consumer is prepared to pay the corresponding higher price. Previous literature and studies agree that differentiation is shown as a highly interesting strategic option when there are attributes in the product or service that are highly valued by the consumer and for which the consumer is prepared to pay a higher price. Research into the sources of differentiation in the textile sector has focused on the brand (Wigley & Moore, 2007), although attention is currently being diverted to other variables such as product quality or service quality and design.

Apart from being able to differentiate the supply properly, it is also necessary to be able to select and define the segment or niche at which the supply is targeted, especially in clothing and fashion markets (Parrish, Cassill, & Oxenham, 2006). Once the segment has been defined, the company needs to position itself in the segment. One of the variables that best complies with this function is the brand. The brand enables and facilitates recognition by the consumer and is also one of the key variables that have driven fashion internationalisation. It is therefore necessary to explain its importance and, above all, delve into the sources of equity that enable the company to reinforce its competitive position. This is explained in the next section.

2.2. *Brand and sources of brand equity*

As shown, the brand is a key factor in internationalisation in the fashion sector (Fernie, Moore, Lawrie, & Hallsworth, 1997; Moore, Fernie, & Burt, 2000). Existing literature has not only highlighted brand importance but also recognises the sources that enable brand equity to be created. Its multidimensional nature on which the main papers are based has been recognised in the contributions from Aaker (1991) and Keller (1993). According to Aaker (1991) brand equity is conceptualised in a multidimensional way, based on five areas: brand awareness, perceived quality, the image or associations, loyalty and other proprietary assets such as patents or copyright, etc. Brand awareness includes the potential capacity of the consumer to recognise or remember the name of a brand within a certain category of product (Keller, 2007). A further dimension is perceived quality. Perceived quality is defined as the technical superiority of a product or service that must be valued and perceived by the consumer. Previous research has tied this variable to a superior differentiation of the brand, as well as a greater predisposition to pay a price premium (Netemeyer et al., 2004).

Next are brand associations, also referred to as brand image. Aaker (1991) defines brand associations as any item that remains in the consumer's memory and which generates a positive association. This variable, which should include the definition of a distinctive style and specific design, becomes even more relevant in fashion markets, especially if one is seeking an offer with a high level of differentiation. The fourth dimension we look at is loyalty. Loyalty refers to the link between the customer and the brand. As far as fashion is concerned, Tong and Hawley (2009), who researched the importance of marketing variables on sources of brand equity, have emphasised that this variable has the biggest influence on the formation of brand equity. The identification of the sources of brand capital and knowing how these influence the formation of brand equity would enable fashion companies to differentiate the offer better as well as contribute to creating differentiated products in the market. Based on these foundations, model of brand equity was built.

< TAKE IN FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE >

To respond to these issues, we carried out both qualitative and quantitative research which is explained below.

3. Research Methodology

3.1. Qualitative Phase: In-depth interview and questionnaire with Executives

We divided the fieldwork into two clearly different stages. Firstly, qualitative research was carried out and this was followed by a quantitative stage. In the qualitative stage, we first carried out an in-depth interview to identify the sources of differentiation, activities and/or stages of the value chain as well as the most relevant strategic decisions (subcontracting, diversification, etc.). To do this we selected 46 executives from Galician medium-sized and big firms. A questionnaire was drawn up for executives from the sector using all of this output. The variables and measurement scales are shown in Table 1.

< TAKE IN TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE >

3.2. Quantitative Phase: Questionnaire to consumers

As a complement to this research with executives and specialists from the sector, research was also carried out with consumers to measure the brand equity based on classic brand equity measurements. Two hundred and fifty potential consumers of apparel and fashion products were randomly selected. These potential consumers came from different geographical locations from Spain. A wide range of firms was used, targeted at different types of public, styles and preferences. This enabled us to have a heterogeneous sample that included profiles of different consumers. The consumers had to assess the following clothing brands: Adolfo Domínguez, Purificación García, Carolina Herrera, Antonio Pernas, and Caramelo. In order to have the greatest representativeness of the sample of consumers, we selected sampling units of all age ranges from 18 to 65, and likewise from both sexes, with greater representation of females (64%) than males (36%). Those questioned were randomly assigned to the different brands and assessed the different items that define the constructs that make up the brand equity. Each brand was therefore assessed randomly by 50 consumers. Scales obtained from previous research were used to measure the different components of the brand equity. The information was captured through a structured questionnaire and the fieldwork was performed in February 2010. To analyze the data and by taking into account that what we are trying to measure are the causal relationships between variables of a latent or abstract nature, the so-called equity sources and the brand equity, the technique of analysis of covariance structures was chosen.

4. Major Findings

To respond to the objectives laid down, we divided the section into two clearly different parts. Firstly, we reveal the results on the source of competitive advantage and the variables with the greatest potential for differentiation. Afterwards, we analyse the sources of brand equity. Let's start with the first part.

4.1. Competitive strategy and differentiation variables

In this section, the executives of Galician medium-sized firms responded unanimously from among the different options that were presented to them. The executives' perception focused on the importance of differentiation targeted or focused on one segment is a result that is coherent with recent research (Parrish, Cassill, & Oxenham, 2006). This differentiation must be based on an offer of value tied to a very distinctive style. Moreover, this style must be transmitted by the brand and must be uniform and present in all products offered by the company. Therefore, the brand plays a fundamental role as factor of differentiation.

4.2. Sources of brand equity in the textile-clothing sector

Finally, we wanted to know the main sources of brand equity from the consumer's standpoint. Loyalty and brand associations (which include a distinctive design and image) were shown to be the most outstanding sources. Consumers, if they perceive a clear level of differentiation, tend to be loyal to this. As we have already said, achieving that level of differentiation depends on the design and brand image. Besides that, this distinctive design is a source of differentiation that enables consumers to immediately recognise the products of one brand and bestow it with a winner effect (Caruana, Pitt, Berthon, & Page, 2009). The allocation of resources to these variables of design (designers, pattern designers, stylists,..) or image (advertising investment, celebrities, etc.) and even the extension of the brand towards designer products are strategic decisions that will increase brand equity for the company.

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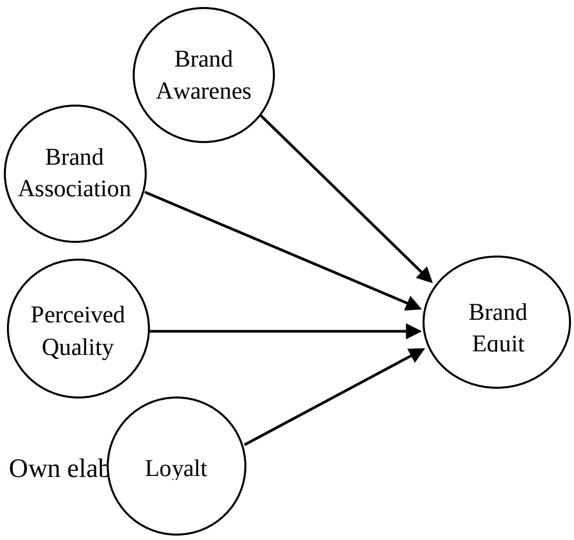
Figure 1: Sources of Brand Equity in Fashion Markets



Source: Own elab

Table 1: Selection of variables, items and measurement scales used in the Qualitative Research

Main and strategic interest aspects	Items used	General purpose/Measurement scale
Competitive strategy at international level	Sources of competitive advantage (Porter, 1998)	1. Cost 2. Differentiation
	Scope or focus (Porter, 1998)	1. The entire market 2. Segment
Organisation of the value chain	Procurement/Logistics (in and out) Production/Distribution/Marketing	Organise the different stages of the value chain
Stages of production and subcontracting decision	1. Design 2. Pattern 3. Tailoring 4. Finishing off 5. Quality control	1. Own Activity 2. Subcontracting
Competitiveness factors in different stages: Production / Logistics /Distribution and marketing *(Information obtained following the in-depth interview)* (Own compilation)	Open question in the initial stage of qualitative research (2009) and then the executive assessed how each of these items contributed to the company's competitive capacity	The presence of these factors contributes to the company's competitiveness…: *Measurement scale: 1. Totally disagree…5. Totally agree*
Factors of differentiation	Open question to executives in the initial stage of qualitative research (2009) followed by Likert scale on the degree to which they agree with each of these items and how they contribute to differentiation of the company	The following items contribute to differentiation of its supply over competing rivals Measurement scale: 1. Totally disagree…5. Totally agree

Source: Own compilation

Session 12.3

***Special Session Topic*: Issues in Brand Governance –**
What are the New Threats and Risks to Brand Value and Equity?

Clive Helm, Westminster Business School, U.K.
Richard Jones, Copenhagen Business School, Denmark

A Competance based Brand: Meaning and Management

Tayo Otubanjo, Pan African University, Nigeria
Olusanmi Amujo, Nigerian Institute of Public Relations, Nigeria

Special Session

Issues in Brand Governance: What are the New Threats and Risks to Brand Value and Equity?

Chairs: Clive Helm[a] and Richard Jones[b]

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This proposed Special Session is based on issues raised in the Editorial of a recent Special Issue of the Journal of Brand Management (2010) **17,** 545–547; **which is presented and summarized below.**

1. Introduction and Purpose

It is now almost a cliché to say that for many organizations, brands are their most valuable assets, whether at the corporate or product level. Awareness of the value of brands has grown in recent decades, particularly throughout the 1980s mergers and acquisitions frenzy, which prompted some consumer goods companies to become alert to the equity held in their brands and begin valuing them on balance sheets, a trend that has been adopted more widely, accounting conventions permitting. As is often pointed out, a strong brand creates superior value and competitive advantage that is sustainable and, if well managed and nurtured, can be a long-term source of future value. Although other key resources may have finite lives – material assets and research and development will be amortised, key people may leave and proprietary technologies become commodities – a successful brand can be a long-term strategic asset.

Of course, none of this is new. Although some sectors such as public and non-profit may still be moving up the learning curve, others, particularly the fast-moving consumer goods industry, have long been conscious of the importance of brands as key assets and the criticality to corporate wellbeing attached to managing them successfully. As a result, there is now a considerable body of practitioner expertise and academic theory that can be brought to bear in creating, building and valuing brand equity. However, what *is* new is a growing realisation that this equity held in brands, which forms an ever-increasing proportion of many companies' balance sheets, stock market worth and is a prime source of tomorrow's cashflow, increasingly needs to be safeguarded and secured against risk.

2. Key Issues

The recent Special Issue of the *Journal of Brand Management* on Brand Governance is therefore timely. But why has awareness of the whole issue of Brand Governance grown in recent years? We suggest that there are six major, overarching reasons that present growing challenges and threats to brand equity for the future:

1. *More uncertain and fiercely competitive industry environments:* It is no secret that, over the past few decades, many industries have been characterised by over-capacity, dramatically rising market uncertainty and hyper-competition, a trend that continues. This is largely as a result of factors such as globalisation and new technologies that have lowered barriers to entry, as well as the ongoing deregulation and privatisation of some sectors such as airlines and telecommunications, which may have once enjoyed a degree of protection. In the last 30 years, for example, the global airline industry has generally shown such low or negative profitability that, in many other businesses, would be considered unsustainable (CAA, 2006). Some major legacy operators have failed, others have formed alliances, partnerships or merged in one way or another. As the status of their brands decline, firms in various industries have found out the hard way that, as Peter Drucker (2007) once famously put it, their prime purpose has now become 'to create a customer' as many of the consumers they could depend on in less-competitive times have been tempted away elsewhere. In considering how they can compete in fiercely competitive and turbulent markets, some have begun to look to their brands as key to developing relationships with customers; as a result, there has been growing industry and academic attention paid to the quality of customer brand experience as a source of value.
2. *Ever more empowered consumers:* At the same time, consumers are becoming increasingly intolerant of any gap between what a brand promises and the experience it delivers when they actually encounter and engage with it. New distribution and communications channels, particularly the Internet, have given buyers, influencers and other stakeholders more information and choice of products and brand experiences than ever before. Consumers are also generally better informed, educated, sceptical, more self-directed and increasingly seeking value in the form of self-realisation from the brands that they feel are right for them. One threat to brand equity is that they are also generally less loyal; if dissatisfied with a brand experience, they can often switch and go elsewhere easily and at little or no cost – and there is much evidence to show that they do. These 'postmodern' consumers of the experiential, digital, price-transparent economy are difficult to reach, let alone engage with, and capturing long-term value from them is getting harder. Unless brands consistently deliver what they promise, they will find these consumers' loyalty harder to achieve.
3. *Line and brand extension proliferation:* In a simpler age, a brand often represented a single product line in a single category. Today, a proliferation of line and brand extensions as firms exploit their brand assets means that many brands now act as an umbrella for an ever growing number of extensions and variants, often in

several different and possibly unrelated areas. Sixty or 70 or so years ago, in the United Kingdom, Unilever's Persil was a white washing powder offered in a few different sized cardboard box packs and sold primarily in small corner shops: now, the brand is applied across several scores of home cleaning products in a large number of different categories, all bound by its proposition of ‘cleaning and caring’. Coordinating and delivering consistent promised quality of brand experience across so many brand variants is clearly increasingly difficult to manage – even more so for service-based products that are more subject to variability.

4. *A growing number of distribution and communication touchpoints:* Not only is the experience a brand promises being attached to a wider variety of product lines and categories, but it is also being offered through an ever-widening and more intricate network of distribution and communication channels, especially with the advent of digital media. Consumers expect consistency of brand experience at every touchpoint throughout their journey from first brand awareness, through trial and to repeat purchase. Again, in this rapidly developing context, coherent brand experience is becoming harder to deliver.
5. *Increased use of strategic partnerships in delivering brands to consumers:* Another factor contributing to the growing difficulty of managing delivery of promised experience is the increasing use by brand owners of various forms of strategic partnerships such as subcontracting, licensing, franchising or joint ownership in all the stages of creating and delivering the experience to final consumers – in manufacturing, service delivery, distribution and marketing communications. These arrangements bring the major dangers of complexity, lack of control and conflict inherent in all joint ventures to the brand delivery process, thus posing another risk to equity.
6. *The risks of social media:* Brand marketers have sought to exploit the opportunities offered by the growth of social media. But, although they can spread the good news about a brand like never before, the reverse is also true; social media have also amplified the perils to brand equity of experience delivery failure. Bad news can now spread like wildfire and severely damage a brand's reputation and equity more widely and rapidly than ever. Brand managers also increasingly risk ceding control and even a degree of possession of the brand to consumers and other interested stakeholders, promoting recent debate about where and with whom ownership of the brand actually lies.

3. Relevance and Topic for Debate

If brand equity is a prime source of a firm's value, then these issues should be the concern of senior managers as well as brand marketers as they lie at the heart of an organization's capability to create and sustain long-term value. Although brand equity is increasingly being seen as critical to an organization's value creation capability, at the same time, it seems to be becoming more fragile as the risks to brand equity of being damaged or dissipated appear to rising, and the potential hazards inherent in managing brands and brand experience seem to multiply.

However, on the other hand, it has been suggested that perhaps these threats have been overstated and pose less risk than imagined. This session seeks to provide discussion and debate on this important and wide ranging issue in current brand management.

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A Competance based Brand: Meaning and Management

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Abstract
The paper addresses how business organizations can effectively differentiate themselves in the marketplace. The paper underscores the strengths of existing corporate branding models whilst also highlighting their inability to accommodate the core competencies of business organizations. Consequently, key discourses within core competence and corporate branding literatures are integrated and drawn to develop 'the competence based branding model'. The model highlights the role of corporate personality in the corporate differentiation process – and the meaning of a competence based brand was suggested. A corporate advertising campaign, which calls attention to Accenture's knowledge personality, was presented to strengthen this meaning. The paper advances the conceptual literature on corporate branding by giving insight into the stage by stage processes through which a competence based brand evolves. It also provides a platform on which the role of core competencies within corporate brand building can be better understood.

Keywords: core competencies, corporate branding, corporate personality,

1. Introduction

Between the early 1990s and up until the later part of the mid 1990s, the notion of corporate identity was conceived as an important field of academic endeavour dominating the corporate marketing literature (Otubanjo and Melewar, 2007; He and Balmer, 2007; Cornelissen, et al. 2007; Cornelius et al., 2007; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Suvatjis and de Chernatony, 2005; Balmer, 2002a; Melewar, 2003; Christensen and Askegaard, 2001). The attention generated by the concept of corporate identity (during the said period) was so momentous that it inspired and influenced the publication of a special issue addressing this important concept (see European Journal of Marketing's 1997 special issue on corporate identity). More importantly, the vast amount of theoretical and empirical literatures contributing towards the development of theory in this field provides strong evidence (see Balmer, 2001b) that corporate identity was truly an important marketing phenomenon during the this period.

Today however, the story is different. The emphasis placed on the understanding of the meaning, management, planning, evaluation and measurement of the concept of corporate identity and the volume of theoretical literature contributing to this discipline has reduced considerably. Corporate marketing literature has witnessed a dramatic shift in emphasis towards corporate branding (Hatch and Schultz, 2003). Consequently, the volume of academic and practitioner literatures being published in European and American journals within the framework of corporate branding is rising by the day.

The movement towards increased recognition of corporate branding discipline especially among European academic and practitioner authors can be adduced to the rise in the volume of importance being placed not only on this phenomenon as a valuable element of strategic marketing (Mukherjee and He, 2008) and organisational strategy (Leitch and Richardson, 2003; Balmer 2001a; Olins, 2000) but importantly, it is increasingly seen as a strategic asset contributing billions of dollars to business organisations (Aaker, 1996).

In the face of today's fiercely competitive business activities, rapidly changing business environment, unwarranted stakeholder attacks and rising number of corporate scandals, corporate branding is increasingly deployed to do four things: (1) communicate corporate promises or values; (2) enhance the esteem and loyalty in which business organisations are held amongst stakeholder (Balmer, 2001a); (3) position firms in the favourable mindset of stakeholders (Keller, 2000) and (4) act as a tool for effective corporate differentiation (Balmer, 2001b; Harris and de Chernatony, 2001; Ind, 1996, King, 1991).

While a number of studies (de Chernatony and Dall'Olmo Riley, 1999; de Chernatony, 2001; Harris and de Chernatony, 2001; Leitch and Richardson, 2003; de Chernatony and Segal-Horn, 2003; Urde, 2003; Uggla, 2006) have attempted to explicate how corporate branding enhances the achievement of the first three objectives highlighted in the last paragraph, it remains unclear how a corporate brand enhances the successful differentiation of a firm. Given this gap, this study will attempt to present a new construct – "competence based branding" to explicate how a firm can be differentiated.

The pursuit of this objective is valuable and important in that it provides an insight into the stage by stage processes through which a distinct corporate brand evolves. By so doing, the vacuum in literature in relation to how corporate differentiation occurs through the deployment of a competence based corporate brand is filled. The study provides a deeper, explicit and analytical insight into the points of linkages that bind the disciplines of core competence and corporate branding together. A clear insight into the issues that bind these concepts provides researchers with a deeper and useful understanding of the relationship that subsist between core competence and corporate branding. Furthermore, this study will be a useful and valuable resource to academics, researcher and practitioners who seek to develop a good understanding of the role of core competencies in corporate brand building. Additionally, the study provides a useful conceptual and empirical foundation for future research in this field of academic endeavour. Also, it will be a useful resource to researchers (especially new doctoral students) whose work concerns the development of a competence based corporate brand. It will help these students to gain a quick understanding of the debates inherent in this field of study.

This study opens with the review of existing literature on core competence and corporate branding. A competence based corporate brand model is developed following the conceptualization of five categories of corporate brand management models. This is followed by the development of a competence based corporate brand model, which promotes a synthesis between the two disciplines; leading to the conceptualization of a new construct – "competence based brand". A definition (based on the conceptualized model) is advanced in the following section to explain the meaning of this new concept. The meaning of this concept is illustrated via the deconstruction of Accenture's corporate advertisement entitled "Plan/Backup Plan". This advertisement is interpreted using Barthes's (1967, 1973, 1988) influential (Phillips and Brown, 1993) semiotic method.

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Session 12.4

***Special Session Topic*: Co-construction of Brand Meaning**

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Brand Meaning Co-Creation of Newcomers: A Founder's Perspective

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SPECIAL SESSION

Co-construction of Brand Meaning

Brand literature emphasizes that brand meaning is co-constructed by organization internal and organizational external brand actors who are applying different resources and strategies. Insights into the role these brand actors play during the process of co-construction would help organizations to accommodate and leverage the oftentimes different expectations of different stakeholder groups, as well as help to reinforce and strengthen the desired brand meaning.

Despite some research on the topic, a general feeling among academics and practitioners suggests we have only just begun to understand how brand meaning is co-constructed. Some issues in co-construction of brand meaning have been investigated, though research gaps remain, and new fields need to be explored. This track hopes to address these lacunae. Selected papers will provide solid theoretical foundations—with or without empirical investigation—for how organizations, together with their stakeholders, are co-constructing brand meaning.

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Brand Meaning Co-Creation of Newcomers: A Founder’s Perspective

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Abstract

Research on the question of how founders select new employees suggests that he or she prefers to hire employees who have values and beliefs that are similar to her own, since such employees make the `right' decisions from her perspective (Cable and Judge 1996; Cable and Parsons 2001; Witt and Rode 2005). Through this mechanism – so the understanding – the company’s brand identity evolves through orchestrated internal and external experience (Hatch and Schultz 2008; Müller, Nahr-Ettl, and Rottweiler 2005).

However, the founder is confronted with two major challenges: (a) Even employees who seemingly fit with the founder’s values and beliefs, who possess similar expertise and share the same understanding of the company’s brand identity, can always choose to behave differently in their daily business behavior (Vallaster, 2007); (b) As the company expands and new employees are hired, the company’s brand identity often blurs, and the founder becomes increasingly busy dealing with organizational dynamics (McGrath and MacMillan, 2000). The more people involved, the greater the plurality of the meaning of the company’s brand identity.

In both cases, employees start to co-create brand meaning: Brand meaning is co-created at the point where employees purposefully or coincidentally, directly or indirectly (i.e., face-to-face or via written communication) get together to share positive or negative brand experiences or express brand beliefs and convictions (Koll, Hemetsberger, Pichler and von Wallpach, 2007). By disseminating their knowledge, expectations, evaluations and ways of usage or non-usage, employees create their own brand meanings which compete to shape the social reality of a company’s brand identity.

For the founder it is important to know how this process of brand meaning co-creation unfolds. This knowledge is a prerequisite for channelling the process of brand meaning co-creation and assessing the extent to which the resulting plurality of brand meaning benefits the entire company. For this, the discursive strategies and resources employees apply in co-creating brand meaning need to be understood. Scholars have examined various discursive tactics employed by employees, including irony, cynicism, humor and joking, bitching or and gossip (see for a review Mumby 2005). Such discursive resistance provides possibilities for alternative brand identity interpretations, while at the same time articulating these alternatives in ways that do not directly confront the brand identity manifested through the founder herself. .

Empirical knowledge as to how the process of brand meaning co-creation unfolds in a discourse between employees and the founder is missing. This research aims to close this gap by providing knowledge on (a) the relationships that manifest themselves via discourse between the founder and the employees, respectively amongst the employees themselves; and (b) the resources and discursive strategies employees apply in co-creating brand meaning.

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